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Centriolar Satellites: Molecular Characterization, ATP-dependent Movement Toward Centrioles and Possible Involvement in Ciliogenesis

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Abstract. We identified Xenopus pericentriolar material-1 (PCM-1), which had been reported to constitute pericentriolar material, cloned its cDNA, and generated a specific pAb against this molecule. Immunolabeling revealed that PCM-1 was not a pericentriolar material protein, but a specific component of centriolar satellites, morphologically characterized as electron-dense granules, ~70–100 nm in diameter, scattered around centrosomes. Using a GFP fusion protein with PCM-1, we found that PCM-1–containing centriolar satellites moved along microtubules toward their minus ends, i.e., toward centrosomes, in live cells, as well as in vitro reconstituted asters. These findings defined centriolar satellites at the molecular level, and explained their pericentriolar localization. Next, to understand the relationship between centriolar satellites and centriolar replication, we examined the expression and subcellular localization of PCM-1 in ciliated epithelial cells during ciliogenesis. When ciliogenesis was induced in mouse nasal respiratory epithelial cells, PCM-1 immunofluorescence was markedly elevated at the apical cytoplasm. At the electron microscopic level, anti-PCM-1 pAb exclusively labeled fibrous granules, but not deuterosomes, both of which have been suggested to play central roles in centriolar replication in ciliogenesis. These findings suggested that centriolar satellites and fibrous granules are identical novel nonmembranous organelles containing PCM-1, which may play some important role(s) in centriolar replication.

Key words: centriole • centriolar satellites • fibrous granule • pericentriolar material-1 • ciliogenesis

The centrosome functions as an organizing center for cytoskeletal components, especially microtubules (MTs) (Kimble and Kuriyama, 1992; Kalt and Schliwa, 1993; Kellogg et al., 1994; Zimmerman et al., 1999). This structure usually has a centriole pair at its center, surrounded by fibrous material known as the pericentriolar material. In addition to these structures, early electron microscopic observations identified electron-dense spherical granules, ~70–100 nm in diameter, localized around centrosomes in many types of vertebrate cells (Bernhard and de Harven, 1960; de-Thé, 1964; Berns et al., 1977; Rattner, 1992). These granules have been termed massules (Bessis and Breton-Gorius, 1958) or satellites (Bernhard and de Harven, 1960). They were occasionally shown to be associated with MTs radiating from centrosomes (de-Thé, 1964), and their number decreased and increased during mitosis and interphase, respectively (Rattner, 1992). However, mainly due to the lack of information regarding their molecular components, these granular structures have since attracted little attention.

The molecular mechanism behind the replication of centrosomes has attracted increasing interest (for reviews see Marshall and Rosenbaum, 1999; Zimmerman et al., 1999). At the G 1/S transition, nascent centrioles appear and grow perpendicularly on the side of mother centrioles. Although in most cells, centrosomes are duplicated once per cell cycle, in ciliated epithelial cells, each of which bears...
hundreds of basal bodies, i.e., centrioles (Rhodin and Dalhamn, 1956), numerous replicating centrioles were simultaneously observed during ciliogenesis (Sorokin, 1968; Steinman, 1968; Anderson and Brenner, 1971; Dirksen, 1991). Therefore, ciliogenesis was thought to provide an advantageous system to examine the molecular mechanism of centriolar replication. Conventional ultrathin EM identified two distinct pathways for ciliogenesis in ciliated cells: centriolar and acentriolar pathways (Anderson and Brenner, 1971). In the centriolar pathway, multiple daughter centrioles grow out from mother centrioles, but this pathway appears to explain only a small fraction of centriolar replication during ciliogenesis (Anderson and Brenner, 1971). The acentriolar pathway is now thought to be more dominant for basal body replication. When ciliogenesis is induced in ciliated epithelial cells, so-called fibrous granules (Anderson and Brenner, 1971), nonmembranous electron-dense granules, ~70–100 nm in diameter, first appear in the cytoplasm (Sorokin, 1968; Steinman, 1968; Anderson and Brenner, 1971; Dirksen, 1991). These granules occasionally aggregate together with fibrous materials to form a fibrogranular area in the apical cytoplasm of ciliogenic cells. In the next step, deuterosomes (Sorokin, 1968), larger nonmembranous electron-dense spherical structures (~75–400 nm in diameter), appear within or close to the fibrogranular area. There is debate over whether deuterosomes are generated by aggregation and fusion of fibrous granules (Sorokin, 1968; Anderson and Brenner, 1971; Youson, 1982; Dirksen, 1991) or independently from fibrous granules (Loots and Nel, 1989). Multiple procentrioles grow out from deuterosomes, and mature daughter centrioles are separated from deuterosomes to travel toward the apical region where centrioles function as ciliary basal bodies. The binding of basal bodies to the plasma membrane then appears to initiate the elongation of axoneme. Interestingly, fibrous granules also exist around basal bodies during the elongation of axoneme (Steinman, 1968). The lack of information of the molecular components of these fibrous granules, as well as deuterosomes, however, has hampered the direct assessment of identity and functions of these structures in multiple centriolar replication and axenomal elongation during ciliogenesis.

During the course of our studies to identify centrosome-specific molecules in X enopus oocytes, we identified the X enopus homologue of pericentriolar material-1 (PC M-1) with a molecular mass of ~230 kD (Balczon et al., 1994). This molecule was initially identified as an antigen of human autoimmune sera. In HeLa cells, PCM-1 was reported to be associated with centrosomes in interphase, but dissociated in metaphase (Balczon et al., 1994). In this study, we identified PCM-1 as the first component of centriolar satellites, and found that PCM-1-containing centriolar satellites moved along MTs toward centrosomes in an ATP-dependent manner. Furthermore, we showed that PCM-1 was also concentrated in fibrous granules, but not in deuterosomes, in ciliogenic cells. These findings indicated the existence of a novel type of nonmembranous organelle containing PC M-1, previously called centriolar satellites or fibrous granules, and suggested the possible association of these organelles with centriolar replication.

**Materials and Methods**

### Generation of Monoclonal Antibodies

Centrosomes were isolated from mouse L5178Y cells and treated with 1 M KCl (Ohta et al., 1993). X enopus egg extracts were prepared as described previously (Shiina et al., 1992). Centrosomes (1 ml) were incubated with X enopus egg extracts (5 ml) for 30 min at 20°C. After dilution with 15 ml of buffer A (10 mM Pipes, pH 7.2, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM MgCl₂, 0.9 M glycerol, 12.5 mM β-glycerophosphate, 1 mM DTT, 4 μg/ml cytochalasin B, and 7 μg/ml nocodazole), centrosomes were recovered by centrifugation through a 40% sucrose cushion at 50,000 g for 30 min at 2°C. The precipitate was suspended in 5 ml of buffer A and centrifuged again through the same sucrose cushion. The precipitate was then extracted with 200 μl of 1 M KCl in buffer B (20 mM Pipes, pH 6.8, 1 mM EGTA, 1 mM MgCl₂) on ice for 30 min, followed by centrifugation at 22,000 g for 20 min at 2°C. The supernatant, containing pericentriolar material from the egg extracts, was dialyzed against PBS and used as an antigen for mAb production. Hybridomas were produced and screened as described previously (Shiina et al., 1992). We obtained several independent clones producing mAbs including W8C3, which recognized centrosomes of A6 cells on immunofluorescence microscopy.

### Cloning of Xenopus and Mouse PCM-1 cDNA

A X.ZAP II cDNA expression library of X enopus embryo (Stratagene) was screened using a mAb W8C3, and several positive clones including clone n1 (2.3-kb cDNA fragment) were obtained. A agt11 X enopus oocyte cDNA library (Clontech Laboratories, Inc.) was then screened by hybridization with the clone n1 as a probe. Finally, the full-length X enopus PCM-1 cDNA (XP C-1; clone 23a) was obtained. The predicted open reading frame (ORF) contained 6,093 nucleotides encoding a protein of 2,031 amino acids (aa) with a calculated molecular mass of 228 kD, which showed 56.8% identity to human PCM-1 (hPCM-1) at the amino acid sequence level.

A mouse cDNA library constructed from F9 cells was screened by hybridization with the coding region of X PCM-1 cDNA, and the full-length cDNA for mouse PCM-1 (mPCM-1; clone 16-111) was isolated. The predicted ORF contained 6,075 nucleotides encoding a protein of 2,025 aa with a calculated molecular mass of 229 kD, which showed 57.2% and 87.3% identity to X PCM-1 and hPCM-1 at the amino acid sequence level, respectively.

### SDS-PAGE and Immunoblotting

SD S-PAGE and immunoblotting was performed according to the method of Laemmli (1970), and proteins were stained with Coomassie brilliant blue. For immunoblotting, proteins were electrophoretically transferred onto polyvinylidene difluoride (PVDF) membranes (Millipore Co.), which were subsequently incubated with the first antibodies. Bound antibodies were detected with biotinylated secondary antibodies and streptavidin-conjugated alkaline phosphatase (Nycodem A mersham Inc.). Nitroblue tetrazolium and bromochloroindolyl phosphate were used as substrates for detection of alkaline phosphatase.

### Generation of Polyclonal Antibodies

The cDNA encoding aa 1,346–2,031 of X PCM-1 (clone n1) or aa 1,299–2,025 of mPCM-1 was subcloned into pGEX-4T-1 or pGEX-5X-3 (Pharmacia Biotech Sverige), respectively, to produce fusion proteins with glutathione S-transferase (GST). These GST fusion proteins were expressed in E. coli, purified using glutathione Sephaose 4B columns (Pharmacia Biotech Sverige; Smith and Johnson, 1988), and used as antigens to generate polyclonal antibodies (pAbs) in rabbits.

### Constructs for GFP-XPCM-1 Fusion Proteins

Full-length X PCM-1 (aa 1–2,031) and its middle portion (aa 745–1,271) were fused with GFP at their COOH termini (GFP-FX and GFP-MX, respectively). To construct the expression vector for GFP-FX, Xbal sites were introduced into both ends of the ORF of X PCM-1 cDNA by site-directed mutagenesis using a Transformer Site-Directed Mutagenesis Kit (CLONTECH Laboratories, Inc.) with primers 5'-CTGCAAAACATGTCCTAAGGAGGAGGTCC-3' and 5'-GCCCATCCACCCGTG-
CATCTAGAAGAATCTGACAAACAG-3'. The X-bal–X-bal fragment was subcloned into the Nhel site of the pQb125 GFP expression vector (Quantum Biotechnologies, Inc.). To construct the expression vector for GFP-MX, MluI sites and KpnI sites were introduced into both ends of the regions encoding aa 1–744 and aa 1277–2031, respectively, in the GFP-FX expression vector by site-directed mutagenesis with primers 5'-CCGC-CAAGAATGTCGCTGAGGATGTACCC-3'/5'-CCAAATATAAACCGGTCCAAATTGCTC-3' and 5'-CTCTTGCAAGCTGTCATCCTCAGCCAACTCTGG-3'/5'-GCTATCCACCCCTGGTACCAAGGAAGAAGGAAAC-3'. This plasmid was digested with MluI, followed by self-ligation, and then digested with KpnI, followed by self-ligation, to generate the GFP-MX expression vector. A II expression vectors were confirmed by sequencing.

**Observation of GFP Fusion Proteins in Live Cells**

A 6 cells were transfected with the GFP-FX or GFP-MX expression vector, and stable transfectants were obtained (GFX-A6 and GMX-A6 cells, respectively) as described previously (Shiina and Tsukita, 1999). These transfectants were observed using a DeltaVision microscope (Aplied Precision, Inc.) equipped with an Olympus IX70 microscope and a cooled charge-coupled device (CCD) system. Each image was acquired with 1-s exposure of the CCD camera.

**In Vitro Motility Assay**

Centrosomes were isolated from A 6 cells, and rhodamine-labeled tubulin was obtained from bovine brain as described previously (Mitchison and Kirschner, 1984; Bornens et al., 1987; Hymyan et al., 1991). GMX-A6 cells were collected and homogenized in PEM 35 buffer (35 mM Pipes, pH 7.1, 0.5 mM EGTA, 0.5 mM MgCl2) containing 0.2 M sucrose, 1 mM DTT, 0.4 μg/ml nucodazole, 10 μg/ml pepstatin, 10 μg/ml leupeptin, and 1% aprotinin, and were then layered onto a 0.3–1.2 M linear sucrose density gradient enriched in GFP-tagged centriolar satellites was collected and then digested with KpnI, followed by self-ligation, to generate the GFP-MX expression vector. A II expression vectors were confirmed by sequencing.

**Induction of Ciliogenesis in Mouse Nasal Respiratory Epithelia**

Nasal respiratory epithelia of C57/B6 mice were irritated with 1% aqueous ZnSO4 solution for 30 min. The mixture was spread onto glass coverslips, warmed to 22°C, and then observed with the DeltaVision microscope. In some experiments, AMF-PNP (Sigma Chemical Co.), sodium orthovanadate (Wako Pure Chemicals), or mouse antidynein intermediate chain mAb (m70.1; Sigma Chemical Co.) was added to the mixture on ice for 30 min, followed by further incubation for 10 min at 22°C before observation.

**Immunofluorescence Microscopy**

Xenopus A6 cells cultured on glass coverslips were fixed with methanol for 5 min at −20°C and processed for immunofluorescence microscopy as described previously (Shiina et al., 1992). Mouse anti-α-tubulin mAb (D81A; Sigma Chemical Co.) and mouse anti-γ-tubulin mAb (GTU-88; Sigma Chemical Co.) were used as the primary antibodies, and Cy3-conjugated goat anti-rabbit IgG antibody and Cy2-conjugated donkey anti-mouse IgG antibody (Nycomed A. mersham, Inc.) were used as secondary antibodies.

Small pieces of mouse nasal respiratory epithelia fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde were incubated with 2.3 M sucrose containing 20% polyvinylpyrrolidone at 4°C overnight, rinsed with liquid nitrogen, then cut into cryosections−0.5-μm thick at −110°C. They were then mounted on poly-l-lysine coated glass coverslips, treated with 0.12% glycine in PBS for 30 min, and processed for immunofluorescence microscopy as described previously (Tokiuyasu, 1980; Fujimoto et al., 1992). Specimens were observed using a fluorescence microscope (Axiophot photomicroscope; Carl Zeiss, Inc.), or an MRC 1024 laser-scanning confocal microscope (Bio-Rad Laboratories) equipped with a Zeiss Axioplan 2 photomicroscope. Images gained by laser-scanning confocal microscopy were integrated from the optical sections recorded at intervals of 0.2 μm.

**Electron Microscopy**

Conventional EM for A 6 cells and nasal respiratory epithelium of mouse was performed as described previously (Y onemura et al., 1995). For immunoelectron microscopy of A 6 cells, cells cultured on glass coverslips were incubated with 0.25% glutaraldehyde in PEM 80 buffer (80 mM Pipes, pH 6.8, 1 mM EGTA, and 1 mM MgCl2) containing 1% Triton X-100 for 10 min at room temperature, and processed for immunoelectron microscopy according to the method described previously (Wittmann et al., 1998). For immunoelectron microscopy of in vitro reconstituted asters, samples were prepared as follows. The fraction enriched in centriolar satellites was prepared from nontransfected A 6 cells as described above. This fraction was resuspended in the supernatant of X enopus egg extract, and then 1/10 vol of isolated centrosomes was added. The mixture was incubated at room temperature for 20 min and processed for immunoelectron microscopy as described previously (Wittmann et al., 1998). For preembedding immunoelectron microscopy of mouse nasal epithelia, samples were treated with PEM 80 buffer containing 0.5% Triton X-100 for 6 min, fixed with 0.25% glutaraldehyde in PEM 80 buffer containing 1% Triton X-100 for 10 min, and processed as described previously (Wittmann et al., 1998). Postembedding immunoelectron microscopy of mouse nasal epithelia, small pieces fixed in 1% paraformaldehyde were incubated with 2.3 M sucrose containing 20% polyvinylpyrrolidone at 4°C overnight and rapidly frozen in liquid nitrogen. Ultrathin cryosections were cut and processed for immunolabeling, according to the method developed by Tokuyasu (1980; Fujimoto et al., 1992). Goat anti-rabbit IgG coupled to 10-nm gold (Nycomed A. mersham Inc.) was used as a secondary antibody. Samples were examined with an electron microscope (J E M 1010; JEOL) at an accelerating voltage of 100 kV.

**Online Supplemental Material**

A movie file corresponding to Fig. 4a is available online (http://www.jcb.org/cgi/content/147/5/969/F4/D1C1). Time-lapse images collected using DeltaVision were processed with Adobe Photoshop software and converted to a QuickTime movie (JPEG compression) with Adobe Premiere Software. This movie contains the time-lapse images from the first to the last panel in the corresponding figures. Images were recorded for 3 min at 5-6 intervals.

**Results**

**Localization of PCM-1 in Centriolar Satellites**

To analyze the molecular components of centrosomes, we raised mAbs against pericentriolar material isolated from X enopus egg extracts. Since one of these mAbs, W8C3, stained centrosomes of cultured X enopus epithelial A cells, we isolated a full-length CDNA encoding its antigen by screening a X enopus embryo rZAP II cDNA expression library. CDNA sequencing revealed that its product encoded a protein of 2,031 aa with significant similarity to human PCM-1 (hPCM-1; 56.8% identity at the amino acid sequence level), indicating that W8C3 recognized a X enopus homologue of PCM-1 (xPCM-1; sequence data are available from GenBank/EM BL/DB J) under accession number A B 025414). As this mAb showed some cross-reaction with α-tubulin, we then raised a pAb against re-
combinant X PCM-1 produced in E. coli. A s shown on immuno- blots, this pAb specifically recognized a 230-kD band in A 6 cell lysates, as well as X enopus egg extracts (Fig. 1 a). Judging from the molecular mass of human PCM-1 (230 kD) and from the reactivity of this pAb with recombinant X enopus PCM-1, we concluded that this pAb specifically recognized X PCM-1. Next, to examine the subcellular localization of X PCM-1 by immunofluorescence microscopy, cultured A 6 cells were doubly stained with the anti–X PCM-1 pAb b and anti–γ-tubulin mAb b (Fig. 2, a–c). The γ-tubulin signal was exclusively detected in centrosomes, whereas X PCM-1 was concentrated on and/or around γ-tubulin–positive centrosomes in large amounts, and was also scattered in the cytoplasm in a punctate manner in small amounts. In metaphase, its concentration around centrosomes became obscure as previously described in HeLa cells (Balczon et al., 1994; data not shown). Interestingly, when these X PCM-1–positive granular structures were examined in Triton X-100–treated A 6 cells by immunoelectron microscopy, anti–X PCM-1 pAb b specifically labeled electron-dense spherical granules 80–90 nm in diameter located around centrosomes (Fig. 2 d). Some of these granules appeared to be associated with MTs. Conventional EM of A 6 cells also identified similar electron-dense granules gathering around centrosomes, which were not surrounded by membranes (Fig. 2 e). Judging from their morphological characteristics, we concluded that these granules were identical to the previously described structures designated as centriolar satellites (Bernhard and De Harven, 1960; de-Thé, 1964; Berns et al., 1977). A s shown in
tionary states. In cultured GMX-A6 cells, single centriolar satellites in the cytoplasm appeared to move not only toward centrosomes, but also toward the cell periphery (Fig. 3, d–g). Nocodazole (0.4 μg/ml), but not cytochalasin B (1–10 μg/ml), affected these directional movements of centriolar satellites (data not shown).

MT-dependent Movement of Centriolar Satellites In Vitro

Observations in live cells suggested that centriolar satellites moved along MTs. Therefore, we next examined the interaction of MTs and centriolar satellites in vitro. GFP-tagged centriolar satellites were partially purified from GMX-A6 cells. Asters were reconstituted in vitro from centrosomes isolated from A6 cells, rhodamine-labeled tubulin purified from porcine brain, and 200,000 g supernatant of Xenopus egg extracts. Then, the isolated centriolar satellites were mixed with reconstituted asters in the presence of ATP. As shown in Fig. 4 a and the movie, at the beginning of observation by fluorescence microscopy, numerous GFP-tagged centriolar satellites were already gathered in the center of reconstituted asters, but close inspection revealed single granules moving along MTs. These granules moved toward the minus end of MTs, i.e., toward the centrosomes. No granules were observed moving toward the plus end of MTs. Similarly to the in vivo observations, these granules repeatedly alternated between the stationary and moving states. Their maximum velocity was 0.7 μm/s, which was compatible to that in vivo. A's shown in Fig. 4 a, these granules had frequent changes of MTs.

We then examined the centriolar satellites gathered around centrosomes in the in vitro reconstituted system by immunoelectron microscopy. Numerous electron-dense nonmembranous granules, ~80–90 nm in diameter, were observed around centrosomes, and these were labeled with anti-XPCM-1 pAb (Fig. 4 b). Of course, no granules were observed in asters that were reconstituted in the absence of isolated centriolar satellites (data not shown). At the periphery of asters, anti-XPCM-1 pAb-labeled elec-
tron-dense granules were occasionally seen to be associated with MTs, which may have been on the way to centrosomes (data not shown).

To identify the motor protein responsible for this in vitro movement of GFP-tagged centriolar satellites, we examined the effects of some inhibitors of motor proteins (Fig. 5). At 10 μM, vanadate abolished the accumulation of centriolar satellites around centrosomes. This finding suggested that dynein was involved, since dynein, but not kinesin, is inhibited by low concentrations of vanadate (10–20 μM; Schroer and Sheetz, 1989). AMP-PNP did not affect centriolar satellite accumulation at a concentration of 100 μM, whereas at higher concentrations, such as 2 mM, AMP-PNP showed complete suppression. This again favored the notion that dynein is responsible for the centriolar satellite movement, since 100 μM AMP-PNP inhibits kinesin, but not dynein (2 mM AMP-PNP inhibits both; Schroer and Sheetz, 1989). In good agreement with these observations, antidynein intermediate chain mAb (m70.1; 60 μg/ml) completely abolished the accumulation of GFP-tagged centriolar satellites around centrosomes, while control IgG had no effect.

**PCM-1 in Fibrous Granules Associated with Ciliogenesis**

The pericentriolar localization of PCM-1-containing centriolar satellites and their disappearance in mitotic cells (Balczon et al., 1994) suggested some association of these granules with the replication cycle of centrioles. During experimentally induced ciliogenesis, numerous centrioles (ciliary basal bodies) were known to be replicated in a synchronized manner within individual cells, providing a good system to examine centriolar replication (Anderson and Brenner, 1971). We then examined the expression and behavior of PCM-1 in mouse nasal respiratory epithelium, since ciliogenesis can be induced simply by irritation with 1% aqueous ZnSO4 (Matulionis, 1975).

First, full-length cDNA encoding mouse PCM-1 (mPCM-1) was isolated. Its product encoded a protein of 2,025 aa with significant similarity to hPCM-1 and XPCM-1 (87.3% and 57.2% identity at the amino acid sequence level, respectively; the sequence data are available from GenBank/EMBL/DDBJ under accession number AB029291). Then, using recombinant mPCM-1 produced in E. coli as an antigen, a pAb was generated. This pAb specifically recognized an ~230-kD band in the total lysate of mouse Eph4 cells on immunoblots (Fig. 1 b) and exclusively labeled centriolar satellites of Eph4 cells at the electron microscopic level (data not shown). Interestingly, when cryosections of mouse nasal respiratory ciliated epithelium were immunofluorescently stained with this pAb, the PCM-1 signal was specifically detected at their apical cytoplasm in a granular pattern (Fig. 6, a and c). Four days after irritation of the nasal epithelia with 1% aqueous ZnSO4 in situ, cilia were completely removed from their apical surface (Fig. 6 d) and, interestingly, the mPCM-1 signal was markedly elevated at the apical cytoplasm (Fig. 3).
Then, we examined the ZnSO\textsubscript{4}-induced morphological changes of these ciliated epithelia at the electron microscopic level. Conventional ultrathin EM revealed that in nontreated ciliated cells, electron-dense granules \( \sim 100 \text{ nm in diameter} \) were scattered beneath the layer of basal bodies of cilia (Fig. 7 a). Curiously, these granules were morphologically indistinguishable from centriolar satellites. As shown in Fig. 7, b and c, both preembedding and postembedding immunolabeling revealed that these granules were exclusively labeled with anti–mPCM-1 pAb. When cilia were removed from these respiratory epithelia by ZnSO\textsubscript{4} treatment, these granules appeared to increase in number and aggregated extensively (Fig. 7 d). In previous reports, these granules were called fibrous granules and were thought to be absent in nonciliogenic cells (Sorokin, 1968; Steinman, 1968; Anderson and Brenner, 1971; Dirksen, 1991), but this was not likely. This will be confirmed by the subsequent immunoelectron microscopy. In or close to the aggregation of these granules called fibrogranular area, so-called deuterosomes with multiple replicating procentrioles appeared (Fig. 7 d). These morphological characteristics indicated that synchronized multiple centriolar replication and subsequent ciliogenesis were induced in these cells. Preembedding immunoelectron microscopy revealed that these aggregated fibrous granules, but not deuterosomes, were heavily labeled with anti–mPCM-1 pAb (Fig. 7 e). Since deuterosomes were very large electron-dense structures, it was possible that antibodies cannot access the antigen within deuterosomes. However, postembedding immunolabeling did not detect mPCM-1 within deuterosomes, excluding this possibility (Fig. 7 f). Taken together, we concluded that so-called fibrous granules, which had been intensively examined from the viewpoint of centriolar replication, may be identical to PCM-1–containing centriolar satellites.

**Discussion**

Various types of membranous and nonmembranous organelles have been described in eukaryotic cells, and their structures and functions have been analyzed in detail. However, there are likely to be many organelles that have not been identified or characterized. The centriolar satellite, electron-dense spherical granules \( \sim 70-100 \text{ nm in diameter} \), occurring around centrioles in most types of cells,
is one such uncharacterized type of nonmembranous organelle. In this study, we identified PCM-1 as the first component of the centriolar satellite in Xenopus A6 and mouse Eph4 cells. Transfection experiments of a truncated form of XPCM-1 showed that multiple XPCM-1 molecules were incorporated into each granule, and our preliminary experiments showed that these molecules bind directly to each other to form dimers or oligomers, suggesting that PCM-1 is a kind of scaffold protein constituting the centriolar satellites. Fibrous granules also constitute an uncharacterized type of nonmembranous organelle. These granules were thought to appear in ciliated cells only during ciliogenesis, but we found that they were also distributed close to ciliary basal bodies in nonciliogenic phase. These granules also had the appearance of electron-dense spherical granules ~80–90 nm in diameter, and were indistinguishable morphologically from the centriolar satellites, although this resemblance has not been described previously. Interestingly, we found that these granules also contained PCM-1. Therefore, we propose here that centriolar satellites and fibrous granules can be regarded as the same novel nonmembranous organelles, defined by their specific component, PCM-1.

One of the most characteristic features of centriolar satellites (so probably also fibrous granules) is their ability to move along MTs; they moved along MTs toward their minus ends, i.e., toward centrosomes, in reconstituted asters in vitro in the presence of ATP. The effects of AMP-PNP, vanadate, and antidynein intermediate chain mAb (m70.1), also completely suppressed the accumulation. When the accumulation was suppressed, the movement of individual granules itself was always affected. Bar, 10 μm. Figure 5. Inhibition of the accumulation of GFP-tagged centriolar satellites around centrosomes in vitro. A reconstituted aster (red) was incubated with GFP-tagged centriolar satellites (green) under the same condition as Fig. 4 a. Without additional reagents, numerous granules were accumulated around the centrosome during 10-min incubation (Control). AMP-PNP at 2 mM, but not 100 μM, significantly suppressed the accumulation of granules. 10 μM vanadate, as well as antidynein intermediate chain mAb (m70.1), also completely suppressed the accumulation. When the accumulation was suppressed, the movement of individual granules itself was always affected. Bar, 10 μm. b, The number of centriolar satellites, which were accumulated around centrosomes during 10-min incubation, were counted per individual centrosomes. A steriks, F-test showed significant inhibition (P < 0.001).
In good agreement, the level of PCM-1 replication of basal bodies (Sorokin, 1968; Anderson and Brenner, 1971). However, this was not likely since PCM-1 was detected in fibrous granules, but not in deuterosomes (Sorokin, 1968; Anderson and Brenner, 1971). It is widely accepted that centriolar replication begins near the G1/S boundary, continues through S phase, and is completed during G2 phase (Robbins et al., 1968; Brinkley, 1985; Vanden and Borisy, 1989). In good agreement, PCM-1 at centrosomes is released into the cytoplasm on the entry to M phase, and on the entry to interphase this molecule is relocalized at centrosomes (Rattner, 1992; Balczon et al., 1994). PCM-1 mRNA levels increase through G1 and S phases, and became undetectable during G2 and M phases in CHO cells (Balczon et al., 1995). Interestingly, PCM-1 mRNA levels remained elevated during multiple rounds of centrosome replication in CHO cells arrested at the G1/S boundary by hydroxyurea with a concomitant increase in number of centriolar satellites (see Figure 4 in Balczon et al., 1995).

On the other hand, fibrous granules were also suggested to function as axonemal precursors (Steinman, 1968). Recent studies using Chlamydomonas identified intraflagellar transport (IFT) particles as large preassembled precursors for various axonemal structures in cytoplasm that were concentrated around centrosomes (Cole et al., 1998; Rosenbaum et al., 1999). However, it is not likely that fibrous granules are the counterparts of IFT particles; IFT particles are lollipop-shaped electron-dense granules, ~14–19 nm in diameter (see Figure 3 in Kozminski et al., 1993), which is much smaller than fibrous granules. IFT particles were detected within flagella, while fibrous granules or PCM-1 was not observed within cilia. Furthermore, PCM-1 immunofluorescence was abundant in the apical cytoplasm of nonciliated epithelial cells, such as intestinal and gastric epithelial cells (Kubo, A., A. Yuba-Kubo, S. Tsukita, and N. Shiina, unpublished data). These findings are against the notion that fibrous granules function as axonemal precursors. Further identification of other components of fibrous granules/centriolar satellites will answer these questions more clearly.

In this study, we identified pericentriolar satellites and fibrous granules as PCM-1-containing novel nonmembranous organelles, which were accumulated around centrosomes and ciliary basal bodies, respectively, through their minus end-directed movement along MTs. These findings then suggested the possible association of these PCM-1-containing organelles with centriolar replication. Further detailed analyses of these organelles, as well as PCM-1 molecules, will lead to a better understanding of the molecular mechanism of centriologenesis in general.
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Figure 7. Localization of m PCM-1 in nasal respiratory epithelial cells at four days after exposure to distilled water (a-c) or irritation with 1% aqueous ZnSO4 (d-f). a, Conventional ultrathin E M. Electron-dense spherical granules (arrowheads). ∼70–100 nm in diameter, which were morphologically indistinguishable from centriolar satellites, were scattered close to ciliary basal bodies (asterisks). Open arrows, microtubules. b, Preembedding immunoelectron microscopy. Nasal epithelial tissues were treated with 0.5% Triton X-100, fixed with glutaraldehyde, then labeled with anti–m PCM-1 pAb. The centriolar satellite-like granules were specifically labeled (arrowheads). c, Postembedding immunoelectron microscopy. Ulnar cut sections of nasal epithelial cells were labeled with anti–m PCM-1 pAb. The centriolar satellite-like granules were specifically labeled (arrowheads). d, Conventional ultrathin E M. Citrines were completely removed, and at the apical cytoplasm numerous fibrous granules (arrowheads), as well as deutoosomes (arrows), appeared. e, Preembedding immunoelectron microscopy. Samples were treated with 0.5% Triton X-100, fixed with glutaraldehyde, then labeled with anti–m PCM-1 pAb. Fibrous granules (arrowheads), but not deutoosomes (arrows), were heavily labeled. b Both centriolar and acentriolar pathways for centriolar replication were observed (see details in the text). f, Postembedding immunoelectron microscopy. Ulnar cut sections were labeled with anti–m PCM-1 pAb. Fibrous granules (arrowheads), but not deutoosomes (arrow), were specifically labeled. Bars, 200 nm.