

Pseudophosphatase STYX modulates cell-fate decisions and cell migration by spatiotemporal regulation of ERK1/2

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Serine/threonine/tyrosine-interacting protein (STYX) is a catalytically inactive member of the dual-specificity phosphatases (DUSPs) family. Whereas the role of DUSPs in cellular signaling is well explored, the function of STYX is still unknown. Here, we identify STYX as a spatial regulator of ERK signaling. We used predictive-model simulation to test several hypotheses for possible modes of STYX action. We show that STYX localizes to the nucleus, competes with nuclear DUSP4 for binding to ERK, and acts as a nuclear anchor that regulates ERK nuclear export. Depletion of STYX increases ERK activity in both cytosol and nucleus. Importantly, depletion of STYX causes an ERK-dependent fragmentation of the Golgi apparatus and inhibits Golgi polarization and directional cell migration. Finally, we show that overexpression of STYX reduces ERK1/2 activation, thereby blocking PC12 cell differentiation. Overall, our results identify STYX as an important regulator of ERK1/2 signaling critical for cell migration and PC12 cell differentiation.

computational modeling | MAPK

Extracellular regulated kinases (ERK1 and -2; referred to as ERK from here on) phosphorylate more than 200 known substrates (1, 2) and, therefore, play a central role in numerous cellular processes, such as proliferation, differentiation, or motility. The upstream kinases MEK1/2 not only activate ERK but also are involved in spatial regulation by acting as cytosolic anchors for ERK. Interestingly, substrate binding in the nucleus has a similar anchoring role, delaying ERK nuclear exit and protecting against inactivation by phosphatases (3). In addition, scaffold proteins were shown to regulate spatiotemporal ERK signaling by bringing kinases to certain subcellular locations, such as endosomes (by p14 ref. 4) or to the Golgi apparatus (by Sef1; ref. 5). Finally, dephosphorylation of active ERK by DUSPs plays an important role in the regulation of ERK signaling in both time and space (6). The human genome encodes at least 25 constitutively expressed or inducible DUSPs, which can be subdivided based on their subcellular location (mainly cytosolic, mainly nuclear, or both) and specificity toward the various MAPK members. Catalytic activity is conferred by a cysteine residue that is part of a conserved motif (I/VHCXAGXXR). Despite considerable progress made by exploring in vitro-substrate specificity and expression profile of DUSPs, we still do not fully understand many of their functions at the level of cell biology. Even more enigmatic are the catalytically inactive DUSP family members (pseudophosphatases), which share the conserved catalytic domain but lack the critical cysteine residue.

In the current work, we focus on the pseudophosphatase STYX, the role of which in the regulation of ERK has been unexplored. STYX was first described as an inactive DUSP, in which the catalytic cysteine at position 120 is replaced by glycine (7). Mutation of G120 back to cysteine restored catalytic activity. Male mice knocked out for STYX display a defect in spermatogenesis (8), and, to date, the only protein shown to

interact with STYX is Carhsp24, a phosphoprotein involved in the translational repression of histone mRNAs. Thus, STYX remains an enigmatic protein and none of the previous work could establish a link to MAPK signaling in general or ERK signaling in particular. The goal of this work was to identify and characterize a potential role of STYX in ERK signaling. Although computational modeling is often used to confirm experimental findings, we used modeling as a discovery tool. Embracing the principle ways of how STYX might interact with ERK, our models generated salient predictions that we next tested experimentally. We find that STYX directly binds ERK in the nucleus, thereby acting as an anchor that modulates the nucleocytoplasmic shuttling of this MAPK. Moreover, STYX competes with nuclear DUSPs for binding to ERK, thus modulating the ability of catalytically active DUSPs to access ERK. We demonstrate that the STYX-ERK interaction modulates the biologic outcome of ERK activation by regulating both directional cell migration and cell-fate decisions.

Results

Building Core Models for Testing the Mode of Action of STYX. We use biochemical experiments and computational modeling to delineate the role of STYX in the control of spatiotemporal ERK dynamics. The complexity of the regulation of cell signaling is often difficult to grasp intuitively, especially when trying to integrate the spatial and dynamic aspects. Based on alternative feasible hypotheses about STYX action, we build several com-

Significance

The role of catalytically inactive phosphatases (pseudophosphatases) remains enigmatic. Using a combination of experiments and modeling, we identified the pseudophosphatase serine/threonine/tyrosine-interacting protein (STYX) as a nuclear anchor and modulator of ERK signaling. Thereby, STYX regulates the morphology of the Golgi apparatus and its polarization in migrating cells. Consequently, STYX influences directional cell motility, a process that determines the invasive and metastatic ability of cancer cells. By controlling spatiotemporal ERK signaling, STYX plays a role in cell-fate decisions, such as PC12 cell differentiation.

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putational models to, first, explore the emerging network properties on a systems level and, second, test these predictions against experimental data. The common core of our models (Fig. 1A) is based on established, well-calibrated models of (i) ERK activation by MEK in the cytoplasm (where ERK is phosphorylated at two distinct phosphorylation sites in its kinase domain), (ii) shuttling of differentially phosphorylated ERK forms in and out of the nucleus, and (iii) dephosphorylation of phospho-ERK by DUSPs in the cytoplasm and the nucleus, where the nuclear DUSP induction by active ERK is incorporated in our models (see *Material and Methods* and *SI Appendix* for more details).

Further integrating STYX into a computational model of ERK signaling requires information on the spatial localization of STYX. Therefore, we determined the subcellular localization of STYX. Both overexpressed and endogenous STYX localized

mainly to the cell nucleus, with little staining also visible in the cytosol (Fig. 1B and C). The localization pattern did not differ between nonstimulated and stimulated cells (Fig. 1B and C). Because the expression of some nuclear DUSPs is induced by ERK signaling, we also tested the expression of STYX in cells that were serum-starved and compared it to stimulated cells. STYX levels did not change for up to 60 min upon serum stimulation, whereas the expression of DUSP4 (a nuclear inducible DUSP) was markedly induced (*SI Appendix, Fig. S1*). Finally, we tested whether STYX is actually a pseudophosphatase. The validation of this assumption is important because the lack of catalytic activity of STYX was only demonstrated with the purified STYX protein and artificial substrates (*p*-nitrophenolphosphate and phosphorylated small peptides) (7). Moreover, STYX may have an unknown interaction partner

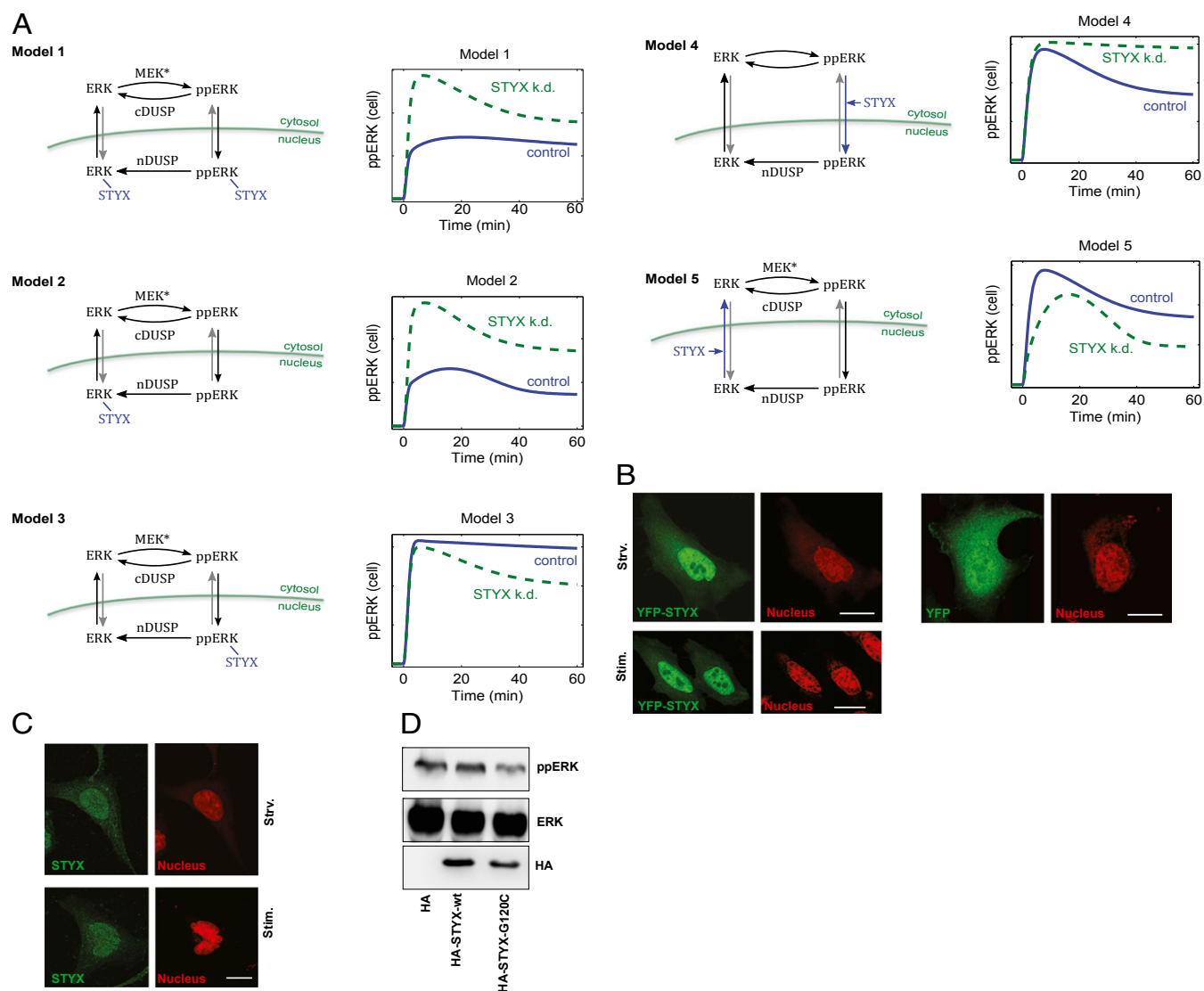


Fig. 1. Localization of STYX and modeling its possible modes of action. (A) Schematic illustration of the hypothetical modes of action of STYX (Left) and the corresponding predictions of the cellular ppERK activation dynamics (Right) in control (solid blue line) and STYX-depleted (dashed green line) conditions. (B, Left) Localization of overexpressed YFP-tagged STYX in serum-starved (strv) and serum-stimulated (stim) cells. (B, Right) HeLa cells expressing YFP alone. Staining of the nucleus was achieved using Alexa Fluor647-Toto3 (red). (C) Localization of endogenous STYX (green) in HeLa cells in serum-starved (Strv) and serum-stimulated (stim) cells. Staining of the nucleus was achieved using Alexafluor647-Toto3 (red). (Scale bar: 10 μ m.) (D) HeLa cells were transfected with plasmids encoding HA tag, HA-tagged wild-type STYX (HA-STYX-wt), or HA-tagged STYX-G120C (HA-STYX-G120C). After 24 h, cells were lysed and STYX was immunoprecipitated using anti-HA-coupled Sepharose beads. Immunoprecipitate was washed and incubated with recombinant ppERK2 for 30 min, followed by SDS/PAGE and immunoblotting against the indicated proteins.

that could mediate catalytic activity, which cannot be observed when using the purified STYX protein. However, using an immunoprecipitate of STYX from cells is supposed to include all hypothetical cofactors. Therefore, we immunoprecipitated STYX from cells and tested its ability to dephosphorylate purified double-phosphorylated (pp) ERK2. In contrast to immunopre-

cipitated DUSP4, which strongly dephosphorylated ppERK2, STYX was devoid of such an activity (*SI Appendix, Fig. S2*). STYX is inactive because of the absence of a critical cysteine residue at position 120, which is replaced by a glycine residue. It was previously shown that mutation of the Gly¹²⁰ back to cysteine resulted in a protein that is capable of dephosphorylating

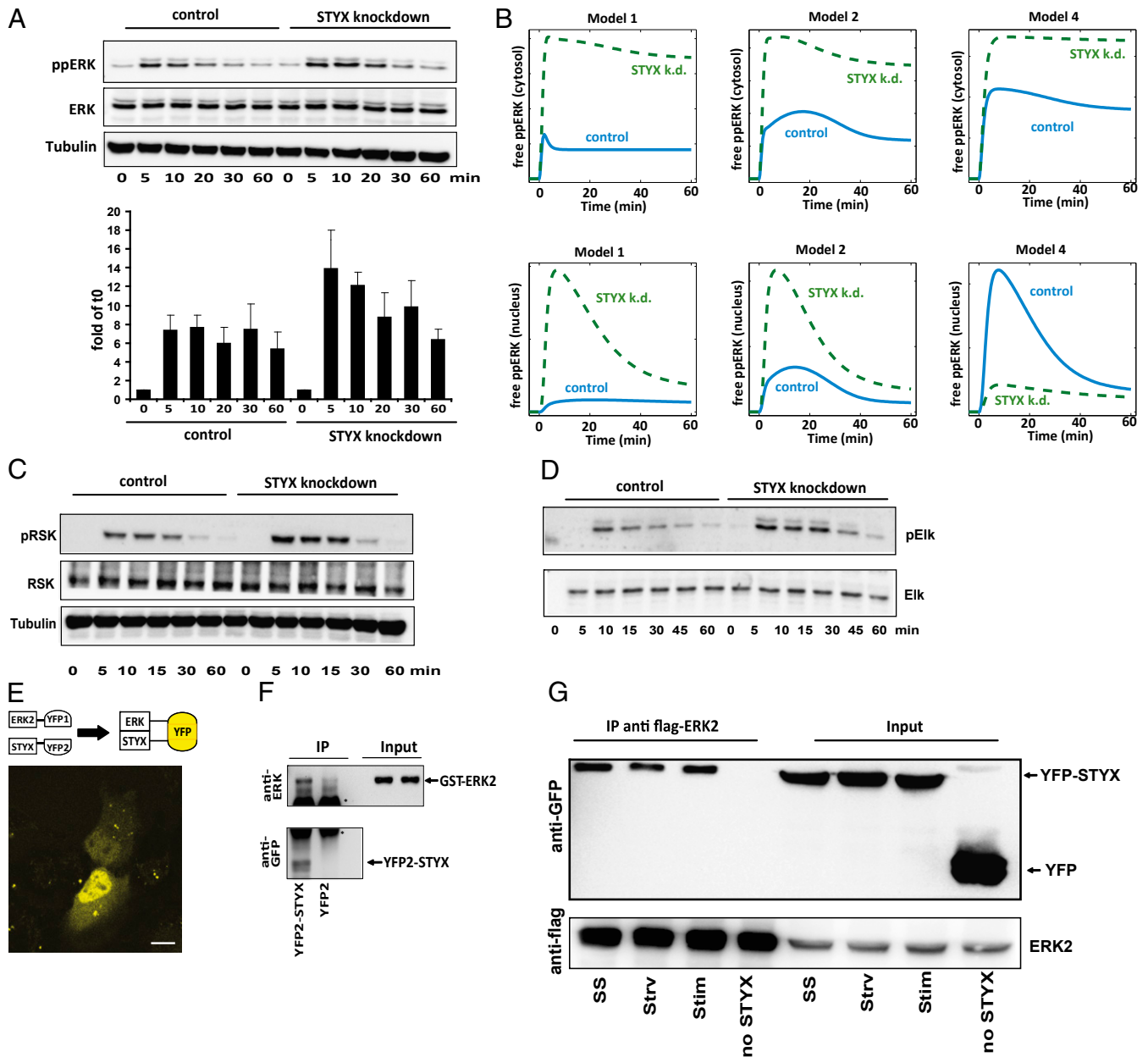


Fig. 2. Testing model predictions experimentally. Knockdown of STYX increases ppERK. (A) HeLa cells were transfected with nontargeting siRNA oligos (control) or with siRNA against STYX (STYX knockdown). After 72 h, cells were serum-starved, followed by stimulation with 10% FCS for the indicated time points and then lysed, and the indicated proteins were detected by immunoblotting. (A, Upper) A representative experiment and (A, Lower) a densitometric evaluation of three independent experiments (Right). (B) Model predictions of the cytosolic and nuclear ppERK activation dynamics in control (solid blue line) and STYX knockdown conditions (dashed green line). (C and D) HeLa cells were transfected as described in A, and samples were immunoblotted to detect levels of phosphorylated RSK (pRSK) (C) and phosphorylated Elk1 (pElk) (D). RSK and Elk were detected to ensure equal gel loading. (E) HeLa cells were transfected with plasmids encoding YFP1-tagged ERK2 and YFP2-tagged STYX. After 24 h, cells were fixed and images were acquired using a confocal laser-scanning microscope. (Scale bar: 10 μm.) (F) In vitro-translated YFP2-tagged STYX (YFP2-STYX) or YFP2 alone was immunoprecipitated with an anti-GFP antibody that recognizes the C-terminal portion of YFP (i.e., YFP2). The washed immunoprecipitate was then incubated with purified GST-tagged ERK2, followed by washing and loading of the samples on a SDS/polyacrylamide gel and immunoblotted against the indicated proteins. (G) HeLa cells were cotransfected with plasmids encoding flag-tagged ERK2 together with YFP (no STYX) or together with YFP-tagged STYX. Cells coexpressing YFP-STAY and flag-ERK2 either were grown under steady-state conditions (SS) or were serum-starved (strv) or were serum-starved and then stimulated by 10% FCS for 15 min (stim). Cells were lysed, and the lysate was immunoprecipitated against flag, followed by immunoblotting against the indicated proteins.

the artificial substrate *p*-nitrophenolphosphate (7), but it was never tested whether STYX-G120C is capable of dephosphorylating ppERK. We generated the same mutant (STYX-G120C) and compared the activity of this mutant with wild-type STYX toward ppERK2. Whereas the wild-type protein did not dephosphorylate ERK2 to any appreciable extent, STYX-G120C readily dephosphorylated ppERK2 (Fig. 1D). This result is in line with the notion that STYX is catalytically inactive because of the absence of a cysteine residue at position 120. Therefore, we conclude that STYX is a noninducible pseudophosphatase that localizes predominantly to the nucleus.

Based on this information and our core model, we build five different hypothetical models of how STYX might act. These models are schematically depicted in Fig. 1A (for simplicity, only unphosphorylated and ppERK forms are shown). A detailed description of these models, as well as parameter refinement procedures, is provided in *SI Appendix*, Fig. S3 and Tables S1 and S2. In model 1, STYX binds both phosphorylated and unphosphorylated forms of ERK in the nucleus, whereas models 2 and 3 assume that STYX binds only unphosphorylated ERK or only ppERK, respectively. Model 4 assumes that STYX imports ppERK from the cytosol to the nucleus. Model 5 assumes that STYX exports unphosphorylated ERK. Using these models, we next tested the behavior of the system under control and STYX-depleted conditions (Fig. 1A).

Experimental Testing of the Predictions Rules Out Some Models. In the different models, depletion of STYX affected the ERK activation dynamics differently (Fig. 1A). When we knocked down STYX expression in HeLa cells, we observed a marked increase of ppERK in response to serum treatment, as measured in total cell lysates (Fig. 2A). The same was true when we stimulated HeLa cells with EGF or with phorbol ester (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4 A and B), indicating that the effect is not stimulus-specific. Moreover, we obtained similar results when we performed the STYX knockdown in HEK293 cells or HepG2 cells (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S4 C and D), indicating that the effect of STYX on ERK signaling is not confined to a certain cell line. Furthermore, this effect was not confined to a single ERK isoform (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S5). The observed increase of ppERK allows us to reject models 3 and 5. In model 3, where STYX binds exclusively ppERK, the STYX knockdown prevents the accumulation of STYX-ppERK complexes, thus predicting a decrease of overall ppERK levels. In model 5 the knockdown of STYX slows down the export of unphosphorylated ERK, de facto delaying ERK rephosphorylation and, thus, decreasing ppERK levels in both the cytosol and the nucleus. The predicted trajectories of model 1 best simulated the time-course data following the STYX knockdown, but models 2 and 4 also predicted a significant increase of the ERK activation dynamics. Consequently, from this point on, we consider only models 1, 2, and 4.

STYX Depletion Increases both Cytosolic and Nuclear ERK Activities. In contrast to models 1 and 2, model 4 predicted a decreased nuclear ERK activity in response to STYX depletion (Fig. 2B). To test these predictions, we measured the phosphorylation status of two well-established ERK substrates in the cytosol and nucleus. In STYX knockdown cells serum treatment resulted in an increased phosphorylation of cytosolic (p-RSK; Fig. 2C) as well as nuclear (p-Elk1; Fig. 2D) substrates. Thus, STYX depletion increases ERK activity in both the cytosol and nucleus and, based on this, we reject model 4.

STYX Binds both Unphosphorylated and Phosphorylated Forms of ERK. The key difference between the remaining models 1 and 2 is the differential STYX binding to the various phosphorylation forms of ERK. To further analyze these models, we first need to demonstrate that STYX binds ERK and that this interaction is

direct. To visualize the interaction, we used a YFP-complementation assay (YPCA), where the two severed halves of YFP were fused to STYX and ERK2. In case of interaction, the two YFP fragments are brought into close proximity, leading to complementation of the intact YFP molecule and emission of a fluorescent signal. HeLa cells expressing YFP2-STYX and YFP1-ERK2 were fixed, and the complex formation was analyzed by fluorescence microscopy. The complex formed by YFP2-STYX and YFP1-ERK2 localized to the nucleus and only partly to the cytosol (Fig. 2E), indicating that the nucleus is the main site of interaction of STYX and ERK2. To provide evidence for a direct interaction, we tested the interaction of STYX and ERK2 using pure components. In vitro-translated YFP2-STYX interacted with recombinant and purified GST-ERK2 (Fig. 2F). Finally, we also tested the interaction of purified His-tagged STYX with purified GST-tagged ERK2 and further confirmed that the interaction of the two proteins is direct (*SI Appendix*, Fig. S6).

We next wanted to distinguish model 1 (STYX binds both phosphorylated and unphosphorylated ERK) from model 2 (STYX binds only the unphosphorylated ERK). If STYX exhibits differential binding, then the coimmunoprecipitation between STYX and ERK ought to change in response to stimulation. Therefore, we performed coimmunoprecipitation experiments of YFP-tagged STYX with flag-tagged ERK2. We compared cells that were serum-starved for 2–3 h (very low level of ppERK) with cells that were stimulated with serum for 15 min (high levels of ppERK). In addition, we also included cells from steady-state conditions (moderate levels of ppERK). Regardless of the condition used, the same levels of ERK2 coimmunoprecipitated with STYX (Fig. 2G), which indicates that the interaction is insensitive to the levels of ppERK and, thus, supports the conclusion that STYX binds to ERK regardless of its phosphorylation status. This finding is not only inconsistent with model 2 but also provides further grounds to reject model 4 in which STYX would preferentially bind to ppERK in the cytoplasm and import ppERK into the nucleus, as well as model 5, in which STYX would preferentially bind to the nuclear ERK and export it from the nucleus. Taken together, the only model consistent with all our experimental observations is model 1.

Calibration of Model 1 Validates Its Accuracy. Model 1 is the only model qualitatively consistent with all of our observations. Next, we asked how well it can explain the ppERK time-course data quantitatively. Therefore, we trained the model to fit the data using a global-parameter estimation method called adaptive-simulated annealing (see *Material and Methods* and *SI Appendix* for details). For fitting, we used a training dataset containing the ppERK time courses in control and STYX knockdown conditions but not the STYX overexpression data, which were used later for model validation. We found that model 1 can indeed explain these data [Fig. 3A; based on our estimation results and a Pearson's χ^2 test (9), the probability that the model conforms with the data are $P = 0.88$]. Furthermore, despite the fact that some parameter values were not uniquely identifiable, their correlations could be estimated accurately (Fig. 3B), which, in turn, resulted in accurate predictions of the ppERK time course in STYX-overexpressing cells (Fig. 3 C and D). The fact that model 1 was capable of quantitatively explaining the STYX knockdown data and, in addition, accurately predicted the STYX overexpression time course further strengthened our confidence in this model.

Testing Predictions of the Validated Model Shows That STYX Acts as a Nuclear Anchor for ERK. Both modeling and the experimental data support a role of STYX as a nuclear anchor for ERK. To experimentally test whether STYX is a nuclear anchor for ERK1/2, we first performed biochemical fractionation experiments

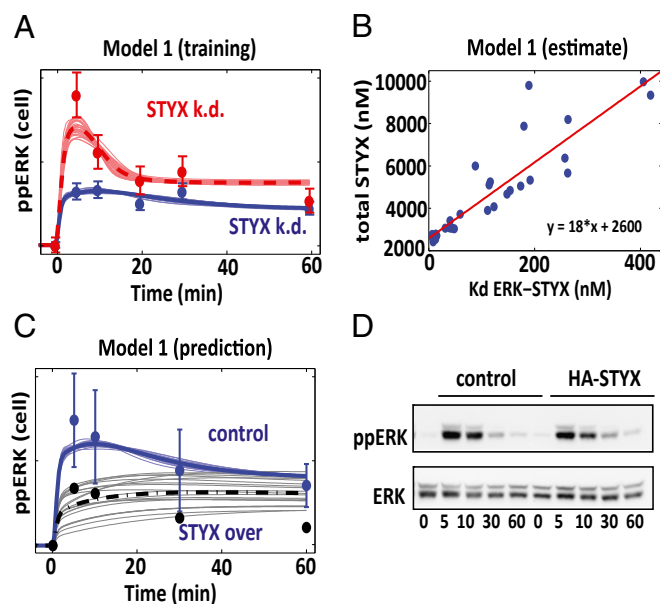


Fig. 3. Calibration of model 1 and validating refined predictions. (A) Fit of the calibrated model to the training data. To quantitatively test model 1, it was fitted to the ppERK time-course data, and to obtain several good-fitting parameter sets for further analysis, the optimization algorithm (adaptive simulated annealing) was started several times ($n > 30$); thin lines are simulated trajectories of the individual fits in control and STYX knockdown conditions, and thick lines represent the corresponding mean. Dots and error bars indicate the mean and SD of the training dataset. (B) Estimated parameter values (dots) of the total STYX concentration and the STYX-ERK dissociation constant and their correlation (regression line). K.d., knock-down. (C) Model prediction of the STYX overexpression time course in comparison with the experimental validation dataset. Thin lines indicate the individual predictions using the each estimated parameter set, bold lines the mean ($n > 30$). (D) Validation experiment. HeLa cells were transfected with empty vector (control) or with a cDNA encoding HA-tagged STYX (HA-STYX). After 24 h, cells were serum-starved, followed by stimulation with 10% FCS for the indicated time points. Cells were lysed, and lysates were subjected to immunoblotting against the indicated proteins.

to test for the distribution of endogenous ERK in control and STYX knockdown cells. Consistent with the notion that STYX is a nuclear anchor, ERK was found to be more abundant in the cytosol of STYX depleted cells (Fig. 4A). Our model (model 1) predicted that STYX depletion would increase the rate of ERK efflux from the nucleus to the cytosol (Fig. 4B). Therefore, we next used fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) microscopy to evaluate the effect of STYX depletion and overexpression on the rate of ERK1/2 shuttling out of the nucleus. The cytosol of cells expressing GFP-ERK2 was bleached, and recovery of fluorescence was monitored. This fluorescence recovery can only occur through GFP-ERK transport from the nonbleached nucleus and, therefore, reflects the rate of GFP-ERK2 export from the nucleus to the cytosol. In concordance with the model prediction, the extent of ERK2 export from the nucleus was significantly higher in STYX knockdown cells compared with control (Fig. 4C). Although these FRAP experiments revealed the subcellular dynamics of ERK, the use of GFP-ERK2 did not allow us to distinguish between free and STYX-bound ERK. To that end, we performed a combined FRAP-YPCA experiment in cells expressing YFP2-STYX and YFP1-ERK2. Because the complementation of YFP1 and -2 is kinetically irreversible, this setup permanently links the STYX-ERK complexes. Consequently the recovery of fluorescence after bleaching the cytosol can only arise from nonbleached STYX-ERK complexes leaving the nucleus. The recovery of the cytosol in

these cells was very weak, indicating that the transport of STYX-ERK complexes from the nucleus to the cytosol is negligible (*SI Appendix, Fig. S7*). Taken together, these data support the conclusion that STYX acts as a nuclear anchor for ERK.

STYX Competes with DUSP4 for Binding to ERK2. Our results are consistent with a model where STYX binds all ERK forms and sequesters them in the nucleus. A consequence of this is that STYX competes with nuclear DUSPs for binding to ERK. Therefore, we tested whether STYX competes with DUSP4, a nuclear inducible DUSP, for binding to ERK using coimmunoprecipitation experiments. As shown in Fig. 5A, overexpression of DUSP4 reduces the amount of STYX in the ERK2 IP, suggesting that DUSP4 replaces STYX in the complex with ERK2. We also used the YPCA as an independent method to test for competition between STYX and DUSP4. STYX and ERK2 formed a complex that mainly localized to the nucleus. Titrating increasing amounts of DUSP4 into these cells reduced the fluorescence signal (Fig. 5B), indicating that less ERK2-STYX complexes are formed in the presence of increasing DUSP4 levels. Competition between STYX and DUSP4 was also observed when the experiment was performed in cells stimulated with serum (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8A*). STYX and DUSP4 also exhibited competition toward a catalytically inactive mutant of ERK2 (ERK2-K52R) (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8B*). We also tested whether STYX and DUSP4 compete for binding to a non-phosphorylatable ERK2 mutant and, therefore, mutated the dual-phosphorylation site (threonine to alanine and tyrosine to phenylalanine) on ERK2 (ERK2-TYAF) and tested whether STYX and DUSP4 compete for binding to this mutant, which was not phosphorylated upon serum stimulation (*SI Appendix, Fig. S9*) but is still capable of binding to ERK2 in a manner comparable to that observed with wild-type ERK2 and ERK2-K52R, although the latter tended to exhibit more binding of DUSP4 (*SI Appendix, Fig. S10*). STYX also competed with DUSP4 for binding to ERK2-TYAF (*SI Appendix, Fig. S8C*). These results further support that STYX binds to ERK in a manner independent of phosphorylation. The seven-maker mutant of ERK2 (ERK2-D319N) does not bind DUSPs (10–14). If STYX and DUSP4 compete for binding to ERK, then their binding modes are likely to be analogous and sensitive to mutation of D319 in ERK. As shown in Fig. 5C, ERK2-D319N is unable to coimmunoprecipitate with STYX, thus indicating that STYX and DUSP4 share the same binding site on ERK. Taken together, we conclude that DUSP4 and STYX compete for binding to ERK in the nucleus, thus substantiating the conclusion that STYX is a nuclear anchor for ERK.

Effect of STYX Depletion on Golgi Structure and Cell Migration. ERK signaling plays a key role in the regulation of many cellular processes, including directional cell migration. Upon initiation of directional motility, the cell polarizes the Golgi apparatus toward the leading edge in a manner dependent on ERK-induced phosphorylation of Golgi matrix proteins (15). Disruption of the structural integrity of the Golgi results in an inhibition of cell migration (15, 16). In our previous work, we identified STYX as a potential regulator of the Golgi structure (17). Depletion of STYX was shown to result in fragmentation of the Golgi apparatus, but this effect was not assessed quantitatively, and the underlying mechanism was not explored. In light of the observation that ERK directly signals to the Golgi (15), we asked whether the effect of STYX on ERK signaling is causally linked to alteration of Golgi morphology. As shown in Fig. 6A, the Golgi represents a single-copy organelle in control cells, with only a minor fraction of cells exhibiting a fragmented Golgi apparatus. In STYX knockdown cells, the number of cells exhibiting a fragmented Golgi increased by twofold. This effect could be blocked by pretreatment with PD98059, an inhibitor of

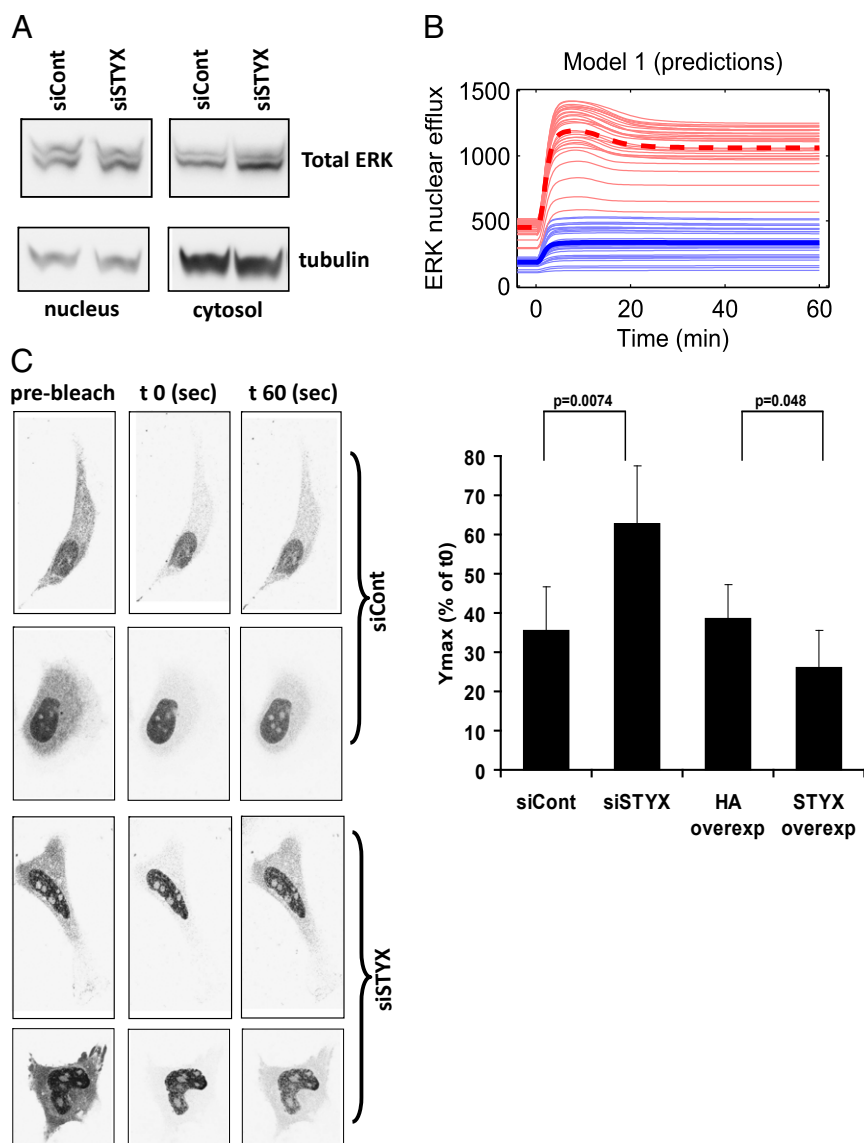


Fig. 4. STYX acts as a nuclear anchor for ERK. (A) HeLa cells were transfected with nontargeting siRNA oligos (control) or with siRNA targeting STYX. After 72 h, nuclear and cytosolic fractions were prepared as described in *Materials and Methods*. The fractions were loaded on SDS/polyacrylamide gels, followed by immunoblotting against the indicated proteins. (B) Predictions of the ERK nuclear efflux rates by model 1. Thin lines are the individual predictions generated by the estimated parameter sets ($n > 30$) for control (red) and STYX knockdown (blue) conditions, with the dotted and dashed bold line indicating the respective mean. (C) Validation experiments measuring ERK nuclear efflux. For knockdown experiments, HeLa cells were transfected with the nontargeting siRNA oligos (siCont) or with siRNA against STYX (siSTYX). After 48 h, cells were transfected with a plasmid encoding GFP-tagged ERK2. For overexpression experiments, HeLa cells were transfected with cDNA encoding GFP-ERK2, together with either empty vector (HA overexp) or a plasmid encoding HA-tagged STYX (STYX overexp). FRAP experiments were performed as described in *Materials and Methods*. (C, Left) Two representative image series of FRAP experiments from knockdown experiments. Cells displayed were acquired before photobleaching (pre), directly after photobleaching the cytosol (t 0), and at the end of the recovery phase (t 60). (C, Right) An evaluation of fluorescence recoveries plotted as an increase of fluorescence intensity as fold of the postbleach value.

MEK-mediated ERK activation (Fig. 6A), demonstrating that ERK signaling is required for the STYX effect.

Next, we asked whether STYX depletion and its disruption of the Golgi structure would also affect directional cell migration. We addressed this question using a wound-healing assay, where cells (on glass coverslips) are plated into two chambers separated by a bridge of 600 μm width. After removal of the bridge, cells on both sides start migrating to close the gap. Wound closure was slower in STYX knockdown cells, which migrated on average 100 μm less over a time scale of 18 h (Fig. 6B). We determined the orientation of the Golgi apparatus toward the leading edge and found that depletion of STYX strongly inhibited directional polarity of the Golgi (Fig. 6C). Our results demonstrate that STYX disrupts the Golgi structure in an ERK-dependent manner and, thereby, affects directional cell migration.

STYX Modulates Cell-Fate Decisions. ERK controls a plethora of cell responses to external and internal cues, including cell-fate decisions. For instance, the duration of ERK signaling in PC12 cells, determines whether these cells will proliferate or differentiate (18, 19). Treatment of PC12 cells with EGF results in a transient ERK activation that returns to basal levels at 60 min

after stimulation, leading to cell proliferation. A prolonged ERK response observed after treatment with nerve growth factor (NGF) stops proliferation and initiates differentiation, manifested by the formation of neurite-like extensions. We asked whether overexpression of STYX in PC12 cells would lower the levels of ppERK. We focused on the late phase (60 min) after NGF treatment, because, at this time point, there is a marked difference in ppERK between NGF- and EGF-treated cells. Similarly as in HeLa cells, overexpression of STYX also reduced the levels of ppERK in PC12 cells at 60 min after NGF treatment (Fig. 7A). Next, we asked whether the decreased level of ppERK in the late phase would affect differentiation of PC12 cells in response to NGF. First, we assessed the effect of STYX on GATA transcriptional activity, because earlier findings showed that the effect of ERK on PC12 cell differentiation is also dependent on restoring GATA transcriptional activity (20). Overexpression of STYX resulted in a lower activity of a GATA luciferase reporter (*SI Appendix, Fig. S11*). Next, we assessed the effect of STYX overexpression on the ability of PC12 cell to form neurite-like extensions. Overexpression of STYX strongly reduced the amount of differentiated PC12 cells (Fig. 7B), indicating

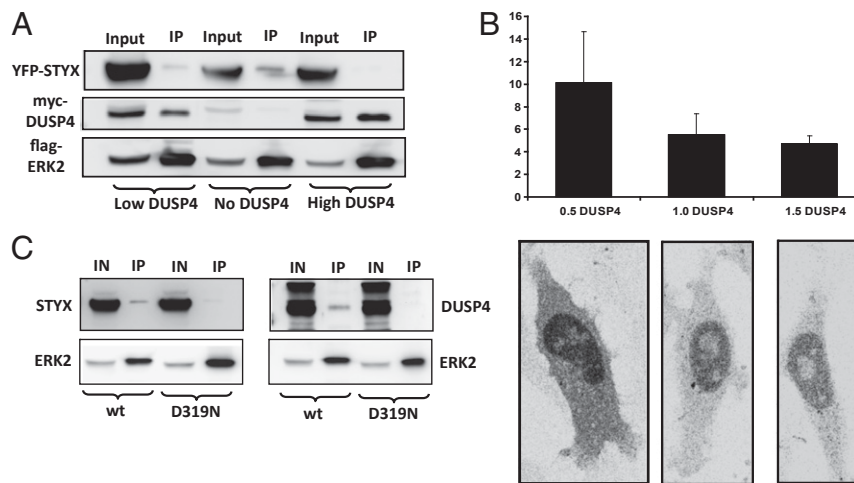


Fig. 5. STYX and DUSP4 compete for binding to ERK. (A) HeLa cells in 10-cm cell culture dishes were transfected with plasmids encoding flag-ERK2 and YFP-STYX, together with either empty vector (no DUSP4) or 3 μ g of DUSP4 (low DUSP4) or 5.4 μ g of DUSP4 (high DUSP4). Cells were lysed, and the lysates were subjected to immunoprecipitation against flag (ERK2) and immunoblotted against indicated proteins. "Input" indicates 3% input of the material that was subjected to immunoprecipitation (IP). (B) HeLa cells were transfected with a combination of YFP1-tagged ERK2 (Y1-ERK2) and YFP2-tagged STYX (Y2-STYX), together with increasing amounts (0.5, 1, and 1.5 μ g) of DUSP4 expression plasmid. Cells were fixed after 16 h, and the YFP-fluorescence was recorded using a confocal laser-scanning microscope. Representative cells (Lower) and an evaluation of fluorescence intensities measured from three experiments (Upper) are shown. (C) HeLa cells were transfected with YFP-tagged STYX or myc-tagged DUSP4, together with either flag-tagged wild-type ERK2 (wt) or flag-tagged mutant ERK2 (D319N). After 24 h, cells were lysed, and the lysate was subjected to immunoprecipitation against flag-tagged ERK variants. The amount of coimmunoprecipitated STYX or DUSP4 was detected by immunoblotting. IN, 3% input to the immunoprecipitation (IP).

that STYX is able to modify cell-fate decisions through the control of ERK signaling.

Discussion

In the current work, we identify the pseudophosphatase STYX as a regulator of ERK signaling. Owing to its importance in regulating cell proliferation, cell migration, and cell-fate decisions, understanding the regulation of ERK signaling in time and space is central for the design of novel therapeutic strategies against human pathologies. For instance, directional cell migration is thought to constitute the cellular basis for invasion and metastatic dissemination of cancer cells, which accounts for 90% of cancer-associated mortality (21). Our work shows that STYX regulates ERK signaling, which translates into the modulation of cell migration and cell-fate decisions.

It has long been unclear whether and how pseudophosphatase members of the DUSP family are linked to MAPK signaling. For instance DUSP24 (also known as MK-STYX) has been shown to regulate apoptosis and to inhibit stress granule formation, but no role in the regulation of MAPK signaling has been described. Here, we show that STYX acts as a nuclear anchor for ERK, effectively slowing its nuclear export. In the absence of STYX, ERK leaves the nucleus with faster dynamics, which permits reactivation of ERK in the cytosol, thus causing increased cytoplasmic and nuclear ERK activities. This interpretation is supported by our computational modeling. In contrast to other feasible models of STYX actions, a model in which STYX acts as a nuclear anchor faithfully predicted all our experimental findings. The concept that an inactive phosphatase might act as an anchor for ERK has been proposed when it was shown that an artificially inactivated version of the nuclear DUSP5 may function as a nuclear anchor for ERK (22). Here, we identify STYX as a naturally occurring dead phosphatase that acts as a nuclear anchor.

Both our computational-modeling and our experimental results indicate that STYX competes with nuclear DUSP4 for binding to ERK and that this competition is part of the mode of action of STYX. It was recently shown that Mxi2 also acts as a competitor of nuclear DUSPs, thereby preventing ERK

dephosphorylation (23). The effects of STYX and Mxi2 on ERK signaling are totally different, despite that they both compete with nuclear DUSPs for binding to ERK. Overexpression of Mxi2 increases ERK signaling, and the depletion of Mxi2 seems to decrease ERK signaling. Exactly the opposite is observed for STYX (its overexpression inhibits and its depletion increases ERK signaling). Another difference is that Mxi2 seems to specifically regulate nuclear ERK activity, whereas STYX affects both cytosolic and nuclear ERK activities. Possible reasons for the difference between Mxi2 and STYX are the fact that Mxi2 promotes entry of active ERK to the nucleus (23, 24), whereas we have no evidence that STYX exerts direct effects on the ERK transport. Depletion of a nuclear importer of active ERK is predicted to decrease the amount of nuclear ppERK (model 4). Thus, it is likely that the difference between STYX and Mxi2 is that the latter promotes the nuclear entry of ERK. Moreover, STYX binds both to nonphosphorylated ERK and ppERK, and our modeling indicates that this fact is important to explain the experimental findings. It is unclear whether Mxi2 exhibits any preference toward different phosphorylation forms of ERK. However, a strong difference in the binding to phosphorylated vs. nonphosphorylated ERK could potentially also account for the difference between STYX and Mxi2.

Our data strongly suggest that STYX depletion affects Golgi structure via increased ERK signaling. It has been previously shown that ERK phosphorylated the Golgi matrix protein GRASP65, thereby allowing the Golgi to reorient toward the leading edge in migrating cells. Phosphorylation of GRASP65 was shown to result in unlinking from other Golgi matrix proteins, which results in structural rearrangements of the Golgi (25). Therefore, interphase ERK signaling is capable of phosphorylating the Golgi in addition to the ERK1c form that was shown to phosphorylate the Golgi as part of mitotic disassembly of the Golgi (26). Further evidence that hyperactive ERK in interphase cells favors fragmentation of the Golgi was provided recently by showing that DUSP6 knockdown, which hyperactivates ERK (27), results in Golgi fragmentation, which could be rescued by pharmacologically inhibiting ERK (28).

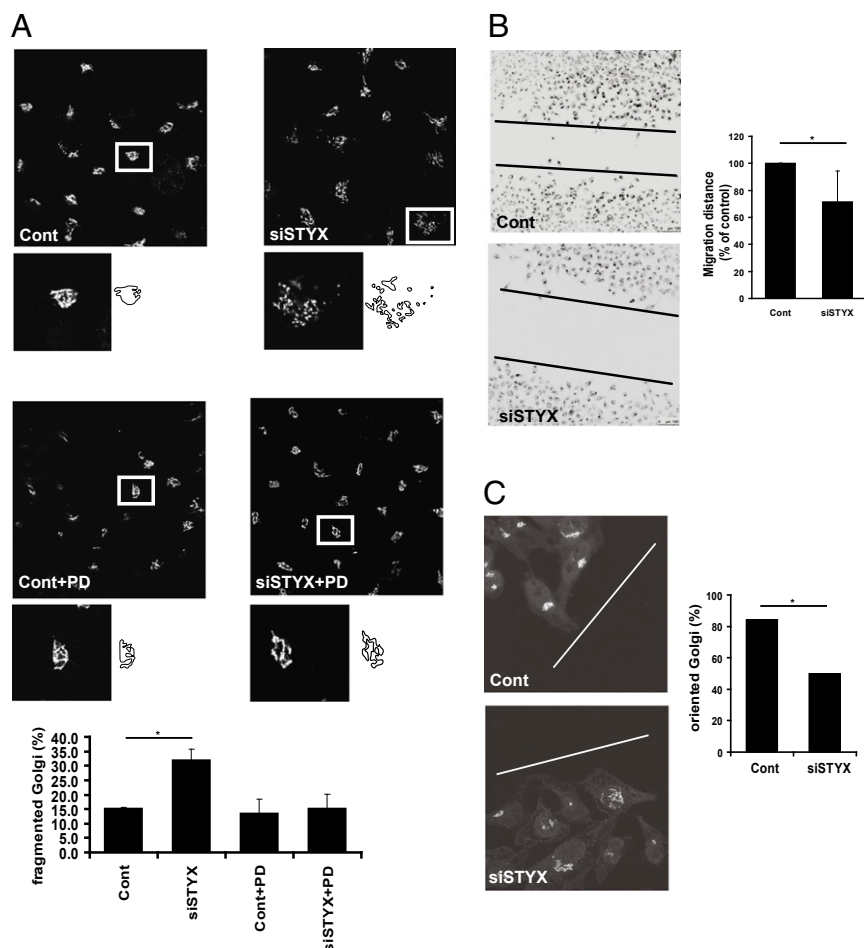


Fig. 6. STYX regulates Golgi structure and directional cell migration. (A) HeLa cells were transfected with nontargeting siRNA oligos (Cont) or with siRNA targeting STYX (siSTYX). After 48 h, cells were treated with solvent or with PD98059 (+PD) for 18 h, followed by fixation in paraformaldehyde. Golgi was stained by immunofluorescence against GM130. Shown are representative images from each condition. White boxes indicate cells that were magnified. To facilitate appreciation of the Golgi phenotype, a mask of the Golgi is displayed next to each magnified image. The bottom graph shows an evaluation of the percentage of cells that display a fragmented Golgi from three experiments with a minimum of 100 cells that were counted in each experiment. (B and C) HeLa cells were transfected with nontargeting siRNA oligos (Cont) or with siRNA targeting STYX (siSTYX). After 48 h, cells were transferred to ibidi chambers that generate a "wound" of 600 μm width. After 8 h, migration was initiated by removal of the chamber, and cells were fixed after 20 h and stained against GM130 to visualize the Golgi. To visualize the extent of cell migration, images were acquired with a 10 \times objective (B), and to visualize orientation of the Golgi, images were acquired using the 63 \times objective (C). The black line in B indicates the two wound edges. The white line in C indicates the position of the leading edge. The width of the wound was measured, and the values are displayed in the bar graph of B. Values are displayed as percentage of migration of cells transfected with control siRNA. This value amounts to $278.66 \pm 20.1 \mu\text{m}$. The number of cells with a Golgi facing the wound was counted, and the result is displayed in the bar graph of C. Asterisks indicate statistically significant differences at $P < 0.05$ (Student *t* test).

Typically, an increase of ERK activity is considered to support tumorigenesis. However, our finding places STYX as a potential therapeutic target, because the fragmentation of the Golgi would inhibit directional cell migration and invasion and, thereby, render cancer cells less capable of invasion and metastatic spreading. A further link between STYX and cancer may also be inferred from its crosstalk with DUSP4. Recent studies showed that DUSP4 can have both detrimental and beneficial effects. On the one hand, increased DUSP4 expression was found to be increased in colorectal cancer specimens with high frequency of microsatellite instability, indicating poor survival rates (29). On the other hand, DUSP4 deficiency in breast cancer patients attenuated their response to chemotherapy (30). Taking the crosstalk with STYX into account might help to explain these apparently opposing DUSP4 effects. In any case, we propose that understanding the STYX-ERK-DUSP4 crosstalk is critical for fully understanding the impact of dysregulated ERK signaling on human pathologies.

Materials and Methods

Antibodies and Reagents. The following rabbit polyclonal antibodies were purchased from Cell Signaling: ERK1/2, phosphorylated ERK1/2, phosphorylated Elk1, and phosphorylated RSK1. Anti-GM130 antibody (mouse monoclonal) was from BD Biosciences. Antibodies against STYX (rabbit polyclonal), against DUSP4 (rabbit polyclonal), and against GFP (rabbit polyclonal) were obtained from Abcam. Anti-flag epitope antibody was from Sigma-Aldrich. Mouse monoclonal anti-GFP antibody was from Roche. Anti-giantin antibody (rabbit polyclonal) was from Covance. Purified STYX was obtained from Abcam. Purified GST-ERK2 was purchased from Cell Signaling. All chemical (unless indicated otherwise) were from Sigma-Aldrich. Collagen-IV was obtained from BD Biosciences.

Plasmids. STYX cDNA was amplified from a human brain library (Invitrogen) using the following primer pairs: hSTYX forward, ATGGAGGACGTGAAGCTGGAGTTC; and hSTYX reverse, TCAGCCATTCTGTGCAGTCGCC. The PCR product was cloned into a pcDNA3.1 vector. The construct was verified by sequencing. STYX was subcloned into pCMV-HA to yield HA-STYX, into YFP2-pcDNA3 to yield YFP2-STYX, into YFP1-pcDNA3 to yield YFP1-STYX, and into pEYFP-C1 vector to yield YFP-STYX. The expression vector for

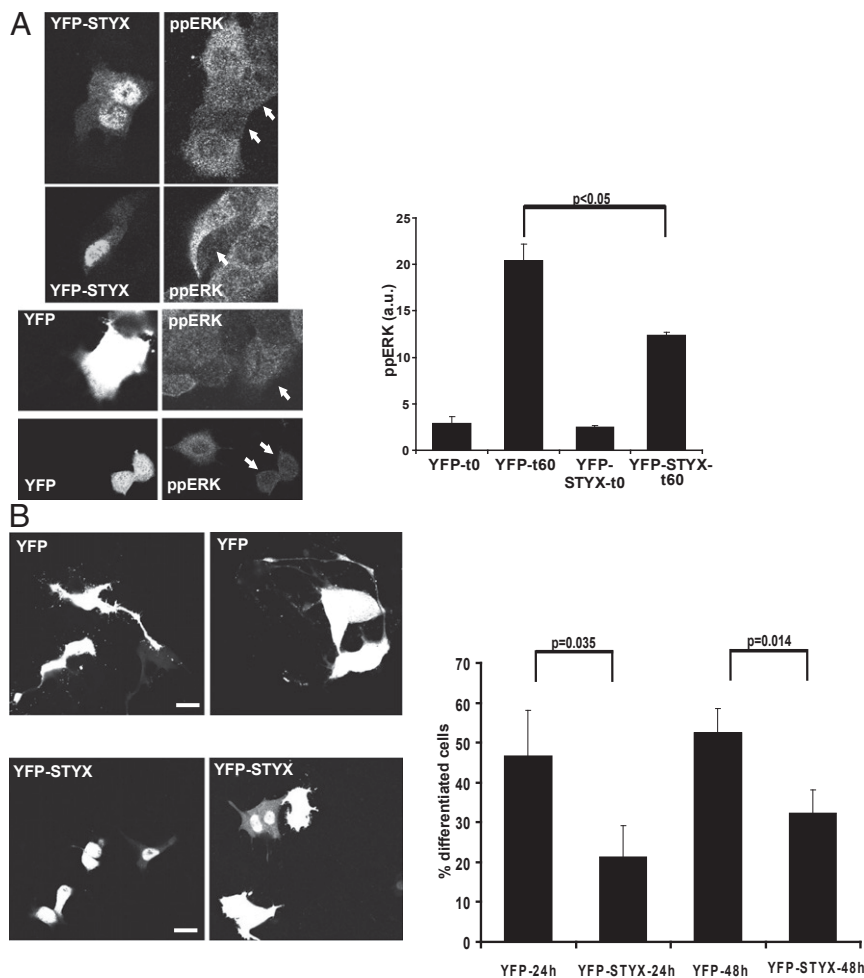


Fig. 7. STYX regulates cell-fate decisions. (A) PC12 cells plated on collagen-coated coverslips were transfected with plasmids encoding YFP alone or YFP-tagged STYX (YFP-STYX). After 24 h, cells were either fixed directly (t0) or treated with NGF for 60 min (t60), followed by fixation. ppERK was visualized using immunofluorescence staining. Arrows indicate the position of cells expressing YFP or YFP-STYX. a.u., arbitrary units. (B) PC12 cells plated on collagen-coated coverslips were transfected with plasmids encoding YFP alone or YFP-tagged STYX (YFP-STYX). After 24 h, serum was reduced to 1% horse serum, and cells were treated with NGF for 24 and 48 h, followed by fixation and confocal imaging. The amount of differentiated, YFP-positive PC12 cells was assessed as described in *Materials and Methods*.

GFP-ERK2 was a kind gift from Rony Seger (Weizman Institute, Rehovot, Israel). Expression vector for flag-ERK2 and flag-ERK2-D319N were kind gifts from Melanie Cobb (University of Texas Southwestern Medical Center, Dallas, TX). Expression vector for DUSP4 was a kind gift from Stephen Keyse (University of Dundee, Dundee, United Kingdom).

Transfections and MAPK Activation Assays. In the case of siRNA transfection, cells were plated at a density of 2×10^5 cells in six-well plates. Cells were transfected with siRNA (10 nM final concentration) using HiPerFect (Qiagen) according to the manufacturer's instructions. siRNAs were purchased either from Thermo Fischer (ONTarget SMART pool) or from Qiagen (nonpooled siRNAs). After 72 h, cells were serum-starved for 2 h, followed by stimulation as indicated. At defined time points, cells were lysed in MAPK buffer [50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 10 mM EDTA, 100 mM NaCl, 0.1% SDS, and 1% Nonidet P-40] supplemented with proteinase inhibitor (cOmplete Mini; Roche) and phosphatase inhibitor (PhosSTOP; Roche). Samples were loaded on polyacrylamide gels, followed by immunoblotting. In the case of overexpression, cells were plated at a density of 3×10^5 in six-well plates. On the next day, cells were transfected using Fugene 6 (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

Coimmunoprecipitation Assay. HeLa cells (3.5×10^6) were seeded in a 10-cm plate and were transfected the next day with the indicated plasmids. Twenty-four hours after transfection, cells were harvested and lysed in MAPK-IP buffer [50 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.4), 10% (vol/vol) glycerol, 150 mM

NaCl, 2 mM EDTA, and 0.5% Triton X-100] supplemented with proteinase inhibitor (cOmplete Mini, Roche) and phosphatase inhibitor (PhosSTOP; Roche). Lysates were centrifuged for 12 min at $18,000 \times g$ at 4 °C, and 3% of the supernatant was removed as an input control. The remaining lysate was incubated with the appropriate resin [for IP against flag tagged proteins: lysate was incubated EZview Red ANTI-FLAG M2 affinity gel (Sigma-Aldrich); for IP against HA-tagged proteins, the lysate was incubated with monoclonal anti-HA agarose] overnight. Agarose beads were washed three times and proteins were eluted in 2 \times reducing loading buffer.

In Vitro Translation of STYX and Binding to GST-ERK2. YFP2-tagged STYX or an YFP2 only containing vector were in vitro-translated using the TNT Quick coupled Transcription/Translation Systems (Promega) according to the manufacturer's instruction. In vitro-translated proteins were incubated with protein G sepharose precoupled with anti-GFP antibody overnight at 4 °C in MAPK-IP buffer. On the next day, samples were washed and incubated with 0.8 μ g of GST-ERK2 (Sigma-Aldrich) for 2 h in GST buffer [20 mM Tris-HCl (pH 7.5), 0.2 mM EDTA, 0.1 M NaCl, 1 mM DTT] supplemented with proteinase inhibitors at 4 °C. Samples were washed with GST buffer supplemented with 0.1% Nonidet P-40 and eluted in 2 \times reducing loading buffer.

Subcellular Fractionation. HeLa cells (2×10^6) were seeded in a 10-cm plate and reverse-transfected with siRNA; 72 h after seeding, cells were serum-starved for 2 h and subsequently stimulated with 10% FCS for the indicated time. Cells were harvested, and the nuclear and cytosolic fractions were

prepared using the nuclear extract kit from Active Motif according to the manufacturer's instructions.

PC12 Differentiation and ppERK Staining. Cells were plated at a density of 50,000 cells on collagen-coated glass slides in 12-well plates. PC12 cells were transfected using FugeneHD (Roche) according to manufacturer's instructions. Differentiation was initiated by cultivating the cells in RPMI medium supplemented with 1% horse serum and 50 ng/mL NGF (Sigma-Aldrich). Cells were scored as differentiated if they exhibited at least one neurite that was longer than one cell diameter. Staining of ppERK in PC12 cells was based on a protocol described by others (31). Briefly, cells were washed with PBS, followed by fixation in 4% paraformaldehyde and 4% sucrose for 20 min at room temperature (RT). After washing with PBSG [PBS (pH 7.4) with 20 mM glycine] cells were permeabilized with PBS containing 0.2% Triton X-100 for 15 min at RT. Cells were washed and nonspecific binding was blocked using 3% goat serum and 0.5% BSA in PBS for 1 h at RT. Anti-ppERK antibody (diluted 1:250 in 2.5% goat serum) was incubated overnight at 4 °C. After washing, cells were incubated with secondary antibody (in 2.5% goat serum), followed by washing and embedding.

Microscopy. All microscopy experiments were performed on a Leica-SP5 confocal laser-scanning microscope. For FRAP experiments, cells on 18-mm glass coverslips were placed into a Ludin chamber type-1 (Life Imaging Services), and the FRAP experiment was performed at 37 °C using a 63× immersion oil objective. For bleaching of cytosol, a cell was chosen, and the image was digitally magnified by twofold. The cytosolic area was bleached for 20 s, and fluorescence recovery was acquired at a speed of one frame per second for 1 min. Images were analyzed using ImageJ software.

Immunofluorescence. Cells were fixed using 4% paraformaldehyde (pH 7.4) for 20 min at RT. Cells were washed in PBSG [PBS (pH 7.4) with 20 mM glycine] and permeabilized (PBSG with 0.2% Triton X-100) for 4 min at RT, followed by washing with PBSG. The primary antibody was diluted in PBSG with 3% BSA and incubated for 30 min at RT, followed by washes in PBS. The secondary antibody was diluted in PBS with 3% BSA and incubated for 30 min at RT. Slides were washed PBS and mounted using polyvinylalcohol (Sigma).

Core Model of ERK Signaling. The common core of our models (*SI Appendix, Fig. S3*) is based on the established, well-calibrated models of ERK signaling. First, active MEK binds ERK in the cytosol and phosphorylates ERK at two distinct phosphorylation sites in the kinase domain of ERK following a distributive two-collision mechanism (32–34). Second, all differentially phosphorylated forms of ERK can shuttle into and out of the nucleus with the rates given in *SI Appendix, Table S1* (35). Third, cytosolic and nuclear DUSPs bind and dephosphorylate ERK in their respective compartments, whereas the expression of nuclear DUSP is induced by the nuclear ERK activity (36–38). A detailed account of all reactions in the model is given in *SI Appendix, Table S1*. A successful modeling strategy keeps the model simple and yet biologically relevant and capable of meaningful predictions. To that end, the developed model contains biologically reasonable assumptions, simplifications, and generalizations. A more detailed explanation can be found in *SI Appendix*.

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