Cyclin A2 localises in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition to activate PLK1

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Abstract

Cyclin A2 is a key regulator of the cell cycle, implicated both in DNA replication and mitotic entry. Cyclin A2 participates in feedback loops that activate mitotic kinases in G2-phase, but why active Cyclin A2-CDK2 during S phase does not trigger mitotic kinase activation remains unclear. Here we describe a change in localisation of Cyclin A2 from being only nuclear to both nuclear and cytoplasmic at the S/G2 border. We find that Cyclin A2-CDK2 can activate the mitotic kinase PLK1 through phosphorylation of Bora, and that only cytoplasmic Cyclin A2 interacts with Bora and PLK1. Expression of predominately cytoplasmic Cyclin A2 or phospho-mimicking PLK1 T210D can partially rescue a G2 arrest caused by Cyclin A2 depletion. Cytoplasmic presence of Cyclin A2 is restricted by p21, in particular after DNA damage. Cyclin A2 chromatin association during DNA replication and additional mechanisms contribute to Cyclin A2 localisation change in G2 phase. We find no evidence that such mechanisms involve G2 feedback loops and suggest that cytoplasmic appearance of Cyclin A2 at the S/G2 transition functions as a trigger for mitotic kinase activation.

Synopsis

Main mitotic kinases as PLK1 are activated at the S/G2 transition. A change in Cyclin A2 localisation at the S/G2 transition enables activation of PLK1.

Main points

-Cyclin A2 appears in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition

-Association with replicating chromatin and p21 restricts Cyclin A2 to the nucleus

-DNA damage ensures nuclear Cyclin A2 through p21

-Cytoplasmic Cyclin A2 initiates PLK1 activation

Introduction

Correct progression through the cell cycle depends on the tight regulation of Cyclin-CDK complexes over time. Sequential waves of Cyclin dependent kinase (CDK) activity ensure timely phosphorylation of a large number of substrates. CDK activity increases through the cell cycle, allowing separation of high-affinity sites that initiate early events as onset of DNA replication, and low-affinity sites that enable late events as mitosis (Swaffer et al., 2016). On top of this general trend, different Cyclin-CDK complexes can selectively phosphorylate target proteins, both by different affinity to a target and by being present at different cellular locations (Örd and Loog, 2019). For example, although both Cyclin A2 (CycA2) and Cyclin B1 (CycB1) have been implicated in mitotic entry, CycA2 appears mostly nuclear, whereas CycB1 appears mainly in the cytoplasm (Pines and Hunter, 1991).

Due to its presence during S, G2, and early mitosis, CycA2 is at a strategic position to control a large part of the cell cycle (Pagano et al., 1992; Fung et al., 2007). Indeed, CycA2 regulates multiple aspects of S-phase by steering phosphorylation of key components as CDC6 (Petersen et al., 1999), pre-replication complexes (Furuno et al., 1999; Katsuno et al., 2009), and components of the replication machinery (Cardoso et al., 1993; Frouin et al., 2005). Depletion of CycA2 leads to an arrest in G2-phase, which could be suspected due to errors in completing DNA replication (Fung et al., 2007; Gong and Ferrell, 2010; Gong et al., 2007; Oakes et al., 2014; De Boer et al., 2008). However, recent data show that depletion of CycA2 specifically in G2-phase blocks mitotic entry. Interestingly, similar depletion of CycB1 does not block mitotic entry, but rather affects later mitotic progression (Hégarat et al., 2020). This shows that apart from its functions during S-phase, CycA2 is a key player in regulating progression into mitosis.

During G2-phase, CycA2 stimulates transcription and represses degradation of multiple mitotic regulators (Oakes et al., 2014; Hein and Nilsson, 2016; Laoukili et al., 2008; Lukas et al., 1999). As the mitotic regulators accumulate, CycA2 participates in the feedback-loops that culminate in full CDK1 activation and mitotic entry (Mitra and Enders, 2004). A key player in these feedback-loops is Polo-like kinase 1 (PLK1) (Lindqvist et al., 2009). We and others previously showed that PLK1 is activated by Aurora A, in a reaction that requires the cofactor Bora (Macurek et al., 2008; Seki et al., 2008). CDK-mediated phosphorylation of Bora facilitates PLK1 activation, and both CycA2- and CycB1-containing complexes have been suggested to phosphorylate Bora (Gheghiani et al., 2017; Vigneron et al., 2018; Parrilla et al.,

2016; Thomas et al., 2016). Interestingly, Bora appears exclusively cytoplasmic, raising the

possibility that a cytoplasmic Cyclin-CDK activates PLK1 (Feine et al., 2014; Bruinsma et al.,

2015).

Although CycA2 targets are mostly nuclear, CycA2 has been shown to also regulate events in

the cytoplasm, particularly after S-phase. This includes loading of Eg5 to centrosomes in G2-

phase and inhibiting endocytic vesicle fusion to control membrane transport as cells enter

into mitosis (Woodman et al., 1993; Kanakkanthara et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018). CycA2

appears predominantly nuclear but can shuttle between nucleus and cytoplasm, despite not

possessing a classical NLS (Jackman et al., 2002). CycA2 association with different proteins

has been described to affect localisation both to the nucleus and to the cytoplasm (Maridor

et al., 1993; Tsang et al., 2007; Bendris et al., 2011). However, the exact mechanism that

regulates CycA2 localisation remains elusive. In addition, whether CycA2 localisation

changes through the cell cycle and impacts on cell cycle progression remains unclear.

Here we characterise CycA2 localisation through the cell cycle and describe that CycA2

appears in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition. We find that cytoplasmic CycA2 activates

PLK1 through phosphorylation of Bora. We further describe that cytoplasmic localisation of

CycA2 is abolished in response to DNA damage in a manner that depends on p21. The

cytoplasmic appearance of CycA2 depends on multiple mechanisms, including CycA2

association with chromatin during DNA replication. We find no evidence that these

mechanisms involve feedback-loops involved in PLK1 and CDK1 activation, raising the

possibility that cytoplasmic localisation of CycA2 functions as a trigger for mitotic kinase

activation.

Results

Cyclin A2 accumulates in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition

In order to study the dynamics of CycA2 in live cells we targeted *CCNA2* using rAAV-
mediated homologous recombination. We introduced an ORF for EYFP in the *CCNA2* locus of
U2OS (Akopyan et al., 2014) and RPE cell lines to create a CycA2-eYFP fusion protein (Fig 1A
and S1A,B). Western blot analysis confirmed the successful integration of the eYFP ORF in
one of the two alleles of CycA2 as we detected a band that migrated at the predicted size of
endogenous untagged CycA2 and a band that migrated at the predicted size of the CycA2-
eYFP fusion protein (Fig S1A). Importantly, siRNA to target CycA2, addition of S-trityl-L-
cysteine (STLC), or addition of etoposide showed a similar behaviour of both bands as to
CycA2 in parental RPE cells, indicating that eYFP was specifically introduced at the *CCNA2*
locus (Fig S1A). Similar to in U2OS cells, CycA2-eYFP in RPE cells is present in all cells from
early S-phase and its levels increase over time reaching a maximum at mitosis when CycA2 is
rapidly degraded (Fig 1A and S1B) (Akopyan et al., 2014).

To monitor CycA2-eYFP localisation, we followed RPE-CycA2-eYFP and U2OS-CycA2-eYFP
cells by time-lapse microscopy (Fig 1A and S1B). In all cells, CycA2-eYFP was first visible in
the nucleus, but also appeared in the cytoplasm approximately 4h before mitosis (Fig 1B).
We next treated RPE CycA2-eYFP cells with a short pulse of EdU to mark cells in S-phase, and
quantified immunofluorescence stainings. Whereas CycA2-eYFP was present in the nucleus
in all cells once expressed, cells positive for cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP contained 4n DNA
content and low EdU staining (Fig S1C). A similar pattern was found when labelling the
parental RPE cells, using an antibody to detect endogenous CycA2 (Fig S1D). We note that
CycA2-eYFP showed a slightly higher expression in the cytoplasmic fraction compared to
CycA2. However, although the magnitude of cytoplasmic accumulation may differ, the
pattern and timing of cytoplasmic appearance is similar for CycA2 and CycA2-eYFP, showing
that CycA2-eYFP can be used to study CycA2 localisation (Fig 1C, D, and S1C, D).

In order to pinpoint the position in the cell cycle when cells start to accumulate cytoplasmic
CycA2, we estimated a time-course by sorting cells for increasing CycA2 or CycA2-eYFP levels
and DAPI content (Akopyan et al., 2014, 2016). Interestingly, we found that CycA2-eYFP
appeared in the cytoplasm at the time when a decrease in EdU incorporation was apparent
(Fig 1C). A similar pattern was found when assessing CycA2 levels in parental RPE cells (Fig
1C). If CycA2 appears in the cytoplasm after completion of S-phase, we reasoned that

136 blocking progression through S-phase would inhibit cytoplasmic appearance of CycA2. We

137 therefore treated RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells with thymidine or hydroxyurea and quantified the

138 proportion of cells that accumulate CycA2-eYFP in the cytoplasm (Fig 1E). The treatment

139 with either drug resulted in a decreased number of cells accumulating CycA2-eYFP in the

140 cytoplasm, suggesting that cells blocked in S-phase do not gain cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP.

141 Thus, CycA2 appears in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition and gradually increases in the

142 cytoplasm through G2-phase.

144 **CycA2 regulates the S/G2 transition**

145 We next sought to test whether cytoplasmic appearance of CycA2 impacts on cell cycle

146 progression. CycA2 has functions through both S and G2-phases and in accordance with

147 previous reports, we find that knockdown of CycA2 leads to accumulation of 4N cells.

148 To separate events in S-phase and G2, we depleted CycA2 by siRNA and monitored S-phase

149 progression by a PCNA chromobody and PLK1 activation by a FRET-based biosensor

150 (Akopyan et al., 2014). Whereas control cells showed PLK1 activation as PCNA foci sharply

151 decreased at the S/G2 border, CycA2 depleted cells showed no sharp decrease in PCNA foci.

152 Rather, the amount and intensity of PCNA foci gradually decreased, and PLK1 activity

153 remained low (Fig 2A, B). This shows that PLK1 activation is impaired after CycA2 depletion,

154 but also suggests that the S/G2 transition is impaired in the absence of CycA2. To test

155 whether cytoplasmic CycA2 can rescue cell cycle progression after depletion of endogenous

156 CycA2, we constructed siRNA-resistant versions of CycA2 (CycA2-NT) tagged to mCherry,

157 including either 3 NES sequences or 6 NLS sequences (Fig 2C). We used inducible expression

158 of the CycA2 constructs in $p53^{-/-}$ RPE cells to avoid possible nuclear relocation due to p53-

159 p21 activation after CycA2 siRNA (see below). Although both CycA2-mCherry 3xNES and

160 6xNLS are not restricted from nucleo-cytoplasmic shuttling, we find that upon induction,

161 CycA2-mCherry 3xNES appears predominately in the cytoplasm and CycA2-mCherry 6xNLS

162 appears predominately in the nucleus (Fig 2D). We find that both constructs partially

163 rescued a cell cycle delay after CycA2 siRNA, suggesting that the CycA2 siRNA phenotype

164 depends on a reduction of CycA2 levels (Fig 2E). Interestingly, expression of CycA2-mCherry

165 3xNES stimulated mitotic entry earlier than CycA2-mCherry 6xNLS, which would be

166 consistent with a function for cytoplasmic CycA2 in stimulating cell cycle progression.

168 **Cytoplasmic CycA2 triggers PLK1 activation**

CycA2 is recently suggested to promote mitotic entry by activation of PLK1 (Vigneron et al.,

2018; Gheghiani et al., 2017). As depletion of CycA2 resulted in a loss of PLK1 activation, but

also suggested that S-phase completion may be impaired (Fig 2A, B), we sought to

investigate the contribution of Cyclin-CDK complexes after the S/G2 transition. To this end,

we added inhibitors to CDK1 or CDK2 to cells in G2-phase and monitored PLK1 activation.

We find that addition of either CDK1 or CDK2 inhibitor disturbed PLK1 activity as well as the

pT210 modification of PLK1, showing the most prominent effect with a combination of both

inhibitors (Fig 3A, B). This suggests that CDK activity is important for PLK1 activation during

G2-phase. Indeed, Aurora A-mediated phosphorylation of PLK1 was further stimulated by

CycA2-CDK2 activity in the presence of Bora (Fig 3C). Similarly, we find that CycA2-CDK2 was

able to phosphorylate Bora at a Thr-Pro motif and possibly other residues *in vitro* (Fig 3D).

To assess if and where CycA2 forms a complex with PLK1 and Bora, we immunoprecipitated

CycA2 from nuclear or cytoplasmic extracts of G2 cells and probed for interactors.

Interestingly, we found that both Bora and PLK1 co-immunoprecipitated with CycA2

specifically in the cytoplasmic fraction of G2 synchronised cells (Fig 3E). Similarly, an

interaction between Bora and PLK1 was detected exclusively in the cytoplasm (Fig 3F). Thus,

CycA2-CDK2 can activate PLK1 *in vitro* and the interactions required for CycA2-mediated

PLK1 activation are detected in the cytoplasm, but not in the nucleus.

To test the importance of CycA2-mediated PLK1 activation for cell cycle progression, we

monitored mitotic entry in a U2OS cell line with inducible expression of PLK1 containing the

phospho-mimicking substitution T210D. Induction of PLK1 T210D did not affect the rate of

mitotic entry, suggesting that phosphorylation of T210 is not a rate-limiting factor for mitotic

entry. After transfection of siRNA to CycA2, mitotic entry was impaired. Importantly, we

found that induced expression of PLK1 T210D partially rescued mitotic entry after CycA2

siRNA, suggesting that CycA2 stimulates mitotic entry in part by activating PLK1 (Fig 3G).

Thus, although CycA-CDK is active through S-phase, PLK1 activation is detected

simultaneously as CycA2 appears in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition. Depletion of CycA2

prohibits PLK1 activation, but mitotic entry can be partially rescued by expression of largely

cytoplasmic CycA2 or by active PLK1. Inhibition of CDK activity reduces PLK1 activation in G2-

phase and interactions between CycA2, Bora, and PLK1 are detected in the cytoplasm but

not in the nucleus. Taken together, our results indicate that cytoplasmic CycA2 plays a key

role in the initial activation of PLK1 during G2.

Cytoplasmic accumulation of CycA2 is not triggered by mitotic kinases

The observation that CycA2-eYFP only accumulates in the cytoplasm after S-phase completion suggests that cytoplasmic localisation is suppressed during S-phase or stimulated during G2-phase. We previously showed that mitotic-inducing activities of CDK1 and PLK1 start to accumulate at the S/G2 transition (Akopyan et al., 2014). However, we find no evidence that addition of inhibitors to PLK1 or its upstream kinase Aurora A affects cytoplasmic appearance of CycA2 (not shown). Addition of inhibitors to CDK1 or CDK2 led to a slight decrease in cells accumulating cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP, but interpretation of these results is hampered by that CDK inhibition may affect S-phase progression (not shown). To assess the contribution of CDK1/2 activity to the cytoplasmic localisation of CycA2-eYFP specifically in G2-phase, we followed individual cells that had a low but clear presence of CycA2-eYFP in the cytoplasm at the time of addition of inhibitors. To improve comparison, we synchronised these cells *in silico* at the time point when each cell reaches a certain level of cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP (Fig S2A). We did not observe significant differences in the dynamics of cytoplasmic accumulation of CycA2-eYFP in either of the treatments, showing that a reduction of CDK1/2 activity does not compromise cytoplasmic accumulation of CycA2-eYFP once initiated (Fig S2A).

To test if CDK1/2 activity could promote the onset of cytoplasmic accumulation of CycA2-eYFP, we increased CDK activity using a Wee1 inhibitor. Wee1 inhibition increased the amount of mitotic cells and decreased the duration between cytoplasmic appearance of CycA2-eYFP and mitotic entry, suggesting that CDK activity is increased and that G2-phase is therefore shortened. However, we did not detect an increased rate of cytoplasmic appearance of CycA2-eYFP after Wee1 inhibition (Fig S2B). Thus, we find no evidence that CDK1/2 activity regulates CycA2 appearance in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition.

Lack of CDK1 can lead to loss of cytoplasmic CycA2

Given the lack of evidence for key G2 kinase activities to modulate CycA2 localisation, we reasoned that perhaps a change in binding partner could explain CycA2 cytoplasmic localisation. CycA2 is described to complex predominately with CDK2 in S-phase and increasingly with CDK1 as cells approach mitosis (Merrick et al., 2008). Furthermore, while CDK2 is mostly nuclear, CDK1 is present both in the nucleus and in the cytoplasm (Moore et al., 1999; Pines and Hunter, 1991, 1994), therefore potentially providing a mechanism to regulate CycA2 localisation.

To investigate the involvement of CDK-Cyclin complex formation in the localisation of CycA2

we used siRNAs to target either CDK1 or CDK2 (Fig S2C). Live-cell imaging of RPE CycA2-eYFP

cells after CDK1 or CDK2 knockdown revealed reduced numbers of cells going through

mitosis. Further, CDK1 knockdown increased mitotic duration, showing that knockdown of

either CDK affected cell cycle progression (Fig S2D). Analysis of quantitative

immunofluorescence in single cells revealed that knock down of CDK1 led to an increase in

the number of cells in G2, presumably due to a lengthening of G2-phase, and subsequently,

to the amount of cells with cytoplasmic CycA2 (Fig 4A, B). Interestingly, a subset of G2 cells

contained high nuclear CycA2 and low cytoplasmic CycA2 levels, indicating that CDK1 may

facilitate the localisation of CycA2 to the cytoplasm (Fig 4A, arrows; Fig 4B, grey triangle). On

the other hand, CDK2 knockdown led to a marked decrease in number of cells in G2-phase,

explaining the reduced level of CycA2 and CDK1 at a population level (Fig 4A, B and S2C).

However, contrary to the observation after CDK1 depletion, the relation between nuclear

and cytoplasmic CycA2 was similar after CDK2 and control knockdown (Fig 4B). Given that

knockdown of CDK1 decreased cytoplasmic Cyclin A2 levels, we sought to test if Cdk1 binds

to cytoplasmic CycA2 and CDK2 binds to nuclear CycA2. However, we find that both CDK1

and CDK2 are present in both nuclear and cytoplasmic CycA2 and CycA2-eYFP

immunoprecipitates (Fig 4C). Thus, although we cannot exclude the possibility that CycA2

localisation is affected by a stress response associated with depletion of a key cell cycle

regulator (see below), our data shows that depletion of CDK1 can impair the cytoplasmic

localisation of CycA2 in G2-phase. However, as cytoplasmic CycA2 exists in complex with

both CDK1 and CDK2, we conclude that the cytoplasmic appearance of CycA2 cannot be

explained solely by association with CDK1.

CycA2 associates with chromatin during S-phase

We next sought to test if CycA2 is restricted to the nucleus during S-phase. The defining

process of S-phase is replication of DNA, and Cyclin A2 has been reported to associate

directly with the replication protein PCNA (Koundrioukoff et al., 2000; Cardoso et al., 1993;

Frouin et al., 2005). We therefore synchronised RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells by addition of

Hydroxyurea (HU) and assessed the chromatin association of CycA2-eYFP using Chromatin

immunoprecipitation (ChIP) followed by qPCR at 5 chromosomal locations: 2 expressed

promoter regions (A, MYC and B, IRF1), one origin of replication (C, LAMB2 (Abdurashidova

et al., 2000)), the alpha-satellite region (D) and an intragenic region on Chromosome 1 (E).

We compared the chromatin binding pattern of CycA2-eYFP at early replicated regions (i.e.

expressed genes) and regions undergoing late replication (gene desert areas). When cells

approached mid S-phase 4h after HU washout we detected an increase in CycA2-eYFP

chromatin binding at the expressed genomic locations (A, B and C in Fig 5A), while we did

not find a significant increase at the α-satellite and intragenic regions. Interestingly, the

chromatin association of CycA2-eYFP decreased 8h after release from HU, at a time when

many of the cells had completed DNA replication (Fig 5A). This suggests that CycA2-eYFP

association with chromatin is increased during ongoing DNA replication. We therefore

sought to test whether CycA2-eYFP chromatin association restricted CycA2-eYFP mobility in

the nucleus. To this end, we used fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP), and

compared the nuclear recovery of RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells expressing CycA2-eYFP only in the

nucleus (S-phase) or in both nucleus and cytoplasm (G2-phase). To avoid overstating the

immobile fraction due to bleaching and focus changes, we normalised the bleached region

to an unbleached area in the same nucleus. Although the recovery of fluorescence was

somewhat slower in S-phase versus in G2-phase, we found no major difference between the

recovery curves, suggesting that the mobility of CycA2-eYFP is not dramatically altered

between S and G2-phases. Moreover, in contrast to PCNA that shows a large immobile

fraction in replication foci (Trembecka-Lucas et al., 2013), the immobile component of

CycA2-eYFP is limited during both S- and G2-phases (Fig 5B). This suggests that a majority of

CycA2 is not stably bound to chromatin. Indeed, using protein fractionation instead of ChIP,

we do not detect a marked decrease of CycA2 in the insoluble – chromatin bound – fraction

at late times after release from HU. Rather, whereas both CycA2 and CycA2-eYFP increase in

the cytoplasmic fraction, their component in the insoluble fractions remains unaltered (Fig

5C). Taken together, this indicates that CycA2-eYFP associates more with replicating

chromatin, but also that CycA2 cytoplasmic appearance at the S/G2 transition cannot be

explained by a decrease in chromatin association. Rather, CycA2 chromatin association

remains similar as total and cytoplasmic CycA2 levels increase through G2-phase.

The DNA damage response modulates cytoplasmic accumulation of CycA2 through p21

DNA replication functions as a brake on cell cycle progression by limiting activities that

promote mitosis (Lemmens et al., 2018; Saldivar et al., 2018). A similar limitation of activities

that promote mitosis is achieved by DNA damage. At least for certain signalling components,

S-phase resembles a low-level DNA damage response (Lemmens and Lindqvist, 2019;

Sørensen and Syljuåsen, 2012). We therefore sought to test whether the occurrence of

cytoplasmic CycA2 is affected by DNA damage. After addition of the radiomimetic drug

Neocarzinostatin (NCS) or of the Topoisomerase II inhibitor Etoposide, cytoplasmic CycA2-

eYFP signal disappeared (Fig 6A-C, and S3A). The reduction in cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP

occurred between 2 and 5h after NCS or Etoposide addition and was mirrored by a rapid

increase in nuclear fluorescence. Such an increase in nuclear fluorescence was only detected

in cells containing cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP (Fig 6B). Further, the loss of cytoplasmic

fluorescence and the increase in nuclear fluorescence was not affected by addition of a

proteasome inhibitor (Fig 6C), indicating that upon DNA damage, cytoplasmic Cyclin A2

translocates to the nucleus. As a consequence, the nuclear fluorescence in G2 cells exposed

to NCS or Etoposide exceeded the nuclear fluorescence observed during an unperturbed G2-

phase (Fig 6C).

A few hours after loss of CycA2-eYFP in the cytoplasm, CycA2-eYFP signal disappeared also

from the nucleus (Fig 6A-C). In contrast to cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP signal, nuclear CycA2-

eYFP signal remained after addition of a proteasome inhibitor, suggesting that nuclear

CycA2-eYFP loss involves protein degradation (Fig 6C). The loss of cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP

occurred at similar time-scales after DNA damage as what we and others previously

described for p53- and p21-dependent nuclear translocation of CycB1-eYFP (Mullers et al.,

2014; Krenning et al., 2014; Johmura et al., 2014). Moreover, loss of nuclear CycA2-eYFP was

apparent in cells receiving DNA damage in G2-phase, but was rarely visible in cells targeted

in S-phase, which would be consistent with a role for p21, whose expression is suppressed

during S-phase despite the presence of damaged DNA (Fig 6A, B) (Müllers et al., 2017; Sheng

et al., 2019). To test whether p53-p21 affects CycA2 localisation, we transfected cells with

either p21 or p53 siRNAs for 48 h and assessed the dynamics of CycA2-eYFP upon DNA

damage. Interestingly, p21 and p53 knockdown impaired both the cytoplasmic and

subsequent nuclear loss of CycA2-eYFP after addition of Etoposide (Fig 6D). This suggests

that p21 and p53 can modulate both localisation and levels of CycA2 after DNA damage.

We detected an interaction between p21 and CycA2 in the absence of externally induced

DNA damage. The interaction was detected in both cytoplasmic and nuclear fractions,

raising the possibility that association with p21, which contains an NLS (Rodríguez-Vilarrupla

et al., 2002), can help translocate CycA2 to the nucleus (Fig 4C). To test whether p53 and

p21 contribute to the regulation of CycA2 localisation in the absence of DNA damage, we

next used CRISPR/Cas9 to establish p21 or p53 deficient RPE cell lines (Fig. S3B). We fixed

p21$^{-/-}$, p53$^{-/-}$, and WT RPE cells after a short pulse with EdU, stained using DAPI and

antibodies against CycA2, and quantified the levels of nuclear and cytoplasmic CycA2 in S or

G2-phase (Fig 6E). We observed that both p21$^{-/-}$ and p53$^{-/-}$ cell lines accumulated nuclear

CycA2 similar to the parental cell line. However, quantification of cytoplasmic CycA2

revealed that p21 deficient cells showed an increase in cytoplasmic CycA2, most apparent in

G2-phase. To a lower extent, we also detect increased cytoplasmic CycA2 staining in p53$^{-/-}$

G2 cells, but not in S-phase cells (Fig 6E). Taken together, our data indicate that p21

contributes to keep CycA2 nuclear, but does not support that p21 is a determining factor

behind the appearance of cytoplasmic CycA2 at the S/G2 transition. However, as p21 levels

increase after activation of a DNA damage response, p21 efficiently inhibits cytoplasmic

localisation of CycA2.

Discussion

The S/G2 transition is marked by an increase in CDK1 and PLK1 activities, which through multiple feedback loops slowly build up until enforcing mitotic entry (Akopyan et al., 2014; Crncec and Hochegger, 2019). How to separate the hen from the egg and identify a starting point in these feedback loops has remained an unsolved question, but several studies have suggested a role for CycA2 as an initiating activity (Fung et al., 2007; Gong et al., 2007; De Boer et al., 2008; Mitra and Enders, 2004; Gheghiani et al., 2017; Vigneron et al., 2018). However, CycA2-CDK2 activity is already present during S-phase, raising the question why PLK1 activation is detected only after completion of DNA replication. One part of the answer is that DNA replication activates ATR-CHK1, which restrict mitotic kinases. However, inhibition of ATR-CHK1 does not cause immediate activation of PLK1 in all S-phase cells, suggesting that other mechanisms contribute to restrict PLK1 activation until completion of S-phase (Lemmens et al., 2018). Interestingly, whereas proteins as PLK1 and CycB1-CDK1 are both nuclear and cytoplasmic, Bora – a node in the feedback loops coupling Aurora A, CDK, and PLK1 – appears exclusively cytoplasmic (Feine et al., 2014; Bruinsma et al., 2015).

Here we show that CycA2 appears in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition. We propose a model in which the rising cytoplasmic activity of CycA2-CDK initiates activation of PLK1 through phosphorylation of the cytoplasmic cofactor Bora (Fig 7). Later in G2, combined activities of CycA2-CDK and CycB-CDK1 can further increase activation of PLK1 through massive modification of Bora, eventually resulting in commitment to mitosis and protection of Bora from SCF-dependent degradation (Gheghiani et al., 2017; Thomas et al., 2016; Feine et al., 2014; Vigneron et al., 2018; Tavernier et al., 2015). We find no evidence that CDK1 or PLK1 activities influence CycA2 localisation, supporting the idea that rather than a component of feedback loops, CycA2 appearance in the cytoplasm functions as a trigger for mitotic kinase activation. A parallel nuclear pathway for CDK-mediated activation of PLK1 by WAC has been described (Qi et al., 2018). It remains unclear how nuclear activation of PLK1 fits with our observation that cytoplasmic but not nuclear CycA2 associates with PLK1, and the observation that PLK1 restricted to the nucleus is not activated (Bruinsma et al., 2015). One alternative can be that after initial activation mediated through Bora in the cytoplasm, additional mechanisms promote PLK1 activation at later stages in G2-phase. Nonetheless, PLK1 contains an NLS, which at least in *Drosophila* is exposed upon activation, allowing re-distribution of active PLK1 in the cell (Kachaner et al., 2017; Taniguchi et al., 2002).

The main mechanism that regulates CycA2 cytoplasmic appearance at the S/G2 transition

remains unclear, although we have identified contributing factors. First, CycA2 can associate

with replicating chromatin, which can assist in keeping CycA2 nuclear during S-phase. The

restriction to the nucleus continues at least to some level during G2-phase, and we find that

a main player in this process is the stochiometric Cyclin/CDK interactor p21. A basal level of

p21 expression occurs independently of p53 in the absence of induced DNA damage,

although p21 levels in S-phase are generally low due to DNA-replication dependent

degradation (Nishitani et al., 2008; Macleod et al., 1995; Kim et al., 2008). The basal level of

p21 can be enhanced in a p53-dependent manner, which can restrict cytoplasmic

appearance of CycA2 in case of replication errors or other cellular stresses. Experimental

interference with the cell cycle can cause stress and p53 induction, for example as a

consequence of mitotic delay (Uetake and Sluder, 2010). Caution is therefore required when

interpreting results after cell cycle perturbation, such as depletion of CDK1.

The levels of CycA2 increase dramatically from early S-phase to late G2-phase. An attractive

but speculative model would be that DNA replication and non-DNA replication-dependent

interactions keep an amount of Cyclin A2 sequestered in the nucleus. This raises the

possibility that increasing CycA2 levels through G2-phase could eventually surpass the

amount of CycA2 sequestered in the nucleus and appear in the cytoplasm. How additional

mechanisms behind CycA2 cytoplasmic appearance that are not identified in this study fit

into the model remains unclear (Fig 7).

A long standing idea in the cell cycle field has been that upon stress, cell cycle progression

can be delayed by altering the localisation of key proteins as Cdc25B, Cdc25C, and CycB1

(Takizawa and Morgan, 2000). We and others previously showed that upon DNA damage,

terminal cell cycle exit from G2-phase is marked by a p21-dependent abrupt translocation of

CycB1 to the nucleus, followed by APC/C-dependent degradation (Mullers et al., 2014;

Krenning et al., 2014; Johmura et al., 2014). Here we find that with respect to pattern of

expression, localisation changes, and timings, CycA2 behaves similar to CycB1 after DNA

damage in G2-phase. It is tempting to speculate that CycA2 nuclear restriction after DNA

damage prevents PLK1 activation in the cytoplasm while allowing nuclear functions such as

stimulating transcription of p21 (Müllers et al., 2017). This opens up the possibility that

CycA2 not only is upstream in activating mitotic kinases, but also for triggering cell cycle exit

from G2-phase in case of excessive DNA damage.

The regulated appearance of CycA2 in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition suggests that

CycA2 can direct CDK activity both in a temporal and spatial manner. This is similar to CycB1,

whose change in localisation prior to mitosis provides access to nuclear substrates (Pines

and Hunter, 1991). Given that multiple cytoplasmic targets of CycA2 have been described,

and that CDK2 is identified as a major interaction hub in the cytoskeleton, we note the

possibility that apart from PLK1 activation, various processes are differentially regulated

before and after completion of S-phase. (Kanakkanthara et al., 2016; Woodman et al., 1993;

Arsic et al., 2012; Tsang et al., 2007; Thul et al., 2017)

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Conceptualization: HSC, EM, AL

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Investigation: All authors

Supervision: LB, LM, AL

Writing – original draft: HSC, AL

Writing – review and editing: All authors

Competing interests

Erik Müllers is an employee of AstraZeneca. Other authors declare no competing interests.

Materials and Methods

Cell culture

Human hTERT-RPE1 (hereafter referred to as RPE), U2OS and HeLa cells were cultured in an ambient-controlled incubator at 37°C and 5% CO_2. All cells were a kind gift from René Medema and were regularly controlled for mycoplasma infection. RPE cells were cultured using DMEM-F12 + GlutaMAX (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated FBS (HyClone) and 1% P/S (HyClone). U2OS and HeLa cells were cultured using DMEM + GlutaMAX (Invitrogen) supplemented with 6% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, HyClone) and 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin (P/S, HyClone). For adeno-associated virus production, HEK293 cells were cultured using DMEM + GlutaMAX (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% heat-inactivated fetal bovine serum (FBS, HyClone) and 1% Penicillin/Streptomycin (P/S, HyClone). For live-cell imaging experiments the medium of the cells was changed to Leibowitz-15 (Invitrogen) supplemented with 10% FBS (HyClone) and 1% P/S (HyClone).

Establishment of cell lines

RPE CycA2-eYFP cells were obtained by adeno-associated (AAV)-mediated homologous recombination as previously described (Akopyan et al., 2014). Briefly, the targeting cassette was designed to contain an arm of 1.1 kb of homology with the sequence directly 5' of the *CCNA2* Stop codon followed by the ORF of EYFP and another arm of homology 1.016 kb with the 3' UTR of the *CCNA2* gene. Adeno-associated viruses containing the homology cassette were produced and used to transduce RPE cells. Four days after transduction cells were sorted by FACS to enrich the YFP-positive population. After two rounds of sorting, single YFP positive cells were seeded in 96-well plates and clones which were validated by Western blot and live-cell imaging. Knock out of *TP53* and *p21* in RPE cells using CRISPR/Cas9 was generated as described previously (Pechackova et al., 2016) and independent clones were validated by Western blotting and sequencing of the genetic loci. For expression of CycA2 localisation variants, CycA2 constructs containing silent mutations to the 4 SMARTpool ON-TARGET plus siRNAs targeting CycA2, linked to mCherry and coupled to NLS or NES sequences as indicated in Figure 3C, and flanked by Piggy-Bac integration sites, were synthesised by Vector Builder. Sequence information is available at https://en.vectorbuilder.com/design/retrieve.html for vectors VB190920-1050khh and VB190920-1053jda. The vectors were co-transfected into RPE p53$^{-/-}$ cells expressing Dox-inducible OsTIR from the Rosa locus (Lemmens et al., 2018), with vectors for GFP flanked by

477 Piggy-Bac integration sites and Piggy-Bac transposase. After selection with Blasticidin,

478 polyclonal populations were used and only GFP positive cells were analysed.

Cell synchronisation

RPE or RPE CycA2-eYFP cells were synchronized in G0 by growing to confluency, split to fresh

medium supplemented with thymidine (2 mM) and grown for 40 h. Cells were released to

fresh medium and collected after 5h. Synchronisation efficiency was validated by flow

cytometry using 4n DNA content and absence of pS10-H3 staining as G2 markers. Typically,

this protocol yielded >95% G2 population and less than 0.5 % mitotic cells. Alternatively,

where indicated, RPE or RPE CycA2-eYFP cells were synchronized in S-phase by addition of

HU.

Cell fractionation and Immunoprecipitation

Cells were fractionated using hypotonic lysis as previously described (Andersen et al., 2002).

Briefly, cells were collected by trypsinization and centrifugation (300 g for 5 min at 4°C), and

washed with PBS. The cell pellet was resuspended in 5× packed cell volume of hypotonic

buffer A (10 mM HEPES-KOH, pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 1.5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.5 mM DTT, and 0.5 mM

PMSF) supplemented with a cocktail of protease inhibitors (cOmplete, EDTA free; Roche)

and phosphatase inhibitors (PhosSTOP, Roche) and incubated on ice for 5 min. Next, the

cells were spun down at 500 g for 5 min, suspended in 2× packed cell volume of

supplemented buffer A and dounced using a tight-fitting pestle. Nuclei were collected by

centrifugation at 500 g for 5 min at 4°C. Supernatant was centrifuged 20000g 10 min 4°C,

supplemented with NaCl and Triton X-100 to 150 mM and 0.1 % final concentration,

respectively and used as cytoplasmic fraction. Nuclei were cleaned by centrifugation over

sucrose gradient, lysed in lysis buffer (10 mM HEPES pH 7.9, 10 mM KCl, 150 mM NaCl, 1.5

mM MgCl2, 0.1 % NP-40, 0.5mM DTT, 0.5 mM PMSF supplemented with protease inhibitor

cocktail and PhosSTOP), sonicated and cleared by centrifugation at 20000 g 10min 4°C. For

IP 2 mg of cytoplasmic and nuclear extracts were incubated with either 15 µl GFP Trap beads

(Chromotek) for 1 h at 4°C or 1-1.5 µg IgG overnight at 4°C, Protein A/G Ultralink beads were

added for last 2 h. Beads were washed four times with lysis buffer and precipitates were

eluted to SDS-PAGE sample buffer.

For figure 5C, Protein fractionation was performed according to (Baranello et al., 2016) with

minor changes. To prepare the extracts, cells were washed once with PBS and twice with

Hepes Wash Buffer (20 mM Hepes pH 7.5, 137 mM NaCl). After incubation with Hepes Lysis

buffer (10 mM HEPES pH 7.5) cell were scraped and collected, smashed through a 20 gauge needle and then centrifuged for 10 min at 800g at 4ºC. Supernatant containing the cytoplasmic proteins was collected and the pellet was washed with HEPES Lysis buffer, centrifuged and finally resuspended in RIPA 137 buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 137 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40). A 25 gauge needle was used to destroy the nuclear membranes, then the sample was centrifuged at 4000 rpm for 10 min 4°C and the supernatant containing nuclear soluble proteins was collected. Pellet was resuspended in RIPA 400 buffer (50 mM Tris-HCl pH 7.5, 400 mM NaCl, 1% NP-40) and sonicated with Diagenode Bioruptor Sonicator for 5 min (low sonication setting, 30 seconds on – 30 seconds off). Samples were centrifuged at 12000 rpm for 10 min at 4ºC and supernatant containing chromatin bound nuclear proteins collected and equilibrated to RIPA 137 buffer.

Chromatin Immunoprecipitation (ChIP) and qPCR

ChIP samples were prepared from RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells as described in (Baranello et al., 2016) with minor changes. Briefly $8x10^6$ cells were crosslinked with 1% formaldehyde for 5 min. Cross-linking was stopped by the addition of glycine to 125 mM final concentration and cells were washed twice with cold PBS. After harvesting cells by scraping, the pellet was washed once with PBS plus 0.5% BSA and resuspended in TE-SDS 0.1% (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA pH 8.0, SDS 0.1%) supplemented with complete protease inhibitor tablet (Roche) to a final concentration of $4.5x10^6$ cells/ml. Samples were sonicated for 20 min with Covaris ME220 sonicator using the 1ml High Cell protocol (Peak power: 75, Duty % factor: 15, Cycles/Burst: 1000, Average power: 11.25) to produce chromatin fragments of 400 bp on average. After clarification by centrifugation, sonicated extracts were adjusted to the conditions of RIPA buffer (10mM Tris pH 8.0, 1mM EDTA pH 8.0, 1% Triton X-100, 0.1% SDS, 200mM NaCl, Na Deoxycholate 0.1%).

3 µg of anti-GFP (ab290) or IgG (sc2025) were mixed with 40 µl of Dynabeads Protein A (Invitrogen) and incubated at 4°C for 6 h with rotation. Chromatin from $8×10^6$ cells was added to the Protein A-antibody complexes and incubated overnight at 4°C with rotation. Immunoprecipitates were washed twice with RIPA buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 1% Triton X100, 0.1% Na-Deoxycholate, 0.1% SDS, 200 mM NaCl); twice with RIPA buffer plus 300 mM NaCl; once with LiCl buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl pH 8.0, 1 mM EDTA pH 8.0, 250 mM LiCl, 0.5% NP40, 0.5% Na-Deoxycholate); and twice with TE. The beads were then resuspended in 100 µl TE plus 0.25% SDS supplemented with proteinase K (500 µg/ml, Roche) and incubated overnight at 60°C. The DNA was recovered from the eluate by phenol

chloroform extraction followed by ethanol precipitation in the presence of 20 µg of

GlycoBlue (Invitrogen) and dissolved in TE. qPCR was performed using the 7500 Fast Real-

Time PCR system (Applied Biosystem) and Fast SYBR Green Master Mix (Thermo Fisher

Scientific). 7500 Software (Applied Biosystem) was used for quantification by standard curve

method and data was plotted as percentage of input, ratio of the signal from

immunoprecipitated DNA to the signal of input DNA. Five genomic locations were analyzed.

The detection primers are listed in Supplementary Table 1.

Inhibitors

For live-cell imaging and quantitative immunofluorescence experiments, the following

inhibitors were used at the indicated concentrations for 4 h unless indicated differently in

the experiments: RO-3306 at 10 µM (CDK1 inhibitor; Calbiochem), NU6140 at 10 µM (CDK2

inhibitor; Calbiochem), MK-1775 at 5 µM (Wee1 inhibitor; Selleck Chemicals), Etoposide

2µM (topoisomerase II inhibitor; Sigma Aldrich), Neocarzinostatin at 2 nM (radiomimetic

drug; Sigma Aldrich), Thymidine at 2.5 mM (Sigma Aldrich) and Hydroxyurea at 2 mM

(ribonucleotide reductase inhibitor; Sigma Aldrich).

siRNA transfection

SMARTpool ON-TARGET plus siRNAs targeting CycA2, CDK1, CDK2, p21 or p53 as well as a

scrambled control siRNA were purchased from Dharmacon and employed at a concentration

of 20nM using HiPerFect transfection reagent (Qiagen) and OptiMEM (Invitrogen) at 48h and

24h before live-cell imaging or fixation.

Live-cell microscopy

For live cell imaging, cells were seeded in 96-well imaging plates (BD Falcon) using Leibowitz-

15 medium (Invitrogen) and followed on an ImageXpress system (Molecular Devices) using a

20x NA 0.45 objective or on a Leica DMI6000 Imaging System using a 20x NA 0.4 objective.

Images were processed and analysed using ImageJ. Nuclei and cytoplasm were selected by

manual drawing. FRET microscopy was performed as in (Hukasova et al., 2012) and

simultaneous monitoring of FRET and a PCNA chromobody was performed as in (Akopyan et

al., 2014).

FRAP

FRAP microscopy on RPE CycA2-eYFP was performed on a Zeiss LSM710 microscope, using a

40X/NA1,2 objective and a 514 nm laser. Fluorescence intensities of two 10x50 pixel regions

in the same nucleus were recorded at 44 images/second. Bleaching was performed in one

region with 100% laser power for 1.5 seconds after acquiring 200 images. After background

subtraction, estimated from an area next to the cell before scanning, the ratio between the

bleached and unbleached region in the same nucleus was calculated over time.

Antibodies

The following antibodies were used: GFP (ab13970 abcam), GFP (ChIP; ab290) Cyc A2 (#sc-

751, Santa Cruz) (used for immunofluorescence), CycA2 (#4656 Cell Signalling), CycA2

(HPA020626), PLK1 (ab14210; Abcam), affinity purified mouse anti pT210-PLK1 (clone K50-

483, Becton Dickinson), affinity purified rabbit anti-Bora (Bruinsma et al., 2014), CDK1 (sc-

54, Santa Cruz and #9116 Cell Signalling), CDK2 (sc-163, Santa Cruz and #2564 Cell

Signalling), GAPDH (G9545 Sigma Aldrich), H2B (ab1790 abcam), β-Tubulin (#2128S Cell

Signalling), PCNA (HPA030522), KAP1 (A300-274A), H3 (ab1791), Alexa Fluor 488-Goat anti-

chicken (#A11039 Life Technologies) and Alexa Fluor 647-Donkey anti-rabbit (#A31537 Life

Technologies).

Quantitative immunofluorescence

For quantitative immunofluorescence experiments 10.000 cells were seeded 16h before the

different treatments with inhibitors. For siRNA transfections, 5.000 cells were seeded

instead. Twenty min before fixation EdU (5-ethynyl-2'-deoxyuridine, Molecular probes) was

added in all the experiments. Cells were fixed using 3.7% formaldehyde (Sigma Aldrich) for 5

min and permeabilised using -20°C methanol (Sigma Aldrich) for 2 minutes, blocking was

performed using 2% bovine albumin serum (BSA; Sigma Aldrich) in TBS supplemented with

0.1% Tween20 (TBS-T). After blocking, cells were incubated with primary antibodies at 4°C

overnight. After washing, cells were incubated with secondary antibodies and DAPI for 1h at

room temperature. Click chemistry was performed after wash of the secondary antibody

using a mixture of 100mM Tris, 1mM $CuSO_4$, 100mM ascorbic acid and fluorescent dye

(#A10277 and #A10266, Invitrogen) and incubated for 1h at room temperature. Images were

acquired on an ImageXpress system (Molecular Devices) using either a 20x (NA) objective or

a 40x NA 0.6 objective. Images were manually screened and processed and analysed using

CellProfiler (Carpenter et al., 2006) to identify and measure nuclear and cytoplasmic

fluorescence intensity of single cells. Cell cycle stages were determined setting a threshold

both on DAPI and EdU levels. For time-estimates based on fixed cells, CycA2 and DAPI

measurements were corrected using a background function and 2-4N DNA content cells

were sorted based on the 90th percentile CycA2 and DAPI measurement, as described in

(Akopyan et al., 2016).

***In vitro* kinase assay**

Kinase dead PLK1-K82R, GST-Bora and GST-Aurora-A were purified from bacteria as

described (Macurek et al., 2008) and incubated with CycA2-CDK2 (100 ng/reaction, Biaffin

GmbH) in a kinase buffer (25 mM MOPS pH 7.2, 12.5 mM glycerol 2-phosphate, 25 mM

MgCl2, 5 mM EGTA, 2 mM EDTA and 0.25 mM DTT) supplemented with 100 μM ATP and 5

μCi 32P-γ-ATP at 30°C for 30 min. After separation of proteins by SDS-PAGE, phosphorylation

was detected by autoradiography or by pT210-PLK1 antibody.

Data availability

Data generated or analysed during this study are included in this published article or

available upon request.

Figure legends

Figure 1. Cyclin A2 accumulates in the cytoplasm at the S/G2 transition

(**a**) Time-lapse imaging through mitosis of a single RPE cell gene-targeted to express CycA2-eYFP. Time between images is 20 minutes.

(**b**) Quantification of mean fluorescence intensity in the nucleus (top) and in the cytoplasm (middle) of 50 individual RPE CycA2-eYFP cells over time. Cells were synchronised *in silico* to set t=0 at mitosis. Nuclear and cytoplasmic fluorescence in mitosis is approximated to central and peripheral regions of the mitotic cell in order to show a continuous graph. Please note that the increase in mean intensity during mitosis largely is due to cell rounding. Bottom graph shows the average of nuclear and cytoplasmic mean intensities.

(**c**) Time-course estimate from fixed cells, pulse-labelled with EdU. 2100 RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells were sorted based on increasing anti-GFP and DAPI staining (left) and 1567 RPE cells were sorted based on increasing anti-CycA2 and DAPI staining (right). Graphs focus on area where CycA2 expression is apparent. Lower graphs show running median of 100 (left) or 50 (right) cells.

(**d**) Western blot of nuclear and cytoplasmic fractions of unsynchronised RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells using the indicated antibodies.

(**e**) Quantification of the percentage of cells accumulating CycA2-eYFP in the cytoplasm after different treatments. Cells were treated with DMSO (Control), Thymidine or Hydroxyurea and imaged. The number of cells accumulating CycA2 in the cytoplasm was recorded and plotted as a percentage of the total number of cells tracked.

All experiments were repeated at least three times.

Figure 2. CycA2 containing nuclear export sequences can rescue cell cycle arrest after depletion of endogenous CycA2

(**a**) Time-lapse sequence of U2OS cells expressing PLK1 FRET reporter and PCNA chromobody. Time points (h) are indicated in figure. Top Ctrl siRNA, bottom CycA2 siRNA.

(**b**) Quantification of individual cells, imaged as in (a). Red line shows 1/FRET and blue line shows PCNA foci.

(**c**) Schematic of siRNA-non-targetable CycA2 expression constructs.

(**d**) Images show RPE p53$^{-/-}$ TetON OsTIR, cotransfected with Piggy-BAC transposase, GFP flanked by Piggy-BAC integration sites (to mark transfected cells) and the constructs outlined in (c) after 18h Doxycycline addition.

(e) Quantification of mitotic entry in GFP-expressing cells. Polyclonal populations as in (d) were transfected with CycA2 siRNA. 48h later, cells were transferred to L15 medium with or without Doxycycline and followed by time-lapse microscopy. At least 275 cells were followed per condition.

Figure 3. Cytoplasmic CycA2 triggers PLK1 activation.

(a) Inhibition of CDK activity in U2OS cells expressing PLK1 FRET reporter. Cells with intermediate PLK1 FRET signal, indicative of G2-phase, were followed after addition of indicated inhibitors. Graph shows average and s.e.m of at least 10 cells per condition.

(b) Inhibition of CDK activity in RPE cells synchronised in G2 decreases the level of PLK1 phosphorylation at T210.

(c) Phosphorylation of Bora by CycA2-CDK2 promotes modification of PLK1 at T210 mediated by Aurora-A. Empty arrowhead indicates position of the kinase dead PLK1, full arrowhead indicates position of Bora.

(d) CycA2-CDK2 can phosphorylate Bora on SP/TP sites**.**

(e, f) Cytosolic and nuclear extracts from RPE cells synchronised in G2-phase were subjected to immunoprecipitation with anti-CycA2 (e) or anti-PLK1 (f) antibodies and bound proteins were probed with indicated antibodies.

(g) Expression of PLK1 T210D can partially rescue CycA2 siRNA-mediated cell cycle arrest. U2TR cells with inducible expression of PLK1 T210D were transfected with CycA2 siRNA. 20h later, Doxycycline was added and cells were followed using phase contrast time-lapse microscopy. 300 cells per condition were followed manually over time.

All experiments were repeated at least three times.

Figure 4. CDK1 can contribute to cytoplasmic accumulation of Cyclin A2

(a) Cells were transfected with siRNAs for either CDK1 or CDK2 for 48 h, incubated with EdU for 20 min and fixed. Arrows indicate G2 cells with low cytoplasmic CycA2.

(b) Quantification of cytoplasmic and nuclear integrated intensities of CycA2 in at least 500 RPE cells imaged as in (a). Cells were gated for DAPI and EdU levels and assigned to S-phase (red dots) or G2-phase (green dots). Each dot represents one cell; the percentages indicate the proportion of S- and G2-phase cells in each condition. Number of cells within indicated gate and total amount of G2 cells are shown to the right.

(c) RPE (RPE) or RPE CycA2-eYFP (CycA2) cells were synchronised in G2, separated to cytosolic and nuclear fractions and immunoprecipitated with GFP Trap (left) or with control

IgG and CycA2 antibody (right). Proteins bound to the carrier were probed with indicated

antibodies. All experiments were repeated at least three times.

Figure 5. Cyclin A2 associates with chromatin during S-phase.

(**a**) Chromatin immunoprecipitation (ChIP) in RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells, synchronized with

hydroxyurea (HU, 2mM in PBS) for 18 h and harvested after HU washout at different

timepoints (0, 4 and 8 h). The enrichment of CycA2-eYFP and IgG, determined by ChIP-qPCR

is plotted as percentage of input (ratio of immunoprecipitated DNA to the total amount of

DNA). Genomic locations are indicated by alphabetical letters A-E, (details in supplementary

Table1). Graph shows one representative experiment. Mean value and SD are based on

duplicate samples, each with duplicate qPCR reactions. Mean relative recovery for non-

immune IgG are 0.0072. Asterisks indicate two-tailed paired Student's t test; *P < 0.05, **P <

0.01, ***P < 0.001, ****P < 0.0001.

(**b**) Fluorescence recovery after photobleaching (FRAP) in the nucleus of RPE-CycA2-eYFP

cells. Graph shows normalised average of cells with (G2-phase) and without (S-phase)

detectable cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP. N=2.

(**c**) RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells were synchronised with hydroxyurea for 18 h and harvested after 4

and 10 h in HU-free media. Cytoplasmic proteins (Cyto), soluble nuclear proteins (N.sol) and

chromatin bound proteins (Chr) were isolated and detection of Cyclin A2 and PCNA was

performed by Western blot. 5 μg of protein was loaded for each fraction. β-Tubulin, KAP1

and Histone H3 were used as controls of cytosolic, nuclear soluble and chromatin fraction,

respectively. N=2.

Figure 6. p21 can modulate cytoplasmic accumulation of Cyclin A2-eYFP

(a) Time-lapse images of RPE CycA2-eYFP cell treated with 2 nM Neocarzinostatin (NCS).

Asterisk indicates a cell exposed to NCS in S-phase, and arrow indicates a cell exposed to

NCS in G2-phase.

(b) Quantification of average nuclear and cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP intensity after NCS

addition. RPE CycA2-eYFP cells were imaged as in (a). Graphs show quantification over time

in single cells, separated in cells showing cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP at time of NCS addition

(left, G2-phase, n=10) or not (right, S-phase, n=10). No cell entered mitosis.

(c) Quantification of average nuclear and cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP intensity after Etoposide

and MG132 addition. RPE CycA2-eYFP cells that showed both nuclear and cytoplasmic

fluorescence (G2 cells) at start of experiment were followed over time. Graphs show

quantification over time in single cells, separated in cells entering mitosis before Etoposide

addition (left, n=9, plotted until time-point before mitosis), Etoposide addition alone

(middle, n=8), Etoposide and MG132 addition (n=9).

(d) RPE CycA2-eYFP cells were transfected with p21, p53 or control siRNAs for 48 h and

treated with Etoposide at t=0. Single cells were tracked over time and the time point of loss

of CycA2-eYFP was determined visually. Graph shows cytoplasmic and nuclear loss of CycA2-

eYFP of at least 100 cells that contained cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP at time point of addition of

Etoposide addition.

(e) WT (ctrl), p21$^{-/-}$ or p53$^{-/-}$ RPE cells were incubated for 20 min with EdU and fixed. Graph

to left shows quantification of integrated intensity of EdU staining versus nuclear DAPI

intensity in at least 1500 wt cells; each circle represents one cell. The large grey rectangle

indicates gating for EdU positive cells (S-phase) and the small grey rectangle indicates gating

for EdU-negative 4N cells (G2). Box plots to right show 90, 75, 50, 25, and 10 percentiles of

cells in S-phase (top) and in G2-phase (bottom). Squares indicate average value. * indicates

$p < 0.05$, *** indicates $p < 0.0001$, Student's t-test.

Figure 7. A model for PLK1 activation by cytoplasmic CycA2.

CycA2 is restricted to the nucleus during S-phase. At the S/G2 transition, part of CycA2

localises to the cytoplasm, where it can phosphorylate Bora, resulting in activation of PLK1.

Supplementary figure legends

Supplementary figure 1. Validation of Cyclin A2-eYFP cell lines

(a) Western blot of cell lines indicated. GAPDH is used as loading control.

(b) Time-lapse images of U2OS CycA2-eYFP cells. Time between images is 20 min.

(c) RPE CycA2-eYFP cells were incubated for 20 min with EdU and fixed. Left graphs shows

quantification of nuclear and cytoplasmic integrated intensity of GFP staining versus nuclear

DAPI intensity in at least 1500 cells; each dot represents one cell. Middle graph shows

nuclear versus cytoplasmic integrated intensities of GFP staining; the grey square indicates

the gating for expressors of both nuclear and cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP. Right graphs show

integrated EdU intensity versus integrated DAPI intensity, with or without gating for

expressors of both nuclear and cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP (bottom right).

(d) RPE cells were treated as in (c), and stained with CycA2 antibodies. At least 1200 cells

were quantified.

Supplementary figure 2. Cyclin A2-eYFP cytoplasmic appearance after modulation of CDK

activity

(**a**) Quantification of nuclear (left) and cytoplasmic (right) accumulation of CycA2-eYFP in at

least 17 single cells treated with DMSO (top), RO-3306 (middle) or Nu6140 (bottom) for 4 h;

each track represents a single cell. Cells were selected based on clear but low cytoplasmic

CycA2-eYFP signal at time point of inhibitor addition, and synchronised *in silico* at the time

point when cells reached a threshold of cytoplasmic CycA2-eYFP (indicated with the grey

dotted line). (Below) Average intensities. Error bars show SD. Please note that differences

after 2h involve that DMSO treated cells enter mitosis, giving an increase in average

fluorescence upon cell rounding followed by a drop in fluorescence upon mitotic CycA2-eYFP

degradation.

(**b**) Quantification of at least 95 single RPE-CycA2-eYFP cells upon treatment with either

DMSO (control) or Wee1 inhibitor (MK1775). Cells were treated with the drugs and tracked

using live-cell imaging. Each track represents one single cell, the black dot represents the

first time point when cytoplasmic CycA2 can be detected and the red dot indicates mitotic

entry. Overlap of the cumulative appearance of cytoplasmic CycA2 in the two different

treatments (right).

(c) Western blot of cells transfected with CDK1, CDK2 or scrambled (Control) siRNAs for 48 h.

Samples were prepared from 4 wells in a 96-well plate to mimic conditions used for

microscopy.

(d) Proportion of cells passing through mitosis during 16 h after knock down of CDK1 or

CDK2 for 48 h (left). Duration of mitosis in the indicated knockdown conditions (right).

Supplementary figure 3. Validation of p21$^{-/-}$ and p53$^{-/-}$ cell lines

(a) Time-lapse microscopy of a G2-phase RPE CycA2-eYFP cell after Etoposide addition.

(b) Western blot of indicated cell lines (two different clones of p21$^{-/-}$ and p53$^{-/-}$ RPE cell

lines). KAP1 and TFIIH are used as loading controls.

Supplementary Table 1

List of primers used for qPCR

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Figure 1. Silva Cascales et al

Figure 2. Silva Cascales et al

Figure 3. Silva Cascales et al

Figure 4. Silva Cascales et al

Figure 5. Silva Cascales et al.

Figure 6. Silva Cascales et al

Figure 7. Silva Cascales et al

Supplementary Figure 1

a

b

c

Supplementary Figure 2

Supplementary Figure 3

a

Etoposide

b

p53 pS15

p53

p21

KAP1

TFIIH

Supplementary Table 1

Name	Gene	Forward primer 5'>3'	Reverse Primer 5'>3'
A	MYC	GGACTCAGTCTGGGTGGAAGG	AAGGAGGAAAACGATGCCTAGA
B	IRF1	GGGAGGGTTTCAGTCCTAGC	CCATCACAGCAAACCATCAA
C	LAMB2	CCAGAATCCGATCATGCACC	TCCGTTTTTGCAGGTTGTGCT
D	α-satellite DNA	CTTTTTCATCATAGGCCTCAA	AGCTCACAGAGCTGAAACATT
E	Intergenic Chr1	GCAGTTCAACCTACAAGCCAATAGAC	CACAAATTAGCGCATTGCCTGA