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5. There were significant temperature gradients across the sample charge, and the uncertainty of the temperature measurements may be on the order of $\pm 50^\circ\text{C}$, though we tried to examine the sample that was very close (~ 0.1 mm) to the hot junction of the thermocouple.
6. The hybrid anvil system [T. Irifune, W. Utsumi, T. Yagi, *Proc. Jpn. Acad.* **68**, 161 (1992)] uses four tungsten carbide (WC) and four advanced diamond composite (ADC) anvils for the double-stage anvil (MAB) system. The assembled anvil cube was pressurized in cubic presses (MAX80 and MAX90) at KEK [O. Shimomura, W. Utsumi, T. Taniguchi, T. Kikegawa, T. Nagashima, in *High-Pressure Research: Application to Earth and Planetary Sciences*, Y. Syono and M. H. Manghnani, Eds. (Terra Scientific (TERRAPUB)/American Geophysical Union (AGU), Tokyo/Washington, DC, 1992), pp. 3–11]. A white x-ray beam from the synchrotron radiation was introduced from the anvil gap through vertical (300 μm) and horizontal (50 μm) slits and irradiated onto the sample near the hot junction of the thermocouple. The diffracted x-ray beam was collected through vertical (500 μm) and horizontal (50 μm) slits at the fixed positions of $2\theta = 4^\circ$ and 6° . An energy dispersive method was adopted with a solid-state detector and a multichannel analyzer. One of the ADC anvils was used for the window to direct the diffracted x-ray beam, because this material is highly transparent to the x-ray of a wide range of photon energies.
7. While the temperature was increased to about 500°C , the pressure dropped significantly (Fig. 1), probably because the pyrophyllite gaskets yielded as a result of stress relaxation within the sample. At still higher temperatures, however, the pressure increased again and approached the initial value.
8. The x-ray diffraction peaks of the quenched sample, after subtracting a few peaks that correspond to superhydrous B, were consistent with those of phase D [L. Liu, *Phys. Earth Planet. Inter.* **49**, 142 (1987)]. The phases in the products from our runs, however, contained about 15 weight % H_2O as estimated from the deficit of the oxide total of the electron microprobe analysis and had a Si/Mg ratio of ~ 1.5 , which is quite different from that proposed for phase D. This composition is rather close to that of phase F synthesized at pressures above 15 GPa [M. Kanzaki, *ibid.* **66**, 307 (1991)], but our x-ray diffraction pattern is completely different from those reported for phase F [Y. Kudoh, T. Nagase, S. Sasaki, M. Tanaka, M. Kanzaki, *Phys. Chem. Mineral.* **22**, 295 (1995)].
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12 February 1996; accepted 18 April 1996

Blockage by Adenovirus E4orf6 of Transcriptional Activation by the p53 Tumor Suppressor

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The adenovirus E4orf6 protein is shown here to interact with the cellular tumor suppressor protein p53 and to block p53-mediated transcriptional activation. The adenovirus protein inhibited the ability of p53 to bind to human TAF_{II}31, a component of transcription factor IID (TFIID). Earlier work demonstrated that the interaction of p53 with TAF_{II}31 involves a sequence near the NH₂-terminus of p53, whereas the E4orf6-p53 interaction occurs within amino acids 318 to 360 of p53. Thus, the E4orf6 protein interacts at a site on p53 distinct from the domain that binds to TAF_{II}31 but nevertheless inhibits the p53-TAF_{II}31 interaction.

The transcriptional regulatory protein p53 (1) activates the expression of proteins that control cellular growth (2). Inhibition of its ability to activate transcription correlates with oncogenesis (3). Three functional do-

main of p53 have been defined (4): an NH₂-terminal transcriptional activation domain (amino acids 1 to 42), a central DNA binding domain (amino acids 120 to 290), and a COOH-terminal regulatory domain (amino acids 311 to 393). The DNA binding domain recognizes a DNA motif in genes that are activated by p53 (5). Mutations in p53 that arise in human cancers generally cluster in its DNA binding domain (6). The NH₂-terminal activation domain stimulates transcription by interacting

with TAF_{II}31, a constituent of TFIID, in the transcriptional initiation complex (7). The MDM-2 oncoprotein (8) and the adenovirus E1B 55-kD oncoprotein (9) each bind to this domain of p53, blocking its activation function. The COOH-terminal domain of p53 contains an oligomerization domain as well as sequences that modulate DNA binding by p53. An antibody that binds within this domain stimulates sequence-specific DNA binding by p53 (10), as does phosphorylation within this domain (10–13). The COOH-terminal domain of p53 also can bind to single-stranded nucleic acids (4, 14, 15), and short single strands of DNA markedly stimulate sequence-specific DNA binding by the central domain of p53 (15). In this report, we demonstrate that the adenovirus E4orf6 protein binds to the COOH-terminal regulatory domain of p53. However, rather than modulate DNA binding, the viral protein inhibits the interaction of the NH₂-terminal activation domain with the transcriptional initiation complex.

The adenovirus E1B 55-kD protein can bind to both p53 (9) and the adenovirus E4orf6 protein (16), which raises the possibility that the three proteins might form a complex within adenovirus-infected cells. Therefore, we examined whether the E4orf6 protein can influence transcriptional activation by p53 (17). Initially, we assayed the effect of E4orf6 on the activity of a reporter gene containing two copies of the p53 binding site from the muscle creatine kinase gene in p53-deficient SAOS-2 cells (Fig. 1A). Cotransfection of a plasmid expressing p53 with the reporter enhanced expression by a factor of about 6, whereas inclusion of a third plasmid expressing the E4orf6 protein blocked the ability of p53 to enhance expression from the reporter. In control experiments (Fig. 1A), an E1B 55-kD protein expression plasmid blocked p53-mediated induction of the reporter as predicted (9); the expression cassette without an inserted E4orf6 complementary DNA (pDCR) had no effect on activation by p53, which rules out the possibility that the inhibition observed was the result of promoter competition.

The E4orf6 protein also blocked the induction of a reporter gene containing Gal4 DNA binding sites by a Gal4-p53 fusion protein within HeLa cells (Fig. 1B). The E4orf6 protein inhibited activation by Gal4-p53 in a dose-dependent fashion as efficiently as the E1B 55-kD protein did. The expression cassette without the E4orf6 insert (pDCR) did not influence expression from the reporter (Fig. 1B); expression of the Gal4 DNA binding domain with no fusion partner (pSG424) did not influence activity of the reporter (Fig. 1C). Although expression of

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protein (Fig. 4). When increasing amounts of E4orf6 protein were mixed with the p53 before the addition of the fusion protein, the p53-TAF_{II}31 interaction was progressively inhibited (Fig. 4). A fivefold molar excess of E4orf6 protein relative to p53 reduced the amount of p53 captured by the GST-TAF_{II}31 protein by a factor of about 6. No E4orf6 protein was captured together with the p53 (Fig. 4), which indicates that the p53-E4orf6 and p53-TAF_{II}31 interactions are mutually exclusive.

Our results demonstrate that the adeno-

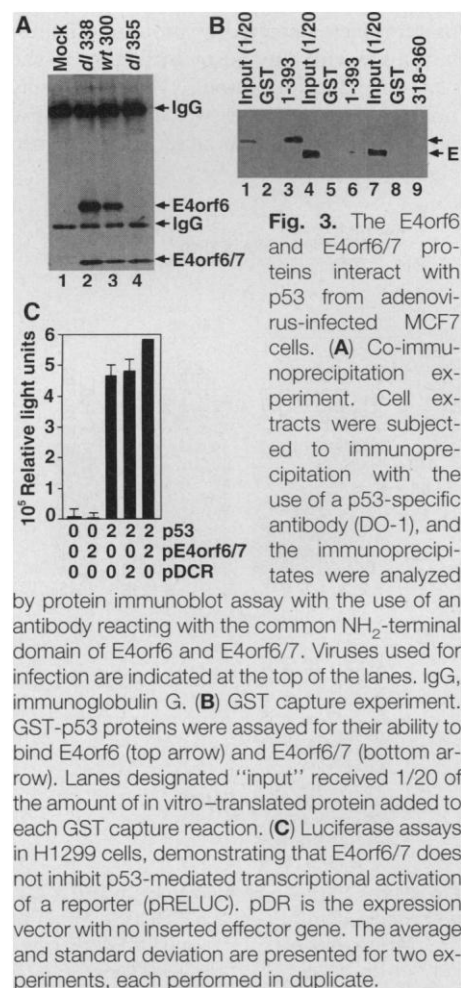
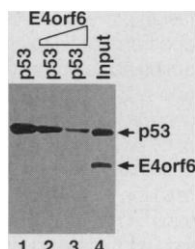


Fig. 4. The E4orf6 protein blocks the interaction of p53 with TAF_{II}31. We incubated p53 alone (lane 1) or a 1:1 mixture (lane 2) or a 1:5 mixture (lane 3) of p53 and E4orf6 with GST-TAF_{II}31. Complexes were captured on glutathione-Sepharose beads, and proteins were detected by protein immunoblot with the use of a mixture of antibodies to p53 (mAb 421) and E4orf6 (RSA3). Lane 4, input, received a 1:5 p53-E4orf6 mixture (1/20 the amount added to capture reactions).



virus E4orf6 protein can interact with p53 both in vitro and within virus-infected cells (Figs. 2 and 4) and block its ability to activate expression of p53-responsive promoters (Fig. 1). The p53-E4orf6 interaction occurs within amino acids 318 to 360 of p53 (Fig. 2). This region is also responsible for p53 tetramerization (25), and it lies within the COOH-terminal region that regulates DNA binding by the tumor suppressor protein (10–15). However, E4orf6 protein does not influence the ability of p53 to oligomerize or to bind to DNA (23). Rather, it interferes with the interaction of p53 and TAF_{II}31 (Fig. 4), an interaction that presumably allows DNA-bound p53 to communicate with the initiation complex and to stimulate transcription (7). Inhibition of the p53-TAF_{II}31 interaction is consistent with the ability of E4orf6 protein to block transcriptional activation by a Gal4-p53 fusion protein (Fig. 1) where DNA binding is mediated by Gal4 sequences.

The E4orf6 protein is the first example of a protein that binds within the COOH-terminal region of p53 and regulates the contact of the NH₂-terminal domain of p53 with TAF_{II}31. The mechanism by which E4orf6 binding abrogates the p53-TAF_{II}31 interaction remains unclear. Possibly, the NH₂ and COOH-terminal regions of p53 are positioned near each other in the three-dimensional structure of p53. If this is true, then E4orf6 binding within the COOH-terminal region might sterically hinder the TAF_{II}31 interaction at the NH₂-terminal domain of p53. Alternatively, the E4orf6 interaction near the COOH-terminus might induce an allosteric transition in p53, altering the function of its NH₂-terminal activation domain. There is precedent for allosteric regulation in p53 (10, 11, 26). Interactions and modifications within the COOH-terminal regulatory domain can modulate DNA binding by p53.

Because the adenovirus E1B 55-kD and E4orf6 proteins bind to different domains on p53, they might bind to p53 simultaneously and cooperate to antagonize p53 function. p53 might also contribute to the function of the E1B 55-kD-E4orf6 complex (16) that regulates mRNA transport in virus-infected cells (27). Most adenovirus vectors being considered for human gene therapy applications contain the E4orf6 coding region. It would be prudent to remove this gene from vectors, given the protein's ability to antagonize a function of p53 that correlates with its tumor suppressor activity.

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5 January 1996; accepted 20 March 1996

Evidence That Spt6p Controls Chromatin Structure by a Direct Interaction with Histones

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Genetic analysis has implicated *SPT6*, an essential gene of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*, in the control of chromatin structure. Mutations in *SPT6* and particular mutations in histone genes are able to overcome transcriptional defects in strains lacking the Snf/Swi protein complex. Here it is shown that an *spt6* mutation causes changes in chromatin structure in vivo. In addition, both in vivo and in vitro experiments provide evidence that Spt6p interacts directly with histones and primarily with histone H3. Consistent with these findings, Spt6p is capable of nucleosome assembly in vitro.

Chromatin structure plays an important role in the regulation of eukaryotic transcription (1). One subject of intensive study has been the Snf/Swi protein complex (2). Genetic, molecular (3), and biochemical analyses of the Snf/Swi complex from both yeast (4) and humans (5) have provided strong evidence that this complex helps transcription factors to bind to nucleosomal DNA. Genetic studies showed that particular histone mutations, such as a deletion of one of the two *H2A-H2B* gene pairs in the yeast genome (*hta1-htb1*) Δ , suppress *snf/swi* null mutations (6, 7). The suppression of *snf2* and

snf5 mutations by this histone mutation occurs at the level of chromatin structure, as has been shown at *SUC2*, a Snf/Swi-dependent gene (6). In addition to mutations in histones, mutations in the nonhistone genes *SPT4*, *SPT5*, and *SPT6* also suppress *snf/swi* mutations (3). This and other common phenotypes suggest that the Spt4p, Spt5p, and Spt6p proteins are required for control of chromatin structure in yeast (8).

We analyzed the function of Spt6p, a large acidic nuclear protein that is essential for growth in *S. cerevisiae* (9). Mutations in *SPT6* restore the high levels of *SUC2* mRNA that are reduced by *snf/swi* mutations, thereby allowing growth on raffinose (8). The levels of suppression by *spt6* mutations are comparable to those achieved by

the (*hta1-htb1*) Δ mutation (Fig. 1A) (6, 8). However, mutations in *SPT6* have no significant effect on histone mRNA or protein levels (10).

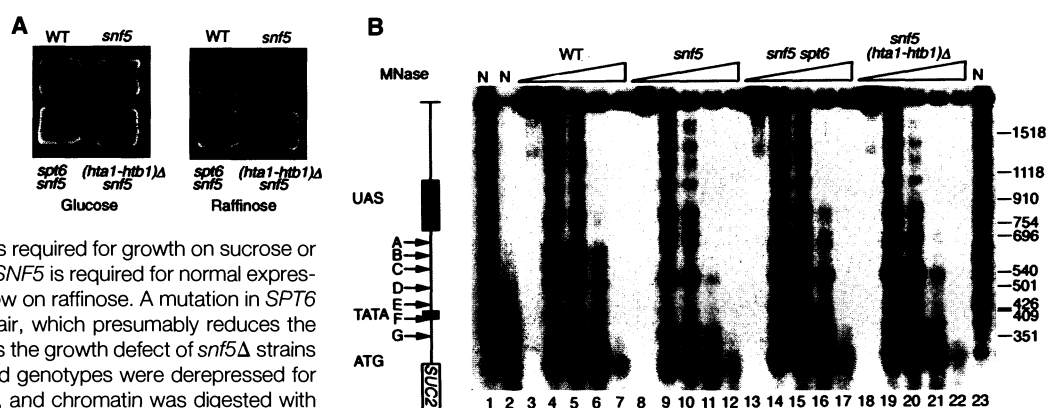
Given the common phenotypes caused by (*hta1-htb1*) Δ and *spt6* mutations, we tested whether an *spt6* mutation also caused similar changes in chromatin structure. We therefore examined *SUC2* chromatin structure in *snf5* single mutants and *snf5 spt6* double mutants by indirect end-labeling of micrococcal nuclease (MNase)-digested chromatin (11). These results (Fig. 1B) demonstrate that in a *snf5* background, an *spt6* mutation causes the same changes in chromatin structure as does the (*hta1-htb1*) Δ histone mutation. In both *snf5 spt6* and *snf5 (hta1-htb1)* Δ double mutants, cleavage by MNase around the TATA box and near the upstream activator sequence (UAS) was increased relative to the cleavage in a *snf5* single mutant (compare sites B, C, E, and F). These alterations in *SUC2* chromatin structure suggest that, in the *snf5* mutant, the presence of the nucleosomes over the promoter (6) is dependent on Spt6p. As shown previously for the suppression of *snf5* by (*hta1-htb1*) Δ , these *SPT6*-dependent changes in chromatin structure at the *SUC2* promoter are independent of the level of transcription because they occur at an enfeebled *SUC2* promoter that contains no TATA element (10). These results suggest that the primary effect of Spt6p in controlling transcription occurs by way of changes in chromatin structure.

Because *spt6* mutations cause changes in chromatin structure, it seemed possible that Spt6p might interact with histones. We reasoned that if the defect in *spt6* mutants is the result of a weakened interaction between Spt6p and histones, then an increased level of histones might restore the interaction. To overexpress histone genes,

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Fig. 1. An *spt6* mutation suppresses an *snf5* defect at the level of chromatin structure. **(A)** Patches of wild-type (WT) (FY120), *snf5* Δ (FY711), *spt6*-140 *snf5* Δ (ABY65), and (*hta1-htb1*) Δ *snf5* Δ (FY713) strains were grown on rich media and then replica-plated onto media containing either glucose or raffinose (14). The *SUC2* gene encodes invertase, which is required for growth on sucrose or raffinose as carbon sources. Because *SNF5* is required for normal expression of *SUC2*, *snf5* Δ mutants fail to grow on raffinose. A mutation in *SPT6* or deletion of the *HTA1-HTB1* gene pair, which presumably reduces the level of histones H2A and H2B, restores the growth defect of *snf5* Δ strains on raffinose. **(B)** Strains of the indicated genotypes were derepressed for *SUC2* expression, nuclei were purified, and chromatin was digested with increasing concentrations of MNase (11). DNA was processed for indirect end-labeling analysis of the *SUC2* promoter. Approximate positions of the *SUC2* promoter elements (UAS, the TATA element, and the translational start site) and MNase cleavage sites (arrows A through G) are indicated at left; positions of the size markers are shown at the right of the figure. DNA



was obtained from FY120 for the naked DNA control (N, lanes 1, 2, and 23) and wild-type chromatin (lanes 3 through 7), from FY711 for *snf5* chromatin (lanes 8 through 12), from ABY65 for *snf5 spt6* chromatin (lanes 13 through 17), and from FY713 for (*hta1-htb1*) Δ *snf5* chromatin (lanes 18 through 22).