K14-Ang1 mice appeared normal, and histological sections revealed that the ear skin was similar to that of wild-type mice in terms of both thickness and cellular components; the only obvious difference in the K14-Ang1 skin was an increased number of large vessels. In contrast, the ear skin of K14-VEGF mice appeared thicker than normal (3), and by the time the mice were 10 to 12 weeks of age focal red skin lesions began to develop in their ears. We focused on the ear skin of mice because (i) the vasculature is not obscured by dense hair, (ii) the ear vasculature can easily be examined in whole mounts, (iii) the ears can easily be examined while the mice are alive, and (iv) the ear skin seemed to resemble the remainder of the skin. Different amounts of Ang1 or VEGF expression in different regions of skin, perhaps as a result of different density of hair follicles, could result in quantitative differences in vessel length and area density.

- 7. The phenotype of the ear microvessels was determined by examining the venule-specific endothelial cell markers P-selectin and von Willebrand factor (vWF) (23) and the pericyte marker desmin. In K14-Ang1 mice we found strong immunoreactivity for P-selectin and vWF in venules and in vessels in the anatomic position of capillaries, but in wild-type mice we found strong immunoreactivity for these markers only in venules. Further, the pericytes of these vessels in K14-Ang1 mice had the highly branched morphology of venules instead of the elongated morphology of capillaries.
- 8. The vessel length density in ear skin of K14-VEGF mice (63.5 \pm 2.8 mm/mm²) was 56% greater than that in wild-type mice (40.7 \pm 1.2 mm/mm²) and 37% greater than that in K14-Ang1 mice (46.3 \pm 2.4 mm/mm²). In contrast, the average capillary diameter in K14-Ang1 mice (15.8 \pm 0.8 μ m) was 90% greater than that in wild-type mice (8.3 \pm 0.6 μ m) and 147% greater than that in K14-VEGF mice (6.4 \pm 0.3). The vessel length density in K14-Ang1/VEGF mice was further increased (66.7 \pm 3.9 mm/mm²), whereas the average capillary diameter was normal (8.7 \pm 0.1 μ m) due to averaging unusually large and small vessels. Supplementary material is available at www.sciencemag.org/feature/data/1043334.shl
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Evans blue leakage. The few leaky sites in inflamed ears of K14-Ang1/VEGF mice were located in small venules and in capillary-like vessels, similar to the location of leaky vessels in K14-VEGF mice.

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Reduced MAP Kinase Phosphatase-1 Degradation After p42/p44^{MAPK}-Dependent Phosphorylation

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The mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase cascade is inactivated at the level of MAP kinase by members of the MAP kinase phosphatase (MKP) family, including MKP-1. MKP-1 was a labile protein in CCL39 hamster fibroblasts; its degradation was attenuated by inhibitors of the ubiquitin-directed proteasome complex. MKP-1 was a target in vivo and in vitro for p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK}, which phosphorylates MKP-1 on two carboxyl-terminal serine residues, Serine 359 and Serine 364. This phosphorylation did not modify MKP-1's intrinsic ability to dephosphorylate p44^{MAPK} but led to stabilization of the protein. These results illustrate the importance of regulated protein degradation in the control of mitogenic signaling.

The control of cell division in response to mitogens is mediated at least in part by MAP kinase (MAPK) signaling pathways (1). The p42^{MAPK} and p44^{MAPK} enzymes [extracellular signal-regulated kinase (ERK)-2 and ERK-1] are activated in cells stimulated with mitogens, by phosphorylation on threonine and tyrosine residues within protein kinase subdomain VIII, mediated by a class of MAP kinase (or ERK) kinases typified by MEK1 (2). Inhibition of $p42^{MAPK}$ and $p44^{MAPK}$ blocks cell-cycle reentry (3) and is principally mediated in vivo by members of a family of dual specificity phosphatases, of which MAP kinase phosphatase (MKP-1, also called 3CH134, CL100, or erp) is archetypal (4, 5). At least nine distinct MKP family members have been cloned, most, if not all, of which are the products of immediate early

Institute of Signaling, Developmental Biology and Cancer Research, CNRS UMR 6543, Centre A. Lacassagne, 33 Avenue de Valombrose, Nice 06189, France. genes and therefore under tight transcriptional control (5, 6). MKP-1, MKP-2, and MKP-3 are transiently synthesized after activation of $p42^{MAPK}$ and $p44^{MAPK}$, suggesting the presence of a negative feedback loop to regulate $p42^{MAPK}$ and $p44^{MAPK}$ (5–7). To determine whether expression of the MKP-1 protein is also subject to control, we determined the half-life of MKP-1 in CCL39 fibroblast cells (Fig. 1A). MKP-1 was barely detectable in quiescent CCL39 fibroblasts, but its expression level was increased in cells stimulated with mitogens before [³⁵S]methionine labeling and immunoprecipitation (8). Its half-life was on the order of 45 min.

Because many labile proteins are targeted for degradation by the ubiquitin-directed proteasome complex (9), we analyzed the effects of a proteasome inhibitor N-acteyl-leu-leu-norleucinal (LLnL) (10) and a lysosomal cysteine protease inhibitor, N-[N-(L-3-trans-carboxiraine-2carbonyl)-L-leucyl]-agmatine (E64) (10) on MKP-1 degradation (Fig. 1B). After treatment of cells with serum to induce synthesis of MKP-1 and blockade of further protein synthesis by cycloheximide, the amount of MKP-1 decreased at a similar rate in control cells and

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in the presence of E64, but the rate of degradation of MKP-1 was decreased in the presence of the proteasome inhibitor. Two other proteasome inhibitors Cbz-LLLal (MG132) and Lactacystin (11) also attenuated the rate of MKP-1 degradation. MKP-1 was expressed in human embryonic kidney (HEK) 293 cells together with histidine-tagged ubiquitin. The experimental design (12, 13) allows the isolation of multiubiquitinated forms of MKP-1, which are visible as ladders of immunoreactivity on an immunoblot (Fig. 1C).

The inhibition of the proteasome (Fig. 2) was sufficient, on its own, to increase the abundance of MKP-1 and, to a lesser extent, that of MKP-2 in quiescent CCL39 cells (Fig. 2A). After treatment of cells with LLnL, the addition of serum promoted a reduction in MKP-1 mobility in SDS-polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) (Fig. 2B). To test whether the reduction in MKP-1 mobility was a consequence of phosphorylation, we treated cell extracts containing MKP-1 with phosphatase lambda, which led to the elimination of the more slowly migrating form of MKP-1 (Fig. 2C). Thus, MKP-1 is phosphorylated in response to serum. Examination of MKP-1 primary structure revealed several consensus phosphorylation sites for p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK}. To assess whether MKP-1 was phosphorylated by p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK} in vivo, we used CCL39 cells expressing a Raf:estrogen receptor (ER) chimera (14), which allows conditional activation of Raf after treatment of the cells with estradiol and concomitant activation of p45^{MEK1}, p42^{MAPK}, and p44^{MAPK}. Treatment of Δ Raf-1::ER-expressing cells labeled with inorganic phosphate with LLnL increased the abundance of MKP-1. When these cells were treated with estradiol, phosphorylation of MKP-1 was increased (Fig. 2D). The inclusion of the p45^{MEK1} inhibitor PD098059 blocked this phosphorylation, indicating that MKP-1 is phosphorylated in an p45^{MEK1}dependent manner.

Purified, active p44^{MAPK} phosphorylated MKP-1 in vitro (15, 16) (Fig. 3A). This phosphorylation was rapid and reversible after addition of phosphatase lambda (17). Purified p45^{MEK1} did not phosphorylate MKP-1 under similar conditions but did phosphorylate catalytically inactive p44^{MAPK} (15). Although in vitro-translated MKP-1 dephosphorylated p42^{MAPK} and p44^{MAPK}, no dephosphorylation of MKP-1 itself was detected (18). Taken together, our data indicate that MKP-1 is a substrate for p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK}. To identify the site or sites of p44^{MAPK}-mediated MKP-1 phosphorylation, we constructed an MKP-1 truncation mutant, MKP-1(1-340), lacking the last 27 COOH-terminal amino acids (19) (Fig. 3B). This mutant did not undergo phosphorylation by p44^{MAPK}. The p42^{MAPK} and p44^{MAPK} enzymes phosphorylate substrates containing PX(S/T)P (P, proline; X, any neutral or basic



Fig. 1. Lability of MKP-1. (A) The half-life of MKP-1 was determined in quiescent CCL39 cells after cell treatment with mitogen [thrombin (1 U/ml) + bovine fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) (10 ng/ml)] for 3 hours, ³⁵S-methionine labeling for 30 min, and addition of unlabeled methionine (1 µM). MKP-1 was immunoprecipitated at the times indicated (chase; h, hours) (8), resolved on SDS-PAGE (8.5% gel), and revealed by autoradiography. The bottom panel shows quantitation of immunoprecipitated ³⁵S-labeled MKP-1 by band excision and counting in a scintillation counter. NS, no stimulation. (B) Expression of MKP-1 was increased



in quiescent CCL39 cells by fetal bovine serum (FBS) (10%, 3 hours) before addition of cycloheximide (CHX, 10 μ g/ml) and either LLnL (50 μ M), E64 (10 μ M), or vehicle (Con). At the times indicated, cells were lysed in a solution of 1% SDS and 4 M urea, and proteins were immunoblotted to reveal MKP-1 (7). The bottom panel shows quantitation of MKP-1 in the protein immunoblot by densitometric scanning (MKP-1 at time 0 is 100%). (C) Ubiquitination of MKP-1 in vivo. HEK 293 cells were transfected with expression plasmids encoding His-ubiquitin (His-Ub) and MKP-1 (7, 12). After 30 hours, cells were rinsed with ice-cold PBS, and His-ubiquitin conjugates were purified (12, 13). MKP-1 (left) and ubiquitin (right) were detected by protein immunoblotting with antibody to MKP-1 or antisera to ubiquitin, respectively (7). The position of MKP-1-ubiquitin conjugates is indicated on the right of each immunoblot.





CCL39 cells were treated with LLnL (50 μM) for the times indicated, before cell lysis and MKP-1 immunoblotting as described in the legend to Fig. 1. (B) Quiescent CCL39 cells were treated with LLnL (50 µM) for 2 hours, before being stimulated with FBS (10%) for the times indicated; cells were lysed, and MKP-1 was detected by immunoblotting (7, 8). The presence of a more slowly migrating MKP-1 species is indicated by the letter P and is visible 0.5 hours after FBS addition. At 2 hours, MKP-2 is detectable as a poorly resolved band migrating more slowly than MKP-1–P. An additional slowly migrating band is unidentified. (C) MKP-1 is phosphorylated in vivo: ΔRaf-1::ER chimera-expressing cells (14) were treated with LLnL (50 μ M) for 4 hours before FBS stimulation (10%, 10 min), cell lysis, and phosphatase λ (Phos. λ) treatment (17). MKP-1 was detected by immunoblotting (7, 8). (D) ARaf-1::ER chimera-expressing cells were incubated with 32 Pi (500 μ Ci/ml) in phosphate-free medium and left untreated (Con) or treated with LLnL (L, 50 μ M) for 4 hours. Cells were stimulated with estradiol (E, 10 μ M) with or without PD098059 (PD, 30 μM). Cell lysates were subdivided and MKP-1 was immunoprecipitated, resolved on SDS-PAGE (11% gel), and revealed by autoradiography (top) or protein immunoblotting (bottom) (7).

R E P O R T S in vitro kinase assays revealed that each single

MKP-1 mutant exhibited a slightly reduced

mobility in SDS-PAGE (Fig. 3C). Both single

mutants were also phosphorylated by

p44^{MAPK}, albeit less extensively than wild-

type MKP-1 (Fig. 3C). The double mutant,

MKP-1 (S359A, S364A), showed no reduced

mobility in SDS-PAGE and was a poor

p44^{MAPK} substrate. MKP-1 (S359A, S364A)

amino acid; S/T, serine or threonine) motifs (20). However the first proline is not absolutely required (21). Analysis of the last 27 COOH-terminal amino acids of MKP-1 revealed two possible phosphorylation sites, Ser^{359} and Ser^{365} , which are in the consensus sequence XXSP (22). Each serine was mutated to alanine (A), either individually or in combination. Mobility shift experiments and

A 0 0 5 10 20 30 time (min) Si $+ p44^{MAPK}$ B MKP-1-P MKP-1(1-340) K $p_{44}^{MAPK} + - + -$

Fig. 3. Phosphorylation of MKP-1 by p44^{MAPK}. (A) MKP-1 was translated in vitro with ³⁵Smethionine according to the manufacturer's instructions (Promega) and incubated in an in vitro kinase assay (15) with p44^{MAPK} (16). Samples were removed at the times indicated and resolved by SDS-PAGE (8.5% gel), and MKP-1 was revealed by autoradiography. (B) MKP-1 and MKP-1(1-340) (19) were treated with p44^{MAPK} for 10 min as described (A). (C) (Top) MKP-1 was mutated to produce the



single mutants S359A and S364A and the double mutant S359-364A (19) and treated with p44^{MAPK} for 10 min as described (A). (Bottom) Wild-type (WT) MKP-1 and the above-mentioned mutants were translated in vitro with unlabeled methionine, subjected to an in vitro kinase assay with p44^{MAPK} and [$\gamma^{32}P$]ATP (50 μ M, 2 μ Ci per sample), immunoprecipitated, and detected by protein immunoblotting and autoradiography. (D) HEK 293 cells were transiently transfected with expression plasmids encoding Myc-epitope-tagged wild-type MKP-1 or the double mutant S359-364A (SA/SA), together with plasmid encoding the Δ Raf-1::ER chimera (14). Twenty-four hours after transfection, the cells were labeled with ³²Pi (500 μ Ci/ml) in phosphate-free medium for 4 hours before stimulation with estradiol (E, 1 μ M) for 15 min (Con, no stimulation). MKP-1 was immunoprecipitated, resolved on SDS-PAGE (8.5% gel), and revealed by autoradiography (top) or protein immunoblotted (bottom) as described (7). In all cases, phosphorylated MKP-1 is indicated as MKP-1–P.



Fig. 4. Phosphorylation of MKP-1 by $p42^{MAPK}$ and $p44^{MAPK}$ does not modify MKP-1 activity. Δ Raf-1::ER chimera–expressing cells were treated with LLnL (50 μ M) for 4 hours. Cells were then left untreated or treated with estradiol (1 μ M, 15 min), and MKP-1 was immunoprecipitated. (**A**) (Top) The ability of nonphosphorylated (MKP-1) or $p42^{MAPK}$ or $p44^{MAPK}$ -phosphorylated MKP-1 (MKP-1–P) to hydrolyze p-NPP was determined at the times indicated (18). (Bottom) Immunoprecipitated MKP-1 and MKP-1–P were subjected to protein immunoblotting. (**B**) $p44^{MAPK}$ was in vitro dephosphorylated by immunoprecipitated MKP-1 or MKP-1–P [produced as in (A)] (7, 26), and remaining $p44^{MAPK}$ activity was determined by an in vitro kinase assay with PHAS-I as substrate (15) (top). The bottom panel shows the quantification of the data by densitometric scanning.

expressed in HEK293 cells was not phosphorylated after activation of the $p42^{MAPK}$ or $p44^{MAPK}$ cascade in vivo (Fig. 3D). Hence, the major sites of $p44^{MAPK}$ -mediated MKP-1 phosphorylation are serines 359 and 364.

Because phosphatases undergo a phosphorylation-dependent modulation of activity (23), we sought to determine whether p42^{MAPK}- or p44^{MAPK}-mediated phosphorylation of MKP-1 modified its activity (Fig. 4). We increased expression of MKP-1 by treating Δ Raf-1::ER-expressing cells with LLnL. After addition of estradiol, the ability of phosphorylated MKP-1 to hydrolyze para-nitrophenylphosphate (p-NPP) (Fig. 4A) and to inactivate $p44^{MAPK}$ was determined (Fig. 4B). Phosphorylated and nonphosphorylated MKP-1 had equal activity to hydrolyze p-NPP and dephosphorylate p44^{MAPK}. Thus, it appears that the phosphorylation of MKP-1 by p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK} does not appreciably modify the phosphatase activity of MKP-1.

The transcription factors c-Fos and c-Jun, which are both subject to ubiquitin-directed proteasome degradation, are stabilized as a direct result of MAP kinase-mediated phosphorylation (24). To investigate whether $p44^{MAPK}$ mediated phosphorylation of MKP-1 modified its stability, we increased expression of MKP-1 by treating Δ Raf-1::ER-expressing cells with a submaximal concentration of LLnL, which can be removed by repeated washing. After addition of cycloheximide to block further protein synthesis, cells were left untreated or were treated with estradiol to activate $p42^{MAPK}$ or $p44^{MAPK}$ and phosphorylate MKP-1 (Fig. 5).



Fig. 5. MKP-1 is stabilized by activation of the $p42^{MAPK}$ and $p44^{MAPK}$ cascade. Δ Raf-1::ER chimera-expressing cells were treated with LLnL (10 μ M) for 2 hours, before extensive cell washing to remove LLnL. Cells were treated with cycloheximide (CHX, 10 μ g/ml) or CHX with estradiol (1 μ M). Cells were lysed at the times indicated, and MKP-1 was detected by protein immunoblotting (top) followed by densitometric quantitation (bottom).

The degradation rate of MKP-1 after activation of p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK} was less than half that in the absence of estradiol. Under the same conditions, the degradation rate of inhibitor of $\kappa B\alpha$ (I $\kappa B\alpha$) in response to tumor necrosis factor- α was unaltered in ΔRaf -1::ER-expressing cells after addition of estradiol (*18*). Hence, phosphorylation of MKP-1 by p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK} serves to reduce ubiquitin-dependent degradation of the phosphatase. Activation of p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK} therefore regulates MKP-1 protein expression through both an upregulation of the rate of transcription (*7*) and a reduction in the rate of proteasome-mediated degradation.

The p42^{MAPK} and p44^{MAPK} enzymes have a central role in the capacity of cells to divide in response to growth factors. Activation of p42^{MAPK} and p44^{MAPK} is a prerequisite for cell-cycle reentry (*3*). However, inappropriate or constitutive activation of the p42^{MAPK} or p44^{MAPK} cascade may provoke cellular senescence (*25*). Taken together, these findings illustrate a complex control mechanism designed to limit undesirable long-term activation of p42^{MAPK} and p44^{MAPK} and further demonstrate the importance of regulated protein degradation to the control of cell division processes.

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- 19. MKP-1 underwent polymerase chain reaction-directed mutagenesis with the following primers: ATG

primer, 5'-GCCAGCCATGGTCATGGAAGTG-3'; S364A primer, 5'-GCAGCTGGGAGCGGTCGTAATGGGGCT-CTGAAGGTAGC-3'; S359A primer, 5'-GCAGCTGGG-AGAGGTCGTAATGGGGGCCTGAAGGTAGC-3'; S359/ 364A primer, 5'-GCAGCTGGGAGCGGTCGTAATGG-GGGCCTGAAGGTAGC-3'; and truncation at amino acid 340 primer, 5'-GTTGAACACGGTGGTGGTGGA-3'. After amplification, DNA was subcloned into pCRII followed by pcDNA3.1(+) in frame with a Myc-epitope tag. All mutations were verified by sequencing.

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- 26. After MKP-1 immunoprecipitation (7), active p44^{MAPK} (10 ng/ml) was added to immunoprecipitates in a final volume of 100 μl containing 50 mM Hepes (pH 7.0), 60 mM NaCl, 60 mM KCl, bovine serum albumin (1 mg/ml), and 5 mM EGTA. Reactions proceeded at 30°C for the times indicated and terminated by addition of 200 μM sodium orthovanadate. A kinase assay to determine p44^{MAPK} activity was then performed (15) with PHAS-I as substrate.
- 27. We thank D. Bohmann for His-ubiquitin expression plasmid, all members of the Pouysségur laboratory for their support, and K. Marcu for financial assistance. Supported by the CNRS, the Institut National de la Sante et de la Recherche Medicale, the Association pour la Recherche contre le Cancer, and NIH grant GM26339 awarded to K. Marcu. B.J.M. was supported by the Ligue Nationale contre le Cancer.

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Bacteriophytochromes: Phytochrome-Like Photoreceptors from Nonphotosynthetic Eubacteria

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Phytochromes are a family of photoreceptors used by green plants to entrain their development to the light environment. The distribution of these chromoproteins has been expanded beyond photoautotrophs with the discovery of phytochrome-like proteins in the nonphotosynthetic eubacteria *Deinococcus radiodurans* and *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*. Like plant phytochromes, the *D. radiodurans* receptor covalently binds linear tetrapyrroles autocatalytically to generate a photochromic holoprotein. However, the attachment site is distinct, using a histidine to potentially form a Schiff base linkage. Sequence homology and mutational analysis suggest that *D. radiodurans* bacteriophytochrome functions as a light-regulated histidine kinase, which helps protect the bacterium from visible light.

The phytochrome family of dimeric photoreceptors regulates growth and development by sensing ambient light through the photointerconversion between an inactive red-light (R)– absorbing form and an active far-red-light (FR)–absorbing form (1). Although previously thought to be restricted to higher plants, the recent detection of phytochrome-like proteins

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