## Examination of the Roles of Transcription Factor Sp1-Binding Sites and an Octamer Motif in *trans* Induction of the Herpes Simplex Virus Thymidine Kinase Gene

JÜRG BÖNI† AND DONALD M. COEN\*

Department of Biological Chemistry and Molecular Pharmacology, Harvard Medical School, Boston, Massachusetts 02115

## Received 4 January 1989/Accepted 17 May 1989

Herpes simplex virus mutants with both Sp1-binding sites in the thymidine kinase (tk) promoter inactivated or an octamer motif deleted were at most modestly impaired for tk expression. Thus, no cellular transcription factor that binds upstream of the tk TATA box is solely required for *trans* induction of this gene.

The promoter of the thymidine kinase (tk) gene of herpes simplex virus (HSV) consists of a TATA box and distal signals that include two G+C-rich sequences that bind transcription factor Sp1 and a CCAAT motif that is able to bind several different factors (reviewed in references 18 and 26). Additionally, Parslow et al. (27) have identified an octamer motif, ATTGCAT, that was required for full tkpromoter function in transfected rodent cells. This motif also binds cellular transcription factors (18). The locations of these promoter domains are shown in Fig. 1.

During HSV infection, prior expression of viral immediate-early genes is stringently required for tk expression (8, 11, 20, 28, 29) and for expression of other "delayed-early" genes (15). In this setting, a mutation that interferes specifically with HSV trans induction should decrease tk expression drastically, to an extent comparable to a cycloheximide block of immediate-early protein expression. When linkerscanning (LS) mutations-clustered point mutations that substitute wild-type sequence with restriction enzyme linkers—were introduced into the tk promoter present in the HSV genome (7), the only mutation that decreased tkexpression more than 10-fold was LS -29/-18, which replaces the tk TATA box with a BamHI linker. Mutations in the Sp1 and CCAAT motifs and a mutation just downstream from the tk mRNA start site exerted more modest effects on tk expression. Thus, no new promoter domain that could fully account for trans induction was identified. These results suggested that trans induction of tk expression is mediated via interactions of immediate-early regulatory proteins with cellular transcription factors.

Several observations made attractive the hypothesis that increases in the activity or availability of Sp1 mediate *trans* induction: (i) experiments in which tk promoter sequences were fused to the "true late" gC gene suggested that the tkTATA box is not sufficient to mediate *trans* induction and that tk distal signals are required for early tk expression (14); (ii) sequences corresponding to the Sp1 consensus sequence (2) can be found upstream of many HSV delayed-early genes, whereas CCAAT motifs are missing from several of these (34, 38), suggesting an important role for Sp1; (iii) LS mutations that eliminated the CCAAT motif decreased tk expression only modestly during HSV infection (7), arguing against an essential role for factors binding this site; and (iv) there are two Sp1 consensus sequences in the tk promoter. Thus, if Sp1 activity or availability is increased during HSV infection, a single site might be enough to induce transcription of tk. This hypothesis predicts that inactivation of both Sp1 consensus sequences would reduce tk transcription drastically.

In addition, none of the original set of LS mutations introduced into HSV (7) altered the octamer motif that was reported to be important for tk promoter function in transfected rodent cells (27). We wished to test the role of this and other sequences between positions -116 and -197 upstream of the tk gene.

Construction of mutants. As a first step in constructing virus mutants with both Sp1 sequences inactivated, plasmids carrying a single LS mutation in the more distal Sp1 site in the tk promoter (LS -119/-109 and LS -111/-101) were recombined with similar plasmids containing a single LS mutation in the more proximal Sp1 site (LS -59/-49 and LS -56/-46) linked to a *tk* gene carrying a temperature-dependent drug resistance marker  $(tk^{ts})$  (7), by a modification of the strategy of McKnight (24). Plasmid pdl -197/-116, which lacks the octamer motif, was constructed from plasmids pKG3.6 (16), which contain the  $tk^{ts}$  gene cloned into pXf3 (13), and pLS/ts -119/-109 (7). pLS/ts -119/-109 was digested with BamHI, and the ends were filled in with the Klenow fragment of DNA polymerase I. The DNA was then digested with PvuII, and a 2-kilobase-pair (kbp) PvuII-BamHI blunt-ended fragment was then ligated into PvuIIcleaved pKG3.6. After transformation of Escherichia coli, colonies containing plasmids with the mutations were identified by restriction enzyme analysis.

Each plasmid DNA was used in transfections of Vero cells as described by Chiou et al. (4), with infections HSV DNA from antimutator mutant PAA<sup>r5</sup> (12). Recombinant viruses were then selected for growth in the presence of acyclovir at  $39^{\circ}$ C (7). Viral DNAs were prepared and analyzed for the presence of the more distal LS mutations or the deletion mutation by Southern blotting and hybridization with radiolabeled *tk* probe (7). The presence of both LS mutations in the double LS mutants was confirmed by Southern blotting experiments in which virion DNA was double-digested with *SstI* and *Bam*HI (unpublished results). Mutant viruses were plaque purified a minimum of three times. No wild-type *tk* genes could be detected by Southern blotting.

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup> Present address: National Center for Retroviruses, Institute for Immunology and Virology, University of Zurich, Gloriastrasse 30, 8028 Zurich, Switzerland.



FIG. 1. Locations of LS mutations and promoter elements and transcription factor-binding sites in the tk promoter. The nucleotide sequence of HSV DNA in the region of the tk promoter is shown, with the nucleotide positions relative to the mRNA cap site at +1 listed above the sequence. Below the sequence are shown relevant restriction sites and the locations of the octamer, CCAAT, TATA box, mRNA cap site, and the two Sp1-binding sites, the more distal one in distal signal II (dsII), the more proximal in distal signal I (dsI). Along the dashed lines below the sequence are shown the locations of the mutations in dl - 197/-116 and the individual LS mutations in the Sp1 sites.

To ensure that adventitious mutations affecting tk expression unrelated to the LS mutations or to the deletion mutation had not been introduced into the mutant viruses, two independent viral recombinants derived from each mutant plasmid were isolated and shown to be indistinguishable in terms of tk expression, as measured by drug sensitivity (see below).

Effects of double LS mutations on tk expression: pharmacological analysis in intact infected cells. The antiviral drug ganciclovir (DHPG) requires TK for its antiviral activity (3, 31, 32). With viruses that contain the  $tk^{ts}$  mutation, decreases in DHPG sensitivity at 34°C correlate roughly with decreases in levels of tk mRNA and polypeptides (6, 7). The double LS mutants all exhibited similar sensitivities to DHPG, with doses of DHPG that reduced plaque formation by 50% (ED<sub>50</sub>s) only slightly higher than that of HSV LS -16/-6, which expresses tk mRNA at the wild-type level (7). None was as resistant as HSV LS -29/-18, which contains a mutation in the TATA box of the tk gene (Table 1). These results indicated that none of the four double LS mutations drastically affected TK enzyme expression.

Analysis of tk mRNA levels. We then measured tk expression in terms of tk mRNA levels 4.5 h after infection relative to those of another delayed-early mRNA, that encoding the major DNA-binding protein (ICP8; DBP), which served as an internal control. Vero cells were infected at a multiplicity of 2.5 and incubated at 37°C for 4.5 h. Total cellular (pooled cytoplasmic and nuclear) RNA was extracted after lysis of the cells with Nonidet P-40 in the presence of vanadyl ribonucleoside complexes essentially as described previously (21). To quantitate relative levels of tk and dbp mRNAs, S1 nuclease protection assays were performed as described previously (38) with an 0.8-kbp BamHI-BglII tk probe, 5'-end labeled at the Bg/II site at position +57 in the tk gene (23, 35) combined with an 0.4-kbp BamHI-BstEII dbp probe, end labeled at the BstEII site at position +89 in the *dbp* gene (34). Neither probe generated radiolabeled species after hybridization with mock-infected RNA and S1 digestion or species comigrating with species generated from the other after hybridization with infected-cell RNA and S1 digestion (Fig. 2A). Moreover, the conditions used to detect the tk and dbp mRNAs simultaneously yielded signals similar to those obtained when each probe was used separately, and hybridization signals were linear with the amount of RNA added (not shown). Levels of tk mRNA expressed by the double LS mutants were 5- to 10-fold lower than those

expressed by HSV LS -16/-6. However, they were at least 10-fold higher than those expressed by HSV LS -29/-18, the TATA mutant (Fig. 2B, Table 1).

Analysis of tk transcription rates. The effects of the double LS mutations on tk transcription rates were determined in a nuclear run-off assay (19, 36) with nuclei prepared from Vero cells 4.5 h postinfection at a multiplicity of 2.5 PFU/cell.

 
 TABLE 1. Relative levels of tk expression of HS mutants in different assays<sup>a</sup>

Mutant	Description <sup>b</sup>	Drug sensitivity <sup>c</sup>	S1 assay <sup>d</sup>	Nuclear run-off <sup>d</sup>
LS -16/-6	Wild-type control	1.0	1.0	1.0
LS -111/-101	LS in dsII Sp1	0.8	0.6	0.9
LS -105/-95	LS in dsII Sp1	0.3	0.5	0.2
LS -59/-49	LS in dsI Sp1	0.5	0.8	0.6
LS -56/-46	LS in dsI Sp1	0.4	0.5	0.4
LS -29/-18	LS in TATA box	0.08	<0.01	0.06
LS -111/-101, -59/-49	Double LS in both Sp1 sites	0.4	0.1	0.2
LS -111/-101, -56/-46	Double LS in both Sp1 sites	0.4	0.1	0.2
LS -105/-95, -59/-49	Double LS in both Sp1 sites	0.5	0.2	0.3
LS -105/-95, -56/-46	Double LS in both Sp1 sites	0.7	0.2	0.3
dl -197/-116	Deletion of octamer and other upstream sequences	1.0	0.7	0.8

" Values in boldface indicate reductions in tk expression that were regarded as meaningful.

<sup>b</sup> dsI and dsII, Distal signals I and II, respectively.

 $^{\rm c}$  Determined as dose required to reduce plaque formation by 50% (ED\_{50}) of HSV LS -16/-6 divided by ED\_{50} of mutant.

<sup>d</sup> Shown as tk expression of mutant divided by tk expression of HSV LS -16/-6, both normalized to an appropriate internal control. Preflashed X-ray film was exposed to filters or dried gels at  $-80^{\circ}$ C with two enhancing screens. To ensure a signal in the linear range of the film, several exposures were taken. The films were then scanned on an LKB laser scanner, and the integrals of the peaks were computed with the scanner software. For mRNA levels, the ratio of the tk and dbp signals was calculated. Transcription rates were determined by linear regression analysis from the signals of the four dilutions of each probe. Correlation coefficients were equal to or greater than 0.96. To calculate relative rates, the ratio of the signals for *pol* and tk was determined, each at a theoretical value of 200 ng of probe. The mRNA level and transcription rate values were then standardized, with the values determined for HSV LS -16/-6 taken as 1.0 (7).



FIG. 2. Expression of tk mRNA by LS and deletion mutants. Shown are autoradiographs of polyacrylamide gels of S1 digestion products following hybridization with the RNA from cells infected with the indicated viruses. The locations of signals corresponding to *dbp* and tk mRNAs are indicated to the right. (A) Mock-infected-cell RNA was hybridized with both probes, while RNA from cells infected with HSV LS -16/-6 was hybridized individually with the tk or *dbp* probe, as indicated. (B) Infected-cell RNAs were hybridized with both probes.

These data were normalized to the amount of transcription from the viral DNA polymerase (pol) gene, another delayedearly gene. To verify the absence of nonspecific hybridization of labeled RNA to any G+C-rich DNA sequence, DNA of the chicken tk gene was included as a probe in all hybridization reaction mixes (36). Under the conditions of this assay, a tk TATA box mutation severely decreased tk transcription (Fig. 3), and no transcription was detected from the tk coding strand upstream of the tk mRNA cap site in any of the mutants (data not shown). Thus, tk transcription as measured was specific to the tk promoter. In this assay, nuclei from cells infected with the double LS mutants transcribed the *tk* gene at a rate similar to nuclei from cells infected with single LS mutant HSV LS -105/-95, while mutations in the TATA box reduced tk transcription much more dramatically (Fig. 3, Table 1). Together, the results of all three assay systems indicated that although the double LS mutations reduced tk expression, they did not do so drastically.



FIG. 3. tk transcription by HSV LS and deletion mutants. Nuclear run-off transcription assays were performed with nuclei from cells infected with the indicated mutants. The radiolabeled transcription products were hybridized to four different dilutions of single-stranded DNA from the *pol* gene (top panels) and the tk gene (bottom panels).

**Construction and analysis of an upstream promoter deletion mutant.** Mutant dl -197/-116, which lacks the octamer motif at position -135 and surrounding sequences, was analyzed for its *tk* expression as described for the double LS mutants. Its sensitivity to DHPG was indistinguishable from that of HSV LS -16/-6 (Table 1). *tk* mRNA levels 4.5 h postinfection were at most slightly reduced (Fig. 2, Table 1), and the *tk* transcription rate of dl -197/-116 was also only minimally affected (Fig. 3, Table 1). In summary, the elimination of nucleotides -117 to -197 did not meaningfully impair expression of the viral *tk* gene. These results are consistent with results derived from superinfection studies in mouse cells (9, 10).

Inactivation of the two Sp1 sites does not abolish tk induction. The double LS mutations we constructed should effectively inactivate both Sp1 sites. Each of the single LS mutations alters its Sp1 site so that it no longer fits even the relatively degenerate Sp1 consensus decanucleotide (2). Mutation LS -111/-101 abolishes Sp1 binding in a DNase footprint assay (17), while LS -59/-49 and LS -56/-46 drastically reduce Sp1 binding in band shift assays (N. DeLuca, personal communication). Yet none of the four double LS mutants exhibited drastically reduced tk expression. The greatest decrease observed was at least 10-fold less than that observed in the same assay with the TATA mutant HSV LS -29/-18 and is far less than that observed in cycloheximide reversal experiments (20, 28). These results argue strongly that trans induction does not require factors binding to the Sp1 sites.

LS -111/-101 and LS -59/-49 exerted no more than minimal effects on *tk* expression from HSV (7; this report). This raised the possibility that a factor other than Sp1 recognized its binding sites during HSV infection. If this were true, one would predict that when these two mutations were combined, they would still exert only a minimal effect. Instead, they exerted a substantial effect (Table 1). Thus, the results are consistent with Sp1 playing a role in *tk* expression during HSV infection. It seems likely that Sp1 interacts with its binding sites primarily to increase promoter strength rather than as the principal mediator of *trans* induction.

The octamer motif is not important for tk induction in infected Vero cells. In their study reporting the presence of an octanucleotide motif at -135, Parslow et al. (27) recommended that its influence in various experimental systems be assessed. The deletion mutation in dl - 197/-116 did not exert meaningful effects on tk expression from HSV, which argues that these sequences are not important for tk induction in this setting. The -117 endpoint of this deletion is identical to that of the deletion mutation reported by Parslow et al. (27) to decrease tk promoter function in transfected rodent cells. A search of HSV sequences upstream of -197 (22; J. Jacobson and D. Coen, unpublished results) found no new octanucleotide motif brought close to the tk promoter by the deletion. We conclude that the octamer motif is not important for tk induction during HSV infection of Vero cells in culture. On the other hand, sequences as A+T-rich as the octamer sequence are unlikely to occur by chance in the G+C-rich HSV genome. Perhaps the octamer motif plays another role in HSV gene expression, for example, late in infection or during infections of various tissues of mammalian hosts by HSV.

What sequences mediate tk induction? In the experiments reported here and previously (7), each of the binding sites for cellular transcription factors upstream of the tk TATA box—the two Sp1 sites, the CCAAT motif, and the octamer motif—has been inactivated. In each case, tk expression continued at substantial levels, well above those obtained when *tk trans* induction by immediate-early proteins is prevented. We conclude that no single cellular transcription factor that recognizes sequences upstream of the TATA box is required for *tk trans* induction.

These results leave open the question of which sequences mediate tk induction. One interpretation of our data is that tk-distal signals do mediate tk induction and that either a CCAAT motif or an Sp1 site is sufficient. We cannot exclude this interpretation or more complex versions in which factors recognizing several different sites within, upstream, or downstream of the tk promoter mediate *trans* induction of tkexpression.

We suggest, however, a simpler model-that trans induction of tk expression is mediated via the tk TATA box. An appealing aspect of this model is its similarity to the results of Homa et al. (14) on the expression of the HSV late gene, gC, in which a 15-bp sequence including the gC TATA box was required for expression of the gC gene, dependent upon viral DNA replication. Thus, the induction of both delayedearly genes like tk and late genes like gC would proceed via TATA boxes. Documented differences in the tk and gCTATA boxes (14) would contribute to the differences in regulation of the two genes. By this model, the ability of tk-distal signals linked to the gC TATA box to drive gCexpression early in infection (14) could be due to the increased activity of a weak promoter that ordinarily requires DNA replication and/or additional trans-acting factors to activate it.

Homa et al. (14) failed to detect gC mRNA expressed from a virus in which the gC gene was placed downstream of sequences including the tk TATA box. They suggested that the tk TATA box is not sufficient to mediate *trans* induction. However, this virus construct also lacked sequences encoding the gC mRNA 5' untranslated region that are required for efficient expression of gC (14). Removal of these sequences led to a fivefold decrease in gC expression. This effect plus the effect of removal of tk-distal signals could have reduced gC mRNA expression below the level of detection.

There are now several examples from other systems in which *trans* induction appears to be mediated via the TATA box (1, 30, 33, 37). These studies in other systems suggest experiments to test whether HSV *trans* induction of *tk* is mediated by factors that bind to its TATA box sequences.

We are indebted to S. Weinheimer for cheerful instruction and assistance in performing and analyzing nuclear run-off transcription assays, D. Yager for help with the S1 analyses, E. Zylstra and J. Scales for figure preparation, N. DeLuca for communicating unpublished results, and N. DeLuca and D. Yager for suggestions on the manuscript.

This work was supported by American Cancer Society research grant MV-242 and by Public Health Service grants Al26126 and BRSG 507 RR 05381-27 from the National Institutes of Health.

## LITERATURE CITED

- 1. Abmayr, S. M., J. L. Workman, and R. G. Roeder. 1988. The pseudorabies immediate early protein stimulates in vitro transcription by facilitating TFIID:promoter interactions. Genes Dev. 2:542-553.
- Briggs, M. R., J. T. Kadonaga, S. P. Bell, and R. Tjian. 1986. Purification and biochemical characterization of the promoterspecific transcription factor, Sp1. Science 234:47–52.
- Cheng, Y.-C., E.-S. Huang, J.-C. Lin, E.-C. Mar, J. S. Pagano, G. E. Dutschman, and S. P. Grill. 1983. Unique spectrum of activity of 9-[(1,3-dihydroxy-2-propoxy)methyl]-guanine against herpesviruses in vitro and its mode of action against herpes simplex virus. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 80:2767-2770.

- 4. Chiou, H. C., S. K. Weller, and D. M. Coen. 1985. Mutations in the herpes simplex virus major DNA binding protein gene leading to altered sensitivity to DNA polymerase inhibitors. Virology 145:213-226.
- Coen, D. M., H. E. Fleming, L. K. Leslie, and M. J. Retondo. 1985. Sensitivity of arabinosyladenine-resistant mutants of herpes simplex virus to other antiviral drugs and mapping of drug hypersensitivity mutations to the DNA polymerase locus. J. Virol. 53:477–488.
- Coen, D. M., A. F. Irmiere, J. G. Jacobson, and K. M. Kerns. 1989. Low levels of herpes simplex virus thymidine-thymidylate kinase are not limiting for sensitivity to certain antiviral drugs or for latency in a mouse model. Virology 168:221–231.
- Coen, D. M., S. P. Weinheimer, and S. L. McKnight. 1986. A genetic approach to promoter recognition during trans induction of viral gene expression. Science 234:53–59.
- 8. DeLuca, N. A., A. M. McCarthy, and P. A. Schaffer. 1985. Isolation and characterization of deletion mutants of herpes simplex virus type 1 in the gene encoding immediate-early regulatory protein ICP4. J. Virol. 56:558-570.
- Eisenberg, S. P., D. M. Coen, and S. L. McKnight. 1985. Promoter domains required for expression of plasmid-borne copies of the herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase gene in virus-infected mouse fibroblasts and microinjected frog oocytes. Mol. Cell. Biol. 5:1940–1947.
- El Kareh, A., A. J. M. Murphy, T. Fichter, A. Efstratiadis, and S. Silverstein. 1985. "Transactivation" control signals in the promoter of the herpesvirus thymidine kinase gene. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 82:1002–1006.
- 11. Garfinkle, B., and B. R. McAuslan. 1974. Regulation of herpes simplex virus-induced thymidine kinase. Biochem. Biophys. Res. Commun. 58:822–829.
- Hall, J. D., D. M. Coen, B. L. Fisher, M. Weisslitz, S. Randall, R. E. Almy, P. T. Gelep, and P. A. Schaffer. 1984. Generation of genetic diversity in herpes simplex virus: an antimutator phenotype maps to the DNA polymerase locus. Virology 132:26–37.
- Hanahan, D. 1983. Studies on transformation of *Escherichia coli* with plasmids. J. Mol. Biol. 166:557–580.
- Homa, F. L., J. C. Glorioso, and M. Levine. 1988. A specific 15-bp TATA box promoter element is required for expression of a herpes simplex virus type 1 late gene. Genes Dev. 2:50-53.
- Honess, R. W., and B. Roizman. 1974. Regulation of herpesvirus macromolecular synthesis. I. Cascade regulation of the synthesis of three groups of viral proteins. J. Virol. 14:8–19.
- Irmiere, A. F., M. M. Manos, J. G. Jacobson, J. S. Gibbs, and D. M. Coen. 1989. Effect of an amber mutation in the herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase gene on polypeptide synthesis and stability. Virology 168:210-220.
- Jones, K. A., K. R. Yamamoto, and R. Tjian. 1985. Two distinct transcription factors bind to the HSV thymidine kinase promoter in vitro. Cell 42:559–572.
- Jones, N. C., P. W. J. Rigby, and E. B. Ziff. 1988. trans-Acting protein factors and the regulation of eukaryotic transcription: lessons from studies on DNA tumor viruses. Genes Dev. 2:267-281.
- Konieczny, S. F., and C. P. Emerson. 1985. Differentiation, not determination, regulates muscle gene activity: transfection of a troponin I gene into multipotential and muscle lineages of 10T1/2 cells. Mol. Cell. Biol. 5:2423-2432.
- Leung, W.-C., K. Dimock, J. R. Smiley, and S. Bacchetti. 1980. Herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase transcripts are absent from both nucleus and cytoplasm during infection in the presence of cycloheximide. J. Virol. 36:361–365.
- 21. Maniatis, T., E. F. Fritsch, and J. Sambrook. 1982. Molecular cloning: a laboratory manual. Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, Cold Spring Harbor, N.Y.
- McGeoch, D. J., M. A. Dalrymple, A. J. Davison, A. Dolan, M. C. Frame, D. McNab, L. J. Perry, J. E. Scott, and P. Taylor. 1988. The complete DNA sequence of the long unique region in the genome of herpes simplex virus type 1. J. Gen. Virol. 69:1531-1574.
- 23. McKnight, S. L. 1980. The nucleotide sequence and transcript of the herpes simplex virus thymidine kinase gene. Nucleic Acids

Res. 8:5949-5964.

- 24. McKnight, S. L. 1982. Functional relationships between transcriptional control signals of the thymidine kinase gene of herpes simplex virus. Cell 31:355-365.
- 25. McKnight, S. L., and R. Kingsbury. 1982. Transcriptional control signals of a eukaryotic protein-coding gene. Science 217:316-324.
- McKnight, S. L., and R. Tjian. 1986. Transcriptional selectivity of viral genes in mammalian cells. Cell 46:795–805.
- Parslow, T. G., S. D. Jones, B. Bond, and K. R. Yamamoto. 1987. The immunoglobulin octanucleotide: independent activity and selective interaction with enhancers. Science 235:1498– 1501.
- 28. Post, L. E., S. Mackem, and B. Roizman. 1981. Regulation of  $\alpha$  genes of herpes simplex virus: expression of chimeric genes produced by fusion of thymidine kinase with  $\alpha$  gene promoters. Cell 24:555-565.
- 29. **Preston, C. M.** 1979. Control of herpes simplex virus type 1 mRNA synthesis in cells infected with wild-type virus or the temperature-sensitive mutant *tsK*. J. Virol. **29:**275–284.
- Simon, M. C., T. M. Fisch, B. J. Benecke, J. R. Nevins, and N. Heintz. 1988. Definition of multiple, functionally distinct TATA elements, one of which is a target in the *hsp70* promoter for E1A regulation. Cell 52:723-729.
- 31. Smee, D. F., J. C. Martin, J. P. H. Verheyden, and T. R. Matthews. 1983. Antiherpesvirus activity of the acyclic nucleo-

side 9-(1,3-dihydroxy-2-propoxymethyl)guanine. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 23:676-682.

- 32. Smith, K. O., K. S. Galloway, W. L. Kennell, K. K. Ogilvie, and B. K. Radatus. 1982. A new nucleoside analog, 9-[2-hydroxy-1-(hydroxymethyl)ethoxy]methyl guanine, highly active in vitro against herpes simplex virus types 1 and 2. Antimicrob. Agents Chemother. 22:55-61.
- Struhl, K. 1986. Constitutive and inducible Saccharomyces cerevisiae promoters: evidence for two distinct molecular mechanisms. Mol. Cell. Biol. 6:3847–3853.
- 34. Su, L., and D. M. Knipe. 1987. Mapping of the transcriptional initiation site of the herpes simplex virus type 1 ICP8 gene in infected and transfected cells. J. Virol. 61:615-620.
- Wagner, M. J., J. A. Sharp, and W. C. Summers. 1981. Nucleotide sequence of the thymidine kinase gene of herpes simplex virus. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 78:1441-1445.
- Weinheimer, S. P., and S. L. McKnight. 1987. Transcriptional and post-transcriptional controls establish the cascade of herpes simplex virus protein synthesis. J. Mol. Biol. 195:819–833.
- 37. Wu, L., D. S. E. Rasser, M. C. Schmidt, and A. Berk. 1987. A TATA box implicated in E1A transcriptional activation of a simple adenovirus 2 promoter. Nature (London) 326:512–515.
- 38. Yager, D. R., and D. M. Coen. 1988. Analysis of the transcript of the herpes simplex virus DNA polymerase gene provides evidence that polymerase expression is inefficient at the level of translation. J. Virol. 62:2007-2015.