

Prediction and validation of the distinct dynamics of transient and sustained ERK activation

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To elucidate the hidden dynamics of extracellular-signal-regulated kinase (ERK) signalling networks, we developed a simulation model of ERK signalling networks by constraining *in silico* dynamics based on *in vivo* dynamics in PC12 cells. We predicted and validated that transient ERK activation depends on rapid increases of epidermal growth factor and nerve growth factor (NGF) but not on their final concentrations, whereas sustained ERK activation depends on the final concentration of NGF but not on the temporal rate of increase. These ERK dynamics depend on Ras and Rap1 dynamics, the inactivation processes of which are growth-factor-dependent and -independent, respectively. Therefore, the Ras and Rap1 systems capture the temporal rate and concentration of growth factors, and encode these distinct physical properties into transient and sustained ERK activation, respectively.

Transient and sustained extracellular-signal-regulated kinase (ERK) activation regulate cell fates, such as growth and differentiation, in PC12 cells¹. Extracellular stimuli, such as epidermal growth factor (EGF) and nerve growth factor (NGF), induce transient, and transient and sustained ERK activation, respectively¹⁻⁴. EGF-dependent ERK activation involves tyrosine phosphorylation of the EGF receptor (EGFR), SOS-dependent Ras activation⁵⁻⁸, followed by activation of Raf and mitogen-activated protein kinase (MEK, also known as ERK kinase), which leads to ERK activation9. In turn, ERK activation is terminated by EGFR internalization, followed by degradation^{10,11}, recruitment of Ras GTPase-activating protein (GAP) to the plasma membrane where Ras is located^{12,13}, and ERK-dependent feedback inhibition of SOS14,15, resulting in transient ERK activation. NGFdependent ERK activation consists of transient and sustained ERK activation. NGF induces tyrosine phosphorylation of TrkA, a subunit of NGFR1. Transient ERK activation by NGF depends on Ras, in a similar way to EGF-dependent ERK activation ¹⁶. Sustained ERK activation involves slow and sustained activation of Rap1 (refs 16-19), which is mediated by sustained TrkA activation²⁰. Activated Rap1 activates B-Raf, followed by activation of MEK, leading to sustained ERK activation 16,17,21,22.

Recent studies have provided practical molecular frameworks of EGF-and NGF-dependent ERK signalling networks^{1,18,19}; however, the dynamics of transient and sustained ERK activation remains to be elucidated. Therefore, we used an integrated approach of *in silico* kinetic simulation^{23–29} and *in vivo* dynamics measurements of cross-talk points that are cooperatively regulated by upstream or downstream networks, as the dynamics of cross-talk points critically determine that of the whole networks. In addition, we used a single cell line — PC12 cells — because *in*

vivo dynamics differ between cell lines due to different expression levels of molecules. We predicted and validated that the Ras and Rap1 systems specifically capture the temporal rate and concentration of growth factors, and encode these distinct physical properties of growth factors into transient and sustained ERK activation, respectively.

RESULTS

Modelling of ERK signalling networks

Based on the literature, we first developed a block diagram of ERK signalling networks (Fig. 1, and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S1). We determined kinetic parameters based on earlier experimental observations and some assumptions, then further constrained parameters on the basis of *in vivo* dynamics in PC12 cells (see Supplementary Information, Table S1).

We measured the *in vivo* tyrosine phosphorylation of EGFR and TrkA in a dose-dependent manner, using EGF and NGF, respectively, as constant stimulation of growth factors is first transformed into different temporal patterns at the receptor level (Fig. 1, boxes). The *in vivo* tyrosine phosphorylation of EGFR and TrkA were transient and sustained, respectively (Fig. 2a, b, upper panels)^{18,19,30}. We next measured the *in vivo* dynamics of the cross-talk points of the ERK signalling networks (Fig. 1, boxes). Following stimulation, SOS is recruited to the plasma membrane where SOS activates Ras³¹. It is subsequently inhibited by ERK-dependent phosphorylation^{32,33}, leading to the dissociation of SOS from the complex with Grb2, resulting in a decline of Ras activation^{32,33}. Therefore, SOS is a cross-talk point of ERK-dependent negative-feedback inhibition^{32,33}. Mobility shifts in SOS reflect its phosphorylation

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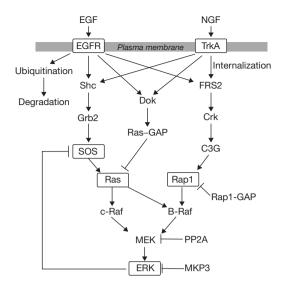


Figure 1 Schematic overview of EGF- and NGF-dependent ERK signalling networks. Arrows and bars indicate stimulatory and inhibitory interactions, respectively. *In vivo* and *in silico* dynamics of the indicated molecules were measured (boxes; see Fig. 2, and see also Supplementary Information, Fig. S2). All the biochemical reactions and parameters are provided in Supplementary Information, Fig. S1 and Table S1, respectively. MKP3, MAP kinase phosphatase 3; PP2A, protein phosphatase 2A.

state, which can be regarded as an inactive state of SOS^{32,33}. The *in vivo* mobility shifts of SOS, in response to EGF and NGF, were correlated with ERK activation^{18,32,33} (Fig. 2e, f, and see Supplementary Information, Fig. S2). Signals downstream of the receptors diverge into Ras and Rap1 activities, then merge again into ERK activation^{16,17} via successive Raf and MEK activation^{9,34}. These small GTPases are activated by the conversion of GDP-bound forms to GTP-bound forms³⁵. The *in vivo* activation of Ras was transient in response to both stimuli (Fig. 2c, upper panel)^{18,19}. The EGF stimulus did not induce sufficient activation of Rap1, whereas the NGF stimulus induced sustained activation of Rap1 (Fig. 2d, upper panel)^{18,19}. The EGF stimulus induced transient ERK phosphorylation *in vivo* (Fig. 2e, upper panel)), whereas the NGF stimulus induced transient and sustained ERK phosphorylation *in vivo* (Fig. 2f, upper panel))^{18,19}.

We fixed the parameters by constraining the corresponding *in silico* dynamics on the basis of the above *in vivo* dynamics (Fig. 2, lower panels, and see Supplementary Informtion, Table S1). Of note, transient ERK activation did not always correlate with tyrosine phosphorylation of EGFR, especially at low doses of EGF *in vivo* and *in silico* (Fig. 2a, e), whereas the sustained ERK activation was nearly proportional to the tyrosine phosphorylation of TrkA *in vivo* and *in silico* (Fig. 2b, f, and see below). The *in silico* EGF-dependent transient ERK phosphorylation mainly depended on Ras activation, whereas the *in silico* NGF-dependent transient and sustained ERK phosphorylation depended on Ras and Rap1 activation, respectively^{16,17} (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3h, i). We further examined the dynamics without changing parameters.

Prediction and validation of the distinct ERK dynamics

Constant stimulation of growth factors is generally used for *in vivo* dynamics measurements (Fig. 3a, b, upper panels, solid lines). However, under physiological conditions, concentrations of growth factors are likely to gradually increase in a spatiotemporal-dependent manner. Therefore, we predicted ERK activation in response to various increasing rates of EGF and NGF (Fig. 3a, b, upper panels). Although constant

EGF stimulus induced transient ERK activation, transient ERK activation gradually decreased as the temporal rates of EGF decreased *in silico* (Fig. 3a, middle panel). Importantly, the slow stimulus did not induce sufficient transient ERK activation (Fig. 3a, middle panel, green dashed line). By contrast, a similar sustained ERK activation was induced by both increasing and constant NGF stimuli *in silico* (Fig. 3b, middle panel). However, transient ERK activation gradually decreased as the temporal rates of NGF decreased. Therefore, transient ERK activation depends on the temporal rates of EGF and NGF, whereas sustained ERK activation can respond to both increasing and constant NGF stimuli and depends on the final concentrations. This difference is due to the distinct activation and inactivation mechanisms of Ras and Rap1 (see below).

We next attempted to validate this *in silico* prediction by measuring *in vivo* dynamics. As predicted, transient ERK activation decreased as the temporal rate of EGF decreased *in vivo* (Fig. 3a, lower panel). The slow stimulus did not induce sufficient transient ERK activation (Fig. 3a, lower panel, green dashed line). As the temporal rate of EGF decreased, the peak concentration of transient ERK phosphorylation decreased *in silico* (Fig. 3c). By contrast, a similar sustained ERK activation was induced by both increasing and constant NGF stimuli *in vivo* (Fig. 3b, lower panel). However, transient ERK activation gradually decreased as the temporal rates of NGF decreased, which was also consistent with the *in silico* prediction. Sustained ERK activation depends on the final concentrations of NGF, irrespective of constant or increasing stimulation *in silico* (Fig. 3d).

We further performed stepwise increases and decreases of stimuli to predict *in silico* dynamics and to validate the dynamics of ERK activation *in vivo* (Fig. 4). The stepwise increase of EGF successively triggered transient ERK activation *in silico* and *in vivo* (Fig. 4a). The initial constant EGF stimulus (0.5 ng ml⁻¹) triggered efficient transient ERK activation, and the additional constant EGF stimulus (10 ng ml⁻¹) again triggered transient ERK activation, indicating that the rapid increase of EGF, rather than a threshold or absolute concentration, induces transient ERK activation. A stepwise decrease of NGF, however, induced sustained ERK activation that was similar to that seen in response to the final concentration, rather than the initial concentration, of NGF *in silico* and *in vivo* (Fig. 4b)³⁶.

Therefore, these results clearly indicate that transient ERK activation depends on the rapid temporal rates of growth factors but not on their final concentrations, whereas sustained ERK activation depends on the final concentration of NGF but not on its temporal rate of increase.

Distinct temporal dynamics of Ras and Rap1 activation

We explored the mechanisms underlying the distinct dynamics of transient and sustained ERK activation *in silico* (Fig. 5). Transient ERK activation, which requires a rapid increase of stimuli, is due to the mechanism of Ras activation. Transient Ras activation decreased as the temporal rate of growth factors decreased (Fig. 5a, lower panel). The slow EGF stimulus did not induce sufficient transient Ras activation (Fig. 5a, green dashed line in lower panel). Transient Ras activation is determined by the balance between activation and inactivation processes. Deletion of Ras–GAP activity resulted in sustained Ras activation (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3), indicating that Ras–GAP is crucial for the rapid termination of transient Ras activation. Inhibition of either EGFR internalization or ERK-dependent feedback inhibition of SOS did not affect transient Ras activation (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3). Therefore, transient Ras

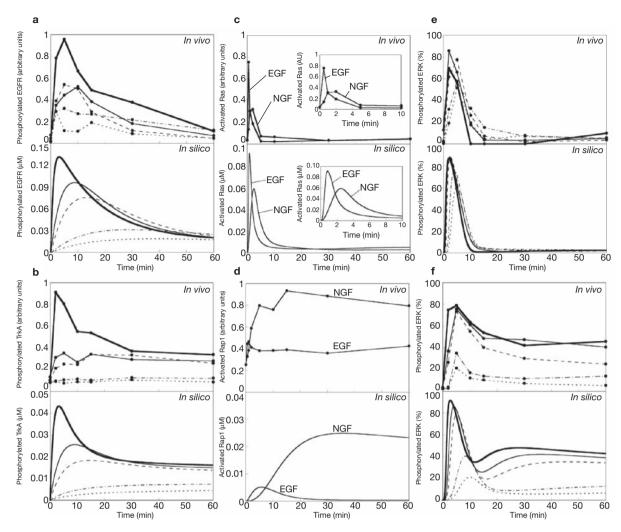


Figure 2 *In vivo* and *in silico* dynamics of ERK signalling networks. *In vivo* (upper panel) and *in silico* (lower panel) tyrosine phosphorylation of epidermal growth-factor receptor (EGFR; \mathbf{a}) and TrkA (\mathbf{b}), activation of Ras (\mathbf{c}) and Rap1 (\mathbf{d}), and EGF- (\mathbf{e}) and nerve growth factor (NGF)- (\mathbf{f}) dependent phosphorylation of ERK. Insets in \mathbf{c} show transient Ras activation within 10 min after stimulation. The thick line, thin line, thin dashed line, thin

dash-dotted line and thin dotted line indicate the responses with a constant 50, 10, 5, 1 and $0.5\,\mathrm{ng}\,\mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ of either EGF or NGF, respectively, except for Ras and Rap1 activation. For Ras and Rap1 activation, $10\,\mathrm{ng}\,\mathrm{ml}^{-1}$ of EGF or NGF was used. The results are representative of three independent experiments. Images of the original gels of the immunoblotting are shown in Supplementary Information, Fig. S2.

activation is substantially regulated by the activity balance between SOS31 and Ras-GAP^{12,13} in the *in silico* model. The rapid stimuli, as the constant stimuli, initially led to fast SOS recruitment (Fig. 5a, upper panel) and then to slow Ras-GAP recruitment in silico (Fig. 5a, middle panel), resulting in sufficient transient Ras activation in silico (Fig. 5a, lower panel). Although the slow stimuli led to the same processes, differences in activity between SOS and Ras-GAP were extended and decreased in silico, resulting in the disappearance of transient Ras activation. The apparent time constants of SOS and Ras-GAP recruitment mainly depended on the time constants of binding of Shc to phosphorylated EGFR, and of phosphorylation and dephosphorylation of Dok, respectively, in silico (data not shown). The amplitudes of SOS and Ras-GAP recruitments mainly depended on the affinities of Shc to SOS-Grb2, and of phosphorylated Dok to Ras-GAP, respectively, and also on the initial concentrations of Shc and Ras-GAP, respectively, in silico (data not shown). Consistent with this in silico prediction, the in vivo recruitment of SOS to the membrane fraction preceded that of Ras-GAP in response to the constant EGF stimulus (Fig. 5c). Therefore, transient Ras activation depends on a temporal rate of growth factors.

In contrast to Ras–GAP, Rap1–GAP was constant regardless of the stimuli *in silico*. An apparent negative-feedback inhibition and stimuli-dependent inactivation process has not been found in the Rap1 activation process, and therefore Rap1 activation simply responded to the C3G activity, which depended on sustained TrkA phosphorylation (Fig. 5b). Therefore, Rap1 can respond to both an increase and a decrease of NGF stimulus and the activation of Rap1 depends on the final concentration of NGF (Fig. 5b). Consistent with this *in silico* prediction, sustained Rap1 activation was observed in response to both constant and increasing NGF stimuli *in vivo* (Fig. 5b, lower panel). We also found that sustained Ras or Rap1 activation can lead to sustained ERK activation *in silico* (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3), and sustained EGFR phosphorylation induced by EGF (10 ng ml⁻¹) in the presence of MG-132 (ref. 37), a proteasome inhibitor, increased sustained Ras, Rap1 and ERK activation *in vivo* (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S4).

These results indicate that the growth-factor-dependent fast SOS and slow Ras–GAP activation regulates transient Ras activation, and that the growth-factor-dependent C3G activation with the constant Rap1–GAP activity regulates sustained Rap1 activation.

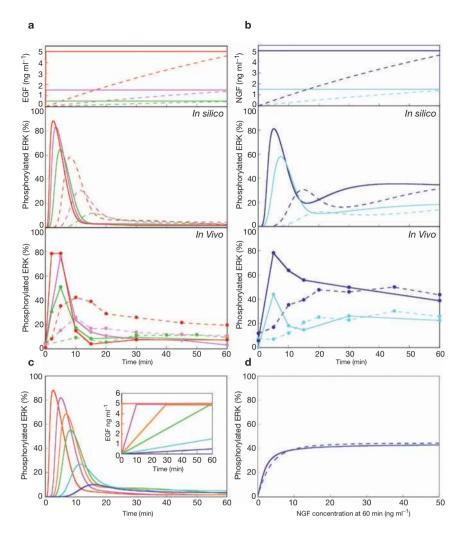


Figure 3 Distinct dynamics of transient and sustained ERK activation. For epidermal growth factor (EGF, a) and nerve growth factor (NGF, b), the indicated stimuli (upper panels) were given and the extracellular-signal-regulated kinase (ERK) phosphorylation *in silico* (middle panels) and *in vivo* (lower panels) was plotted. The constant and increasing stimuli, and the corresponding responses are indicated by solid and dashed lines, respectively. The images of the original gels in **a** and **b** are

shown in Supplementary Information, Fig. S2. (c) The temporal rate of EGF-dependent ERK phosphorylation *in silico*. The indicated EGF stimuli (inset) were given and the transient ERK activation was plotted. (d) The *in silico* sustained ERK phosphorylation at 60 min. Solid and dashed lines indicate ERK phosphorylation at 60 min with constant and increasing NGF stimuli, respectively. The increasing stimuli are represented as the NGF concentrations at 60 min.

Mechanisms of the Ras and Rap1 systems

To facilitate understanding of the dynamics of the Ras and Rap1 systems, we developed simple Ras and Rap1 models downstream of phosphorylated receptors (Fig. 6; see also Methods.) In the simple Ras model, Ras activation and inactivation were approximated by reactions with pR (phosphorylated receptor)-GEF and by reaction with pR-GAP, respectively (Fig. 6a, equtions (3)–(5). We simplified the equations further by substituting variables with dimensionless variables, yielding equations (3')-(5'), where GEF, GAP, Ras and Rap1 are dimensionless representations of pR-GEF, pR-GAP, Ras-GTP and Rap1-GTP, respectively. We found that the simple Ras model, with equivalent parameters in the in silico model, was similar to the in silico dynamics of Ras activation (Fig. 6b red line, see also Fig. 7a). Here, q is the relative rate constant of GAP activation compared with GEF activation (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S5), and therefore q < 1 and q > 1 indicate the conditions in which GEF activation is faster and slower than GAP activation, respectively. The apparent transient peak of *Ras* was observed with q < 1, but not with q > 1, in response to constant pR stimulation (Fig. 6b). Furthermore, transient Ras activation, defined by $Ras_{transient}$ (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S5), was induced in a temporal rate (r)-dependent manner in pR increase (Fig. 6c). By contrast, in the simple Rap1 model (see below), transient Rap1 activation was not observed under any condition (data not shown). This result supports the idea that the fast SOS and subsequent slow Ras–GAP activation enables the Ras system to capture the temporal rate of stimulation.

We also developed a simple Rap1 model, in which Rap1 activation and inactivation were approximated by reaction with pR–GEF and by reaction with constant GAP, respectively (Fig. 6d). We derived equation (1) for *Rap1* activation at steady state from equations (3') and (4') (Fig. 6e):

$$Rap1 = \frac{pR}{(1 + Ke) pR + Ke} \tag{1}$$

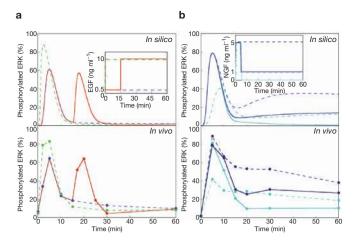


Figure 4 *In silico* and *in vivo* ERK activation in response to stepwise increases of EGF and to stepwise decreases of NGF. (a) The indicated stepwise increase of epidermal growth factor (EGF) stimulus (inset) was performed and extracellular-signal-regulated kinase (ERK) phosphorylation *in silico* (upper panel) and *in vivo* (lower panel) was plotted. The solid red line indicates the stepwise increases in EGF stimulus (0.5–10 ng ml⁻¹). The dashed blue and green lines indicate 0.5 and 10 ng ml⁻¹ of constant EGF stimuli, respectively. (b) The indicated stepwise decrease of nerve growth factor (NGF) or constant NGF stimulus (inset) was performed and ERK phosphorylation *in silico* (upper panel) and *in vivo* (lower panel) was plotted. The solid blue and cyan lines indicate the stepwise decreases of NGF stimuli (5–1 ng ml⁻¹ and 5–0 ng ml⁻¹, respectively). The dashed blue and cyan lines indicate 5 and 1 ng ml⁻¹ of constant NGF stimuli, respectively. The images of the original gels in **a** and **b** are shown in Supplementary Information, Fig. S2.

where pR is given by a constant, α (see Methods). Under the conditions, such as $\alpha << 1$, in which the *GEF* activation was not saturated (Fig. 5b; also see Supplementary Information, Fig. S5), equation (1) can be approximated by:

$$Rap1 = \frac{pR}{Ke} \tag{1'}$$

This approximation clearly highlights the characteristics of Rap1 activation at steady state, which is proportional to pR (Fig. 6e). This result supports the idea that constant Rap1–GAP activity, with stimulation-dependent C3G activation, enables the Rap1 system to capture the final concentration of stimulation.

We also derived equation (2) for Ras activation at steady state:

$$Ras = \frac{1}{1 + pKe \frac{1 + pR}{1 + p \times pR}} \tag{2}$$

where pR is given by a constant, α , and p is the constant, which is the ratio of the dissociation constants between pR for GEF and pR for GAP (Fig. 6f). Under the conditions of α << 1 and $p\alpha$ << 1, whereby the *GEF* and *GAP* activations were not saturated (Fig. 5a; also see Supplementary Information, Fig. S5), equation (2) can be approximated by:

$$Ras = \frac{1}{1 + pKe} \tag{2'}$$

This approximation clearly highlights the characteristics of *Ras* activation at steady state, which becomes constant and independent of *pR* (Fig. 6f). The slope of the plot of *Ras* activation, which corresponds to

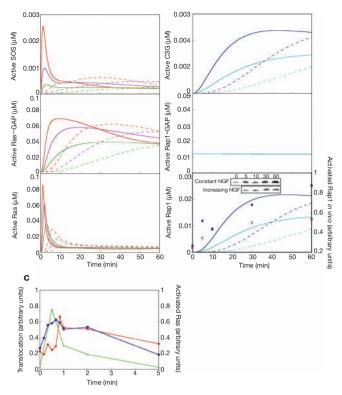


Figure 5 Distinct dynamics of EGF- and NGF-dependent Ras and Rap1 activation. The same stimuli as those shown in Fig. 3 were given, and (a) the epidermal growth factor (EGF)-dependent active fractions of SOS (upper panel), Ras–GAP (middle panel) and Ras (lower panel), and (b) the nerve growth factor (NGF)-dependent active fractions of C3G (upper panel), Rap1–GAP (middle panel) and Rap1 (lower panel) were plotted *in silico*, except that closed and open circles in b (lower panel) indicate the activated Rap1 *in vivo* in response to constant and increasing NGF stimuli (5 ngml⁻¹ at 60 min), respectively. Lines and colours are the same as in Fig. 3. Images of the original gels of the immunoblotting are shown in the inset. (c) *In vivo* recruitment of SOS and Ras–GAP to the membrane fraction in response to constant EGF stimulus. A constant EGF stimulus (10 ngml⁻¹) was given, and the amounts of SOS (blue) and Ras–GAP (red) in the membrane fractions were measured. The *in vivo* activated Ras in Fig. 2c were also plotted (green). The images of the original gels in c are shown in Supplementary Information, Fig. S2.

the order of the reactions from pR to Ras activation, was lower than that of Rap1 activation under the conditions, such as $\alpha << 1$ and $p\alpha << 1$ (Fig. 6e, f), thereby characterizing the distinct dynamics between the Ras and Rap1 activation at steady state.

Next, we confirmed the above characteristics *in silico* (Fig. 7). Responses of transient Ras activation versus the indicated values of q and r in silico were very similar to those in the simple Ras model (Figs 6b, c;7a, b), where q, r and $Ras_{transient}$ denote the relative rate constant of Ras–GAP activation compared with SOS activation, increasing the rate of phosphorylated EGFR and the relative peak amplitude of transient Ras activation, respectively (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S5). These results indicate that the simple Ras model retains the essential characteristics of transient Ras activation *in silico*.

We also confirmed that the simple Rap1 and Ras models represent the same characteristics of Rap1 and Ras activation at steady state *in silico*. The slopes of the plot of Rap1 activation versus both phosphorylated receptors at steady state were very similar at lower doses *in silico* (Fig. 7c). The slopes of the plots of Ras activation versus both phospho-

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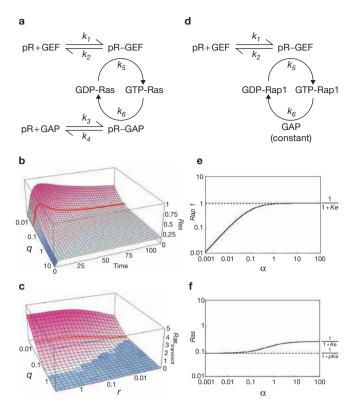


Figure 6 Characteristics of Ras and Rap1 activation in the simple Ras and Rap1 models. (a) Simple Ras model, in which pR-dependent GEF and GAP activation regulate Ras activation. (b) Constant pR stimulation was given, and Ras was plotted against the indicated values of q. Here, time denotes tlk_2 . (c) $Ras_{transient}$ was plotted against the indicated values of r and q, where $Ras_{transient}$ and r indicate the relative peak amplitude of transient Ras activation and the increasing rate of pR, respectively (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S5). Red lines in \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} indicate Ras activation with the equivalent parameters in the in silico model. (d) Simple Rap1 model, in which the pR-dependent GEF activation with constant GAP activity regulates Rap1 activation. (e) Rap1 activation at steady state derived from equation (1), where pR is given by a constant, α. (f) Ras activation at steady state derived from equation (2), where pR is given by a constant, α.

rylated receptors at steady state were also similar at lower doses *in silico* (Fig. 7c). However, the slopes of the plots of Ras activation were lower than those of Rap1 activation at the lower doses, at which GEF and GAP activations were not saturated (Fig. 5a, b). These *in silico* characteristics are consistent with the results in the simple Rap1 and Ras models (Fig. 6e, f), indicating that the simple Rap1 and Ras models also retain essential characteristics of Rap1 and Ras activation at steady state *in silico*. Inhibition of Ras activation at higher doses of both phosphorylated receptors depended on the negative-feedback inhibition of SOS; the deletion of the negative-feedback inhibition of SOS resulted in the disappearance of this inhibition at higher doses without affecting Ras activation at lower doses (Fig. 7c). It is also possible that the negative-feedback inhibition of SOS regulates Ras activation even at lower doses *in vivo*, and further study is necessary to address this issue.

We also predicted the dynamics of ERK activation at steady state against the phosphorylated receptors *in silico*. The slope of the plot of ERK activation versus the phosphorylated EGFR at steady state was lower than that versus the phosphorylated TrkA (Fig. 7d). ERK activation at steady state consisted of Ras- (Fig. 7d, dotted lines) and Rap1- (Fig. 7d, dashed line) dependent ERK activation *in silico*. Ras-dependent ERK activation

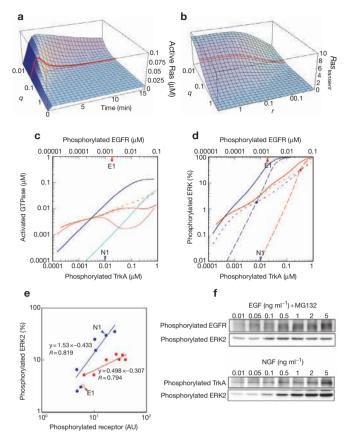


Figure 7 Transient Ras activation, and Ras, Rap1 and ERK activation at steady state. (a) A constant phosphorylated epidermal growth-factor receptor (EGFR) stimulus was given, and the in silico Ras activation was plotted against the indicated values of q. (b) $Ras_{transient}$ was plotted against the indicated values of r and q in silico. Red lines in a and b indicate Ras activation with the original parameters in the *in silico* model. (c) In silico Ras and Rap1 activation at steady state against the constant phosphorylated EGFR are shown in red and cyan, and those against the constant phosphorylated TrkA are shown in pink and blue, respectively. Dashed lines indicate Ras activation without negative-feedback inhibition of SOS. (d) In silico extracellular-signal-regulated kinase (ERK) activation at steady state against the constant phosphorylated EGFR and TrkA are shown with red and blue solid lines, respectively. Dashed and dotted lines indicate Rap1-dependent ERK activation (without Ras activation) and Ras-dependent ERK activation (without Rap1 activation), respectively. Circles indicate the intersecting points of Ras- and Rap1-dependent ERK activation. (e) In vivo ERK phosphorylation was plotted against phosphorylated EGFR (red) and TrkA (blue) at 30 min. Lines were estimated by the least squares method. (f) The corresponding gel images of the results from e. Arrowheads in c-e indicate the points of the phosphorylated receptors induced by 1 ng ml-1 of EGF (in the absence of MG-132) and NGF, respectively.

became dominant at lower doses of the phosphorylated receptors, below the intersecting points (Fig. 7d). In turn, Rap1-dependent ERK activation became dominant at higher doses of the phosphorylated receptors, above the intersecting points (Fig. 7d). The curves of Ras-dependent ERK activation were similar, whereas those of Rap1-dependent ERK activation were different. The distinct Rap1 activation against both phosphorylated receptors is due to the distinct affinities of fibroblast growth factor receptor substrate 2 (FRS2) to both receptors (see below).

We validated the distinct properties of sustained ERK activation *in vivo*. The slope of the plot of the ERK activation versus the phosphorylated EGFR was lower than that versus the phosphorylated TrkA (Fig. 7e, f), which is consistent with the *in silico* prediction.

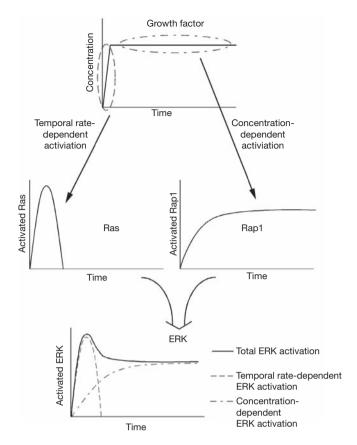


Figure 8 The distinct temporal dynamics of transient and sustained ERK activation via Ras and Rap1 activation. The Ras and Rap1 systems specifically capture the distinct properties of growth factors — the temporal rate and final concentration — and thereby encode these physical properties of growth factors into transient and sustained ERK activation, respectively.

Therefore, these *in silico* and *in vivo* results clearly indicate the distinct dynamics of ERK activation against the phosphorylated EGFR and TrkA at steady state.

DISCUSSION

The crucial difference between EGF- and NGF-dependent ERK activation is the absence or presence of sustained ERK activation, which depends on sustained Rap1 activation. One of the most crucial differences came from the different affinities of FRS2 for the phosphorylated receptors in this model. The affinity of FRS2 for phosphorylated TrkA was higher than that for phosphorylated EGFR (see Supplementary Information, Table S1). Reduction of the affinity of FRS2 for phosphorylated TrkA reduced sustained Rap1 activation (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3). The amplitude of Rap1 activation in response to NGF became similar to that in response to EGF when the affinities of FRS2 for both phosphorylated receptors were set at 200 nM (see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3j, solid and dashed green lines), indicating that the affinity of FRS2 for the phosphorylated receptor determines the amplitude of Rap1 activation. Another crucial difference was the different dynamics of tyrosine phosphorylation of the receptors. NGF induced sustained tyrosine phosphorylation of TrkA (Fig. 2b), whereas EGF induced transient tyrosine phosphorylation of EGFR due to rapid internalization and degradation (Fig. 2a; also see Supplementary Information, Fig. S3). It should also be noted that, from downstream of the adaptor proteins to ERK, both the topology of the network and the kinetic parameters are identical regardless of the stimuli, indicating that the difference between EGF- and NGF-dependent ERK activation is due to different dynamics upstream of the adaptor proteins.

We showed that the temporal rate and final concentration of growth factors are specifically captured by the Ras and Rap1 systems via transient Ras and sustained Rap1 activation, and then encoded into transient and sustained ERK activation, respectively (Fig. 8). This difference between the Ras and Rap1 systems came from their distinct inactivation processes — slower and constant GAP activity, respectively. This finding also indicates the existence of similar physiological roles of other stimulation-dependent negative regulators³⁸, such as other GAPs (for example, Rho–GAP), protein tyrosine phosphatases (for example, SHP) and lipid phosphatases (for example, SHIP and PTEN).

We should emphasize that each *in silico* network should be regarded as representative of similar redundant processes, rather than as a complete description. For example, FRS2 is only an adaptor protein for Rap1 activation in the current *in silico* model; however, this protein implicitly represents another adaptor protein, ARMS, which performs a similar function³⁹. In conclusion, combining *in silico* and *in vivo* analyses facilitates systematic understanding of the underlying properties of signalling networks.

METHODS

Numerical simulation of biochemical reactions. All reactions were represented by molecule–molecule interactions and enzymatic reactions²³. We used a *GENESIS* simulator (version 2.2) with a *Kinetikit* interface for solving the ordinary differential equations with a time step of 10 ms²³.

Block diagram and parameters. The model consisted of 22 molecules and 106 rate constants. The rate constants consisted of 70 and 36 rate constants for molecule–molecule interactions and enzymatic reactions, respectively. The biochemical reactions and the rate constants that were used in the study are shown in Supplementary Information, Fig. S1 and Table S1, respectively. The *GENESIS* script of our *in silico* model is also available as a text file on our website (http://www.kurodalab.org/info/ERK.g).

Cell culture and growth-factor treatments. PC12 cells (kindly provided by Masato Nakafuku, Cincinnati Children's Hospital Medical Center, Ohio) (8 x 10⁵) were starved in DMEM for 16 h, then stimulated with the indicated concentrations of NGF (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) or EGF (Roche, Indianapolis, IN). Increasing stimuli of EGF and NGF were added by use of a microsyringe pump (KD Scientific, Holliston, MA) with a continuous 10 µl min⁻¹ flow rate into 2 ml of the cultured media.

Immunoblotting. Cell lysates were subjected to standard SDS-PAGE (acrylamide: bis=29.5:1) or low-bis SDS-PAGE (acrylamide:bis=144:1) for the separation of phosphorylated and non-phosphorylated ERK, and then transferred to nitrocellulose membrane. The membranes were probed with anti-phospho EGFR (Y1068) antibody (1:1,000; Cell Signaling Technology, Beverly, MA), anti-phospho TrkA (Y490) antibody (1:1,000; Cell Signaling Technology), anti-SOS1 antibody (1:1,000; Upstate, Charlottesville, VA) or anti-ERK1/2 antibody (1:1,000; Cell Signaling Technology). Anti-phospho ERK1/2 (T202/Y204) antibody (1:1000; Cell Signaling Technology) was used due to its higher sensitivity compared with that of anti-ERK1/2 antibody, and the ratio of phosphorylated to non-phosphorylated ERK2 was estimated by comparison at the same point (5 ng ml⁻¹ NGF) using anti-ERK1/2 antibody (Fig. 7f). Horseradish peroxidase (HRP)-conjugated secondary antibodies (Amersham Biosciences, Piscataway, NJ) were used at 1:5,000 and an enhanced chemiluminescence (ECL) detection kit (Amersham Biosciences) was used for HRP detection.

Ras and Rap1 pull-down assay. Ras and Rap1 activation was measured by an affinity pull-down assay using glutathione S-transferase (GST)–c-Raf1 (1–149 amino acids) or GST–RalGDS (767–867 amino acids) (kindly provided by Akira Kikuchi, Hiroshima University, Japan) as described elsewhere⁴⁰. The small

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GTPases bound to the beads were subjected to SDS-PAGE, followed by immunoblotting with monoclonal anti-Ras (1:500; BD biosciences, Franklin Lakes, NJ) or anti-Rap1 (1:500; BD biosciences) antibodies.

Recruitment of SOS and Ras–GAP to the membrane fractions. PC12 cells were stimulated with a constant rate of $10\, ng\, ml^{-1}$ EGF, and cells were lysed by sonication at the indicated time with a buffer containing 50 mM Tris-HCl (pH7.5), 200 mM sucrose, 2.5 mM MgCl $_2$, 10 mM NaF, 1 mM sodium orthovanadate, 1 mM dithiothreitol and $10\, \mu g\, ml^{-1}$ leupeptin and aprotinin. After the membrane and cytosol fractions were separated by centrifugation at $100,000\, g$ for 30 min, the amounts of SOS and Ras–GAP in both fractions were measured by western blotting.

The simple Ras and Rap1 models. In the simple Ras model in Fig. 6a, the derivatives of pR-GEF and pR-GAP, and GTPase-GTP (Ras or Rap1) are given by:

$$\frac{d[pR-GEF]}{dt} = k_1[pR]([GEF_{Total}] - [pR-GEF]) - k_2[pR-GEF]$$
(3)

$$\frac{d[pR-GAP]}{dt} = k_3[pR]([GAP_{Total}] - [pR-GAP]) - k_4[pR-GAP]$$
 (4)

$$\frac{d[\text{GTPase-GTP}]}{dt} = k_5[\text{pR-GEF}]([\text{GTPase}_{\text{Total}}] - [\text{GTPase-GTP}])$$

$$-k_6[\text{pR-GAP}](\text{GTPase-GTP}]$$
(5)

where [] denotes the concentration of the molecule at time t. The total concentration of GEF, GAP and GTPase ([GEF $_{\text{Total}}$], [GAP $_{\text{Total}}$] and [GTPase $_{\text{Total}}$], respectively) are conserved throughout the reactions. Equation (5) implicitly assumes that the concentration of GTPase complexed with either GEF or GAP is relatively small compared with the total concentration of the GTPases, GEF and GAP. We write equations (3) to (5) in dimensionless form, with the following substitutions:

$$\frac{dGEF}{dt} = k_2 \{ pR - (1 + pR)GEF \}$$
 (3')

$$\frac{dGAP}{dt} = k_4 \{ (p \times pR) - (1 + (p \times pR))GAP \}$$
 (4')

$$\frac{dGTPase}{dt} = k_6 [GAP_{Total}] \{GEF/Ke - (GEF/Ke + GAP)GTPase\}$$
 (5')

where pR = [pR]/Kd, $GEF = [pR-GEF]/[GEF_{Total}]$, $GAP = [pR-GAP]/[GAP_{Total}]$, GTPase (Ras or Rap1) = [GTPase-GTP]/[GTPase_{Total}], $Kd = k_2/k_1 = pk_4/k_3$, $Ke = k_6 [GAP_{Total}]/k_5 [GEF_{Total}]$. Similarly, $s = k_6 [GAP_{Total}]/k_2$ represents the relative relaxation time constant of GTPase compared with GEF where GEF and GAP are assumed to be constant. In addition, we define $q = k_4/k_2$, which represents the relative rate constant of GAP activation compared with GEF activation under the conditions in which pR is a constant, α , and GEF and GAP are not saturated (that is, $\alpha << 1$, $p\alpha << 1$) (see Fig. 5 and Supplementary Information Fig. S5, see below). Unless specified, we set p = 3.5, q = 0.027, Ke = 3.2 and s = 2 in the simple Ras model (Fig. 6b, c, f) and Ke = 0.09 in the simple Rap1 model (Fig. 6e), which are equivalent values in the in silico model (data not shown). We also set $\alpha = 0.28$ (Fig. 6b, c), which is equivalent to the concentration of phosphorylated EGFR induced by 1 ng ml^{-1} of EGF in the in*silico* model. The increasing *pR* stimulation is given by $pR = \alpha \{1 - \exp(-rk_2 t)\}$ where r corresponds to the increasing rate of pR (Fig. 6c, Supplementary Information, Fig. S5). The relative peak amplitude of the transient Ras activation, Ras_{transient}, is defined by Ras_{transient} = (Max-Equi)/Equi, where Max and Equi denote Ras at the transient peak and steady state, respectively (Fig. 6c, Fig. 7b and Supplementary Information, Fig. S5). The transient Ras activation is defined by $Ras_{transient} > 0$ (Fig. 6c, Fig. 7b and Supplementary Information, Fig. S5). The increasing EGF stimuli led to the SOS and RasGAP activation in a dose-dependent manner in EGF (Fig. 5a), indicating that the SOS and GAP activation were not saturated in silico. The equivalent conditions in the simple models can be obtained by $\alpha << 1$ and $p\alpha << 1$.

At steady state, the concentrations of the activated GEF, GAP and GTPase become constant. Therefore, by setting the equations (3') to (5') equal to zero, we obtain equation (2). Similarly, we obtain equation (1) from equations (3') and (5'), where GAP is always constant (GAP=1). Note that all values in Fig. 6b, c, e, f are dimensionless.

In Fig. 7a, b, we numerically measured the time constants of SOS and RasGAP activation, τ_{SOS} and $\tau_{Ras\text{-}GAP}$ at which time constant EGF stimulation induced 50% of their maximal activation in silico, respectively. We defined $q=\tau_{SOS}/\tau_{Ras\text{-}GAP}$ which represents the relative rate constant of the RasGAP activation compared to the SOS activation. Indicated values of q were obtained by changing $\tau_{Ras\text{-}GAP}$ without changing τ_{SOS} . For simplicity, the negative feedback inhibition of SOS by ERK was blocked for the analysis in Fig. 7a, b, because the transient Ras activation was not dependent on the negative feedback (Supplementary Information, Fig. S3). We also set [phosphorylated EGFR] = 0.0018 (µM), which corresponds to the phosphorylated EGFR concentration induced by 1 ng ml $^{-1}$ of EGF for constant stimulation (Fig. 7a), and the increasing phosphorylated EGFR stimulus was given by [phosphorylated EGFR] = 0.0018 {1-exp(-r(t/\tau_{SOS}))} (µM), where r corresponds to the increasing rate of phosphorylated EGFR (Fig. 7b).

Supplementary information is available on the Nature Cell Biology website.

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COMPETING FINANCIAL INTERESTS

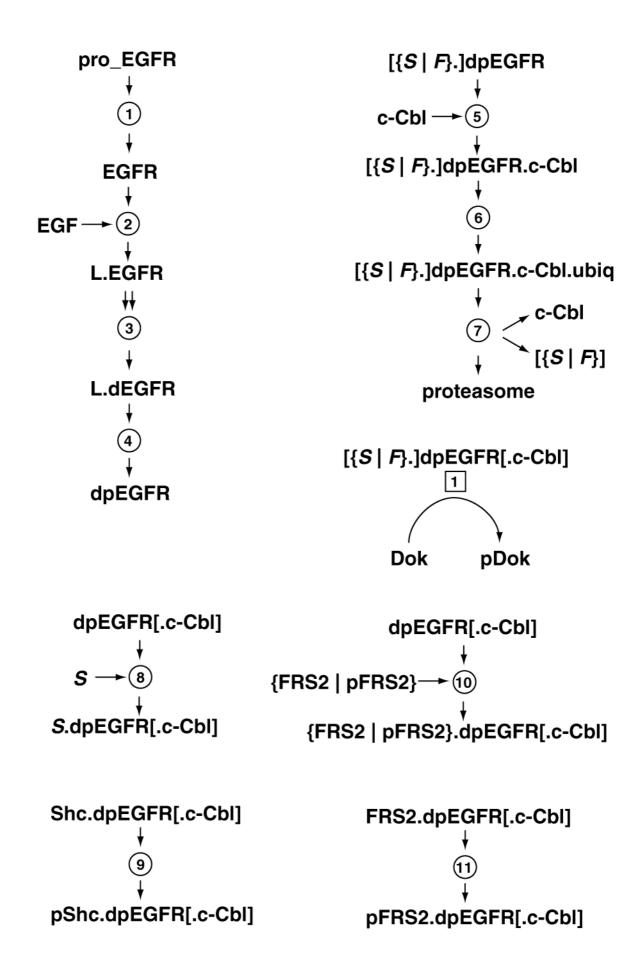
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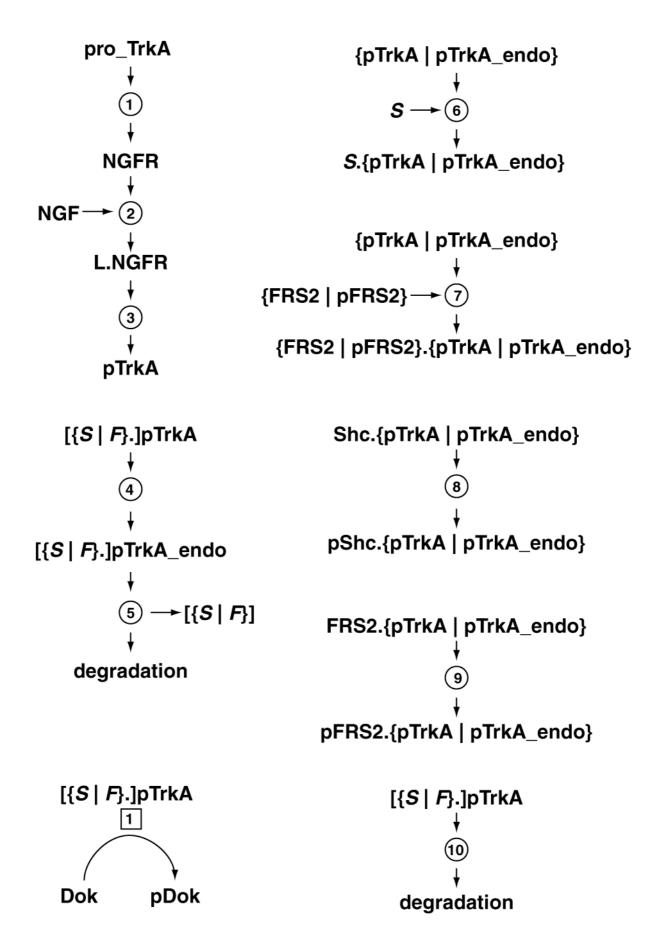
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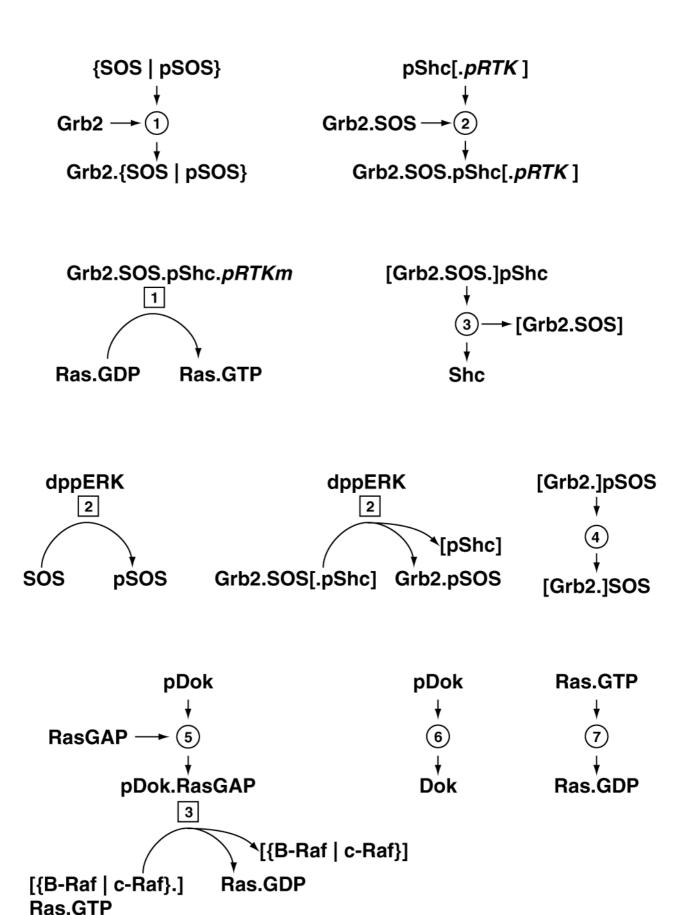
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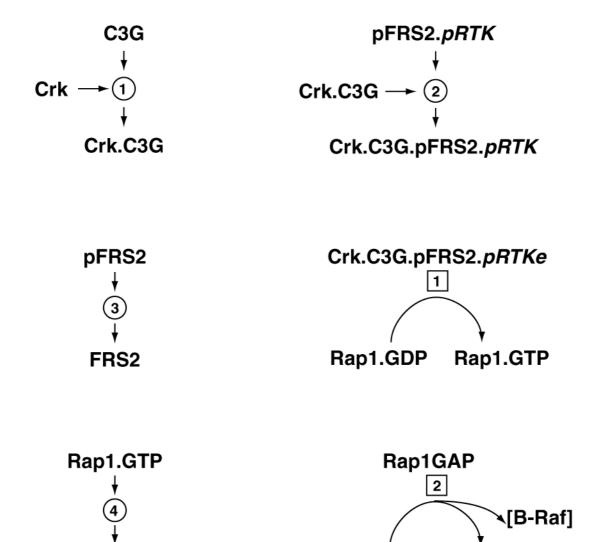
S and F denote {Shc | [Grb2.SOS.]pShc} and {FRS2 | [Crk.C3G.]pFRS2}, respectively.



S and F denote {Shc | [Grb2.SOS.]pShc} and {FRS2 | [Crk.C3G.]pFRS2}, respectively.



pRTKm and pRTK denote {dpEGFR[.c-Cbl] | pTrkA} and {dpEGFR[.c-Cbl] | pTrkA | pTrkA_endo}, respectively.



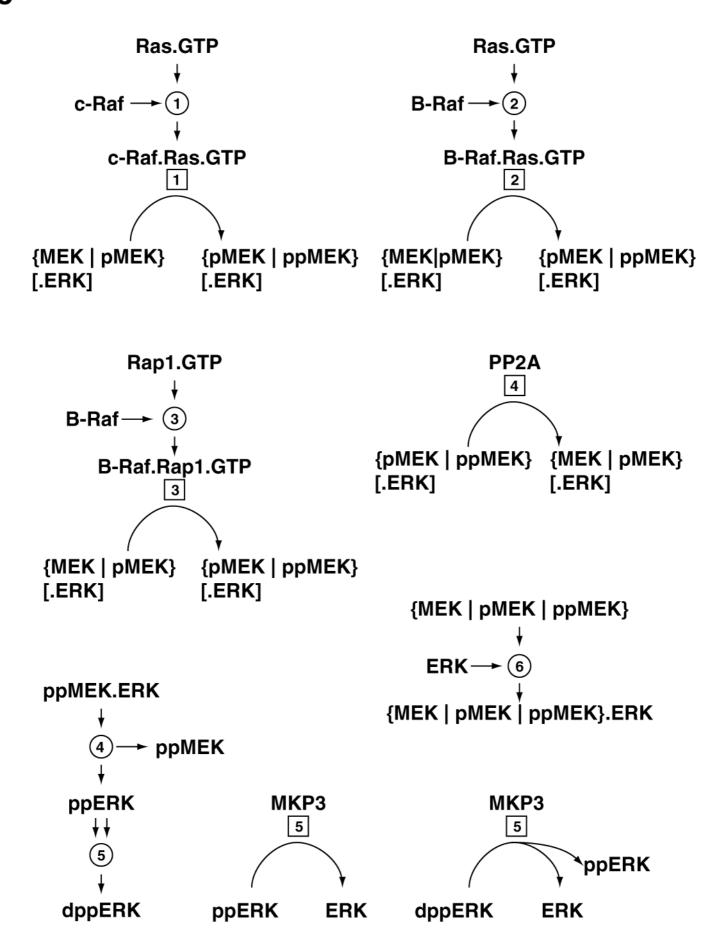
pRTKe and pRTK denote {dpEGFR[.c-Cbl] | pTrkA_endo} and {dpEGFR[.c-Cbl] | pTrkA | pTrkA_endo}, respectively.

[B-Raf.]Rap1.GTP

Rap1.GDP

Kuroda_Fig. S1d

Rap1.GDP



Kuroda_Fig. S1e

Notation of Figure S1

Circles with arrows denote molecule-molecule interactions. Boxes with round arrows denote enzymatic reactions. Rate constants (Numbered circles or boxes) and concentrations of molecules are shown in Supplementary Information, Table S1. Periods between molecules denote non-covalent binding. p and pp denote monophosphorylated and diphosphorylated molecules, respectively. d denotes a dimerised molecule. [] denotes an optional component(s) of the complex which shares the same kinetic parameters. For example, [pShc.[Sos.Grb2.]]pEGFR indicates either pEGFR alone, pShc.pEGFR, or pShc.Sos.Grb2.pEGFR. { | } denotes an exclusive component which shares the same kinetic parameters. For example, {SOS|pSOS} indicates either SOS or pSOS.

Figure S1a Tyrosine phosphorylation of EGFR and recruitment of adaptor proteins to EGFR. Binding of EGF to EGFR triggers the dimerisation of the receptors, resulting in autophosphorylation of the receptors¹. Phosphorylated EGFR binds adaptor proteins including Shc², c-Cbl^{3,4} and FRS2⁵, and phosphorylates these adaptor proteins and Dok⁶. EGFR complexed with c-Cbl is ubiquitinated and degraded by proteasome⁷⁻⁹. *S* and *F* denote {Shc | [Grb2.Sos.]pShc} and {FRS2 | [Crk.C3G.]pFRS2}, respectively.

Figure S1b Tyrosine phosphorylation of TrkA and recruitment of adaptor proteins to TrkA. Binding of NGF to NGFR, consisting of TrkA and p75, triggers autophosphorylation of TrkA¹⁰. Phosphorylated TrkA binds adaptor proteins including Shc^{11,12} and FRS2¹³⁻¹⁵, and phosphorylates the adaptor proteins and Dok. Because the binding of Shc and FRS2 to TrkA compete^{14,15}, Shc and FRS2 exclusively bind TrkA in this model. Activated TrkA complexed with adaptor proteins is internalised to endosome where Rap1 is activated¹⁶. Internalisation of TrkA in this model is

represented as a single exponetial decay, however, this implicitly represents the PI-3 kinase dependent internalisation of the $TrkA^{17}$. S and F denote {Shc | [Grb2.Sos.]pShc} and {FRS2 | [Crk.C3G.]pFRS2}, respectively.

Figure S1c Activation of Ras. Grb2 and SOS complex ¹⁸⁻²³ is recruited to phosphorylated Shc bound to EGFR² or TrkA^{11,12} and catalyse GDP/GTP exchange reaction of Ras¹⁸⁻²³. Activated ERK phosphorylates SOS^{24,25} and phosphorylated SOS dissociates from the complex with Shc^{26,27}. Sprouty^{28,29} and Spred³⁰ have recently been shown to be involved in negative feedback inhibition of Ras. In this model, ERK-dependent negative feedback inhibition of SOS implicitly represents Sprouty-dependent negative feedback inhibition because these pathways can be computationally regarded as similar pathways. RasGAP recruited to phosphorylated Dok⁶ facilitates intrinsic GTPase reaction of Ras³¹. Ras.GTP is also inactivated by intrinsic GTPase activity³¹. *pRTKm* and *pRTK* denote {dpEGFR[.c-Cbl] | pTrkA} and {dpEGFR[.c-Cbl] | pTrkA | pTrkA _endo}, respectively.

Figure S1d Activation of Rap1. Crk and C3G complex³² is recruited to phosphorylated FRS2 bound to the receptors^{14,33}, and catalyse GDP/GTP exchange reaction of Rap1³⁴. Rap1GAP facilitates intrinsic GTPase activity of Rap1³⁵. Rap1.GTP is also inactivated by its intrinsic GTPase activity³¹. Recruitment of Crk and C3G complex to TrkA may involve other adaptor proteins including SHP^{16,36}, Gab2¹⁶ and p130CAS^{16,37}. In this model, FRS2-dependent recruitment of Crk and C3G complex to TrkA implicitly represents these similar pathways. *pRTKe* and *pRTK* denote {dpEGFR[.c-Cbl] | pTrkA_endo} and {dpEGFR[.c-Cbl] | pTrkA | pTrkA_endo}, respectively.

Figure S1e Activation of Raf, MEK and ERK. GTP-bound forms of Ras and Rap1 interact with c-Raf³⁸⁻⁴³ and B-Raf⁴⁴⁻⁴⁶, and B-Raf^{47,48}, respectively, and activated c-Raf and B-Raf phosphorylate MEK. Phosphorylation of MEK at S218 and S222 (rat MEK1) results in activation of MEK⁴⁹⁻⁵¹. Phosphorylated MEK is dephosphorylated by PP2A⁵²⁻⁵⁵. Unphosphorylated ERK forms complex with MEK^{56,57}. Activated MEK phosphorylates ERK at T183 and Y185 (rat ERK2) and this dual phosphorylation leads to activation^{58,59} release from the complex with MEK⁶⁰, and dimerisation⁶¹ of ERK. Phosphorylated ERK is dephosphorylated by MKP3^{62,63}.

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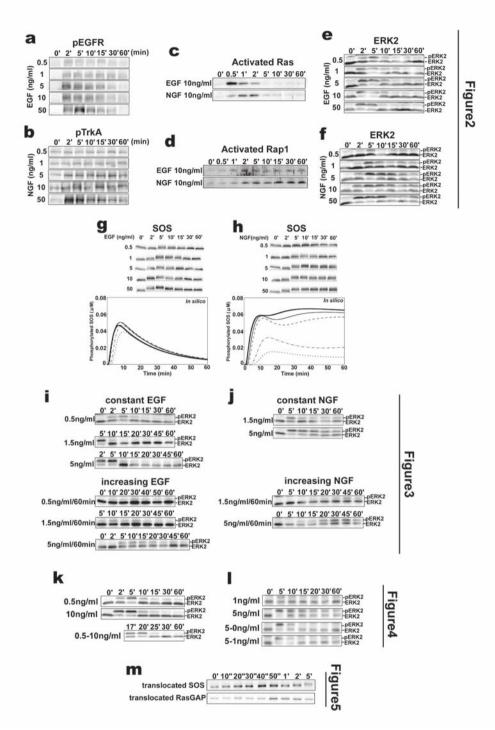


Figure S2 Images of the original gels in Fig. 1, Fig. 2, Fig. 3 and Fig. 4. (a) phosphorylated EGFR at Y1068 (pEGFR) (Fig. 2a), (b) phosphorylated TrkA at Y490 (pTrkA) (Fig. 2b), (c) activated Ras (Fig. 2c), (d) activated Rap1 (Fig. 2d), (e) EGF-induced phosphorylated and nonphosphorylated ERK2 (pERK2 and ERK2) (Fig. 2e), (f) NGF-induced phosphorylated and nonphosphorylated ERK2 (Fig. 2f), (g) EGF-induced SOS mobility shift in vivo (upper panel) and in silico (lower panel), (h) NGF-induced SOS mobility shift in vivo (upper panel) and in silico (lower panel), (i) constant

and increasing EGF stimuli-induced ERK2 activation (Fig. 3a), (j) constant and increasing NGF stimuli-induced ERK2 activation (Fig. 3b), (k) a stepwise increase of EGF stimuli-induced ERK2 activation (Fig. 4a), (l) a stepwise decrease of NGF stimuli-induced ERK2 activation (Fig. 4b), and (m) constant EGF stimuli-induced SOS and Ras GAP recruitment to the membrane fractions (Fig. 5c). Since the temporal patterns of phosphorylated ERK1 and ERK2 were always similar (data not shown), phosphorylated ERK2 per total ERK2 were plotted for all figures.

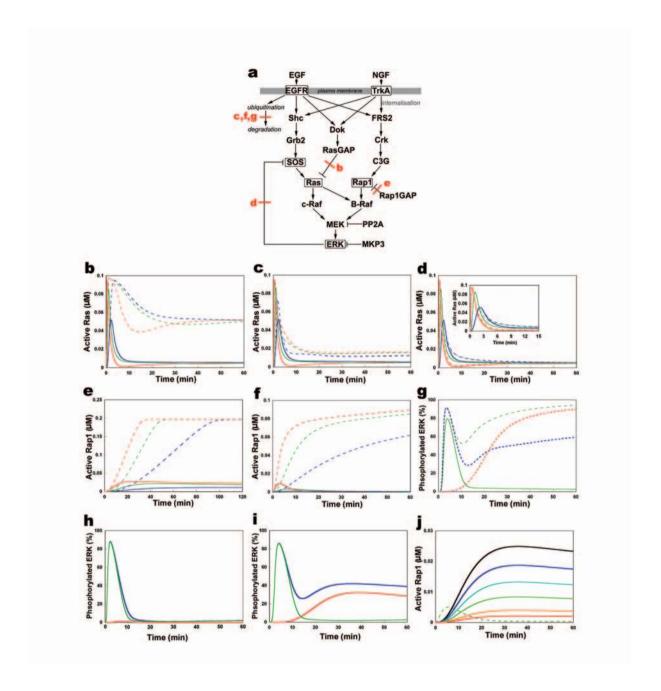


Figure S3 In silico roles of molecules in Ras, Rap1 and ERK activation. Roles of the indicated molecules in Ras and Rap1 activation in silico (ag). (a) The pathway indicated by a red bar was blocked and Ras and Rap1 activations were plotted as follows. Constant EGF stimuli were given in the presence or absence of either RasGAP (b), EGFR internalisation (c, f) and ERK-dependent feedback inhibition of SOS (d), and Ras activation (b-d) and Rap1 activation (f) were plotted. Solid line, normal conditions; dashed line, in the absence of the indicated pathway. The inset in d is the transient Ras activation within 15 min after stimulation. (e) Constant NGF stimuli were given in the presence or absence of Rap1GAP, and Rap1 activation was plotted. Red, green and blue lines indicate the ERK phosphorylation with constant 50, 5 or 1 ng/ml of either EGF or NGF stimuli, respectively. (g) Constant EGF stimulus (1 ng/ml) was given in the presence or absence of EGFR internalisation, the Ras or the Rap1 activation, and the ERK activation were plotted. Green solid line; normal conditions; green dashed line, in the absence of EGFR internalisation; red dotted line, in the absence of EGFR internalisation and Ras activation; blue dotted line, in the absence of EGFR

internalisation and Rap1 activation. The roles of Ras and Rap1 in EGF- and NGF-dependent ERK activation in silico (h-j). Concentration of the activated Ras or Rap1 was fixed at the basal level, and then simulations were run with (h) EGF (10 ng/ml) and (i) NGF (10 ng/ml), and phosphorylation of ERK was plotted. Blue line, normal conditions; green line, without Rap1 activation; red line, without Ras activation. (j) Rap1 activation depends on the affinity of FRS2 for the phosphorylated receptors. The dissociation constant of FRS2 for phosphorylated TrkA was set at 20, 50, 100, 200, 500 or 1000 nM. Then, the constant NGF stimulus (10 ng/ml) was given and the activation of Rap1 was plotted. The black, blue, cyan, green, orange and red lines indicate the Rap1 activation with 20, 50, 100, 200, 500 or 1000 nM of the dissociation constant of FRS2 for phosphorylated TrkA, respectively. Green dashed line indicates the Rap1 activation in response to EGF (10 ng/ml) in silico where the affinity of FRS2 for phosphorylated EGFR was 200 nM (Fig. 2d). Note that 20 and 200 nM were the original dissociation constants of FRS2 for phosphorylated TrkA and EGFR in silico, respectively (Table S1).

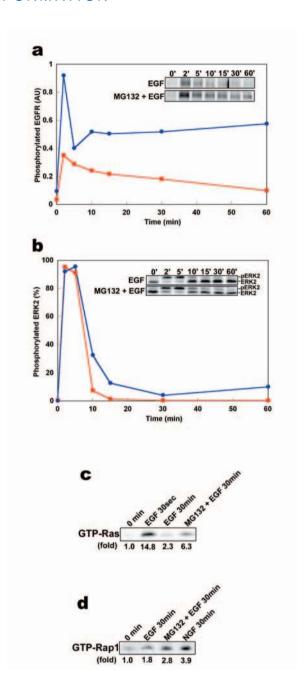


Figure S4 Sustained Ras, Rap1 and ERK activation in response to the sustained phosphorylated EGFR. (a, b) Fifty μM of MG-132, a proteasome inhibitor, was added for 1h, then PC12 cells were stimulated with EGF (10ng/ml). After stimulation, phosphorylated EGFR (a) and phosphorylated ERK2 (b) were measured. Blue and red lines indicate the responses in the

presence or absence of MG-132, respectively. MG-132 alone did not affect the amounts of total and phosphorylated EGFR during incubation for 120 min (data not shown). Sustained Ras (c) and Rap1 (d) activation in the presence of MG-132 at 30 min after stimulation under the same conditions in (a).

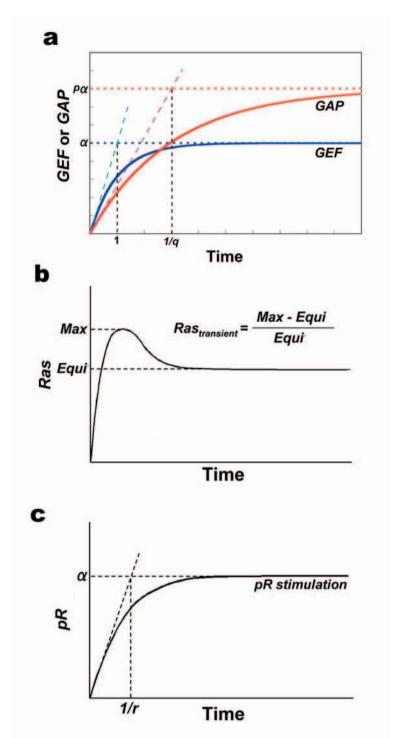


Figure S5 Transient Ras activation in the simple Ras model. (a) Schematic representation of the GEF activation and GAP activation in response to the constant pR stimulation. Here, 1/q can be regarded as the relative time constant of GAP activation compared to GEF activation. The dimensionless concentrations of GEF and GAP at steady state are given by α and $p\alpha$, respectively. Red and blue lines indicate GAP and GEF, respectively. (b) The definition of the characteristics of the transient Ras activation. The

relative amplitude of the transient Ras activation compared to that at steady state was defined by Rastransinet, which is given by Rastransinet=(Max-Equi)/Equi (Appendix). Here, the transient Ras activation was defined by Rastransinet >0. (c) Increasing pR stimulation used in Fig. 6b and c. The pR stimulation was given by pR= $\alpha\{1-\exp(-\text{rk}2t)\}$ (Appendix). Note that r corresponds to the increasing rate of pR. Time in a-c denotes t/k2.

Table S1a

| Molecule-molecule | Reaction number | kf (/s/μM) | kb (/s) | Notes |
|-------------------|-----------------|------------|-----------|--|
| interaction | 1 | 1.0e-4 * | 1.0e-4 | Constrained by in vivo dynamics of EGFR (Fig. 2a) |
| | 2 | 2.2833 | 0.0029666 | 1,2 |
| | 3 | 10 | 0.02 | 3,4 |
| | 4 | 4 | 0.001 | 3,5,6 |
| | 5 | 0.5 | 0.2 | On the basis of , further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of EGFR (Fig. 2a) |
| | 6 | 0.05 * | | On the basis of , further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of EGFR (Fig. 2a) |
| | 7 | 0.001 * | | Constrained by in vivo dynamics of EGFR (Fig. 2a) |
| | 8 | 10 | 0.2 | 3,4 |
| | 9 | 1 * | | On the basis of 8, further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Ras (Fig. 2c) |
| | 10 | 1 | 0.2 | On the basis of ⁹ , further constrained by EGF-dependent Rap1 activation (Fig. 2d |
| | 11 | 1 * | | On the basis of ⁹ , further constrained by EGF-dependent Rap1 activation (Fig. 2d |
| | * denotes /s. | | | |

| Enzymatic reaction | Reaction number | Km (µM) | Vmax (/s) | Notes |
|---------------------------|-----------------|---------|-----------|-------|
| | 1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | 10 |

| Initial concentration | Molecule | CoInit (µM) | | Notes |
|-----------------------|----------|-------------|----------|---|
| | EGFR | 0.3 | | 3 |
| | pro_EGFR | 0.3 | constant | 3,11 |
| | Shc | 1 | | 3 |
| | c-Cbl | 0.5 | | On the basis of ¹² , futher constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of EGFR (Fig. 2a) |
| | FRS2 | 1 | | 13 |
| | Dok | 0.3 | | Constrained by in vivo dynamics of Ras (Fig. 2c) |

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Table S1b

| Molecule-molecule | Reaction number | kf (/s/μM) | kb (/s) | Notes |
|-------------------|-----------------|------------|-----------|--|
| interaction | 1 | 8.333e-4 * | 2.7778e-4 | 1 |
| | 2 | 6.2 | 6.4e-5 | On the basis of ² , further constrained by in vivo dynamics of TrkA (Fig. 2b) |
| | 3 | 1 * | | Constrained by in vivo dynamics of TrkA (Fig. 2b) |
| | 4 | 6.3e-4 * | | On the basis of further constrained by in vivo dynamics of TrkA (Fig. 2b) |
| | 5 | 4.2e-4 * | | On the basis of I, further constrained by in vivo dynamics of TrkA (Fig. 2b) |
| | 6 | 10 | 0.2 | On the basis of ³ , further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Ras (Fig. 2c) |
| | 7 | 5 | 0.1 | On the basis of ³ , further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Ras (Fig. 2c) |
| | 8 | 0.1 * | | On the basis of ⁴ , further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Ras (Fig. 2c) |
| | 9 | 2 * | | On the basis of ⁵ , further constrained by in vivo dynamics of Rap1 (Fig. 2d) |
| | 10 | 0.0022 * | | Constrained by in vivo dynamics of TrkA (Fig. 2b) |
| | * denotes /s. | | | |

| Enzymatic reaction | Reaction number | Km (µM) | Vmax (/s) | Notes |
|---------------------------|-----------------|---------|-----------|---|
| | 1 | 0.1 | 0.02 | On the basis of ⁶ , further onstrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Ras (Fig. 2c) |

| Initial concentration | Molecule | CoInit (µM) | | Notes |
|------------------------------|----------|-------------|----------|-------|
| | TrkA | 0.061894 | | 7 |
| | pro_TrkA | 0.020631 | constant | 1 |

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Table S1c

| Molecule-molecule | Reaction number | kf (/s/μM) | kb (/s) | Notes |
|-------------------|-----------------|------------|---------|--|
| interaction | 1 | 0.03 | 0.0168 | 1 |
| | 2 | 10 | 0.2 | 1,2 |
| | 3 | 0.005 * | | 2 |
| | 4 | 0.002 * | | Constrained by in vivo dynamics of SOS (Fig. S2g, h) |
| | 5 | 0.12 | 0.01 | 3 |
| | 6 | 0.002 * | 1.0e-5 | Constrained by in vivo dynamics of Ras (Fig. 2c) |
| | 7 | 1.667e-4 * | | 4 |
| | * denotes /s. | | | |

| Enzymatic reaction | Reaction number | Km (µM) | Vmax (/s) | Notes |
|--------------------|-----------------|---------|-----------|-------|
| | 1 | 0.02 | 2 | 5 |
| | 2 | 25.641 | 1 | 6 |
| | 3 | 1 | 10 | 7 |

| Initial concentration | Molecule | CoInit (µM) | Notes |
|------------------------------|----------|-------------|-------|
| | SOS | 0.1 | 6 |
| | Grb2 | 1 | 6 |
| | RasGAP | 0.1 | 8 |
| | Ras | 0.1 | 6 |

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Table S1d

| Molecule-molecule | Reaction number | kf (/s/μM) | kb (/s) | Notes |
|-------------------|-----------------|------------|---------|--|
| interaction | 1 | 1 | 0.002 | 1 |
| | 2 | 1 | 0.2 | 2 |
| | 3 | 0.005 * | | Constrained by in vivo dynamics of Rap1 activation (Fig. 2d) |
| | 4 | 1.166e-4 * | | 3 |
| | * denotes /s. | | | |

| Enzymatic reaction | Reaction number | Km (µM) | Vmax (/s) | Notes |
|---------------------------|-----------------|---------|-----------|--|
| | 1 | 0.01 | 0.024 | On the basis of 4, further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Rap1 activation (Fig. 2d) |
| | 2 | 1 | 2 | 5 |

| Initial concentration | Molecule | CoInit (µM) | Notes |
|------------------------------|----------|-------------|--|
| | C3G | 0.5 | Constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Rap1 activation (Fig. 2d) |
| | Crk | 1 | Constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Rap1 activation (Fig. 2d) |
| | Rap1 | 0.2 | On the basis of 6, further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Rap1 activation (Fig. 2d) |
| | Rap1GAP | 0.012 | On the basis of ⁶ , further constrained by <i>in vivo</i> dynamics of Rap1 activation (Fig. 2d) |

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Table S1e

| Molecule-molecule | Reaction number | kf (/s/μM) | kb (/s) | Notes |
|-------------------|-----------------|------------|---------|-------|
| interaction | 1 | 60 | 0.5 | 1 |
| | 2 | 60 | 0.5 | 1,2 |
| | 3 | 60 | 0.5 | 3 |
| | 4 | 0.15 * | | 1 |
| | 5 | 10 | 0.075 | 4 |
| | 6 | 16.304 | 0.6 | 1 |
| | * denotes /s. | | | |

| Enzymatic reaction | Reaction number | Km (µM) | Vmax (/s) | Notes |
|--------------------|-----------------|---------|-----------|-------|
| | 1 | 0.16 | 0.5 | 1 |
| | 2 | 0.16 | 0.2 | 1 |
| | 3 | 0.16 | 0.3 | 1 |
| | 4 | 15.657 | 3 | 1 |
| | 5 | 0.02 | 0.06 | 5 |

| Initial concentration | Molecule | CoInit (µM) | Notes |
|------------------------------|----------|-------------|-------|
| | c-Raf | 0.5 | 1 |
| | B-Raf | 0.2 | 1 |
| | MEK | 0.68 | 1 |
| | ERK | 0.26 | 1 |
| | PP2A | 0.24 | 1 |
| | MKP3 | 0.018 | 1,6 |

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