A novel RyR1 inhibitor prevents and rescues sudden death in a mouse model of malignant

hyperthermia and heat stroke

Toshiko Yamazawa[1†*], Takuya Kobayashi[2†], Nagomi Kurebayashi[2†], Masato Konishi[2], Satoru

Noguchi[3], Takayoshi Inoue[4], Yukiko U. Inoue[4], Ichizo Nishino[3], Shuichi Mori[5], Hiroto Iinuma[5],

Noriaki Manaka[5], Hiroyuki Kagechika[5], Arkady Uryas[6], Jose Adams[6], Jose R. Lopez[7],

Xiaochen Liu[8], Christine Diggle[8], Paul D. Allen[8], Sho Kakizawa[9], Keigo Ikeda[10], Bangzhong

Lin[10], Yui Ikemi[10], Kazuto Nunomura[10], Shinsaku Nakagawa[10], Takashi Sakurai[2], Takashi

Murayama[2*]

[1]Department of Molecular Physiology, Jikei University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan.

[2]Department of Pharmacology, Juntendo University School of Medicine, Tokyo, Japan.

[3]Department of Neuromuscular Research, National Institute of Neuroscience, National Center

of Neurology and Psychiatry, Tokyo, Japan.

[4]Department of Biochemistry and Cellular Biology, National Institute of Neuroscience,

National Center of Neurology and Psychiatry, Tokyo, Japan.

[5]Institute of Biomaterials and Bioengineering, Tokyo Medical and Dental University, Tokyo,

Japan.

[6]Department of Neonatology, Mount Sinai Medical Center, Miami, FL, USA.

[7]Department of Research, Mount Sinai Medical Center, Miami, FL, USA.

[8]Leeds Institute of Biomedical & Clinical Sciences, School of Medicine, University of Leeds,

St James's University Hospital, Leeds, UK.

[9]Department of Biological Chemistry, Graduate School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Kyoto

University, Kyoto, Japan

[10]Center for Supporting Drug Discovery and Life Science Research, Graduate School of

Pharmaceutical Science, Osaka University, Suita, Japan.

†These authors contributed equally to this work.

Corresponding author: Takashi Murayama (takashim@juntendo.ac.jp), Toshiko Yamazawa

(toshiko1998@jikei.ac.jp)

Abstract

Mutations in the type 1 ryanodine receptor (RyR1), a Ca^{2+} release channel in skeletal muscle,

hyperactivate the channel to cause malignant hyperthermia (MH) and are implicated in severe

heat stroke. Dantrolene, the only approved drug for MH, has the disadvantages of having very

poor water solubility and long plasma half-life. We show here that a novel RyR1-selective

inhibitor, 6,7-(methylenedioxy)-1-octyl-4-quinolone-3-carboxylic acid (Compound 1, Cpd1),

effectively prevents and treats MH and heat stroke in several mouse models relevant to MH.

Cpd1 reduced resting intracellular Ca^{2+}, inhibited halothane- and isoflurane-induced Ca^{2+}

release, suppressed caffeine-induced contracture in skeletal muscle, reduced sarcolemmal

cation influx, and prevented or reversed the fulminant MH crisis induced by isoflurane

anesthesia and rescued animals from heat stroke caused by environmental heat stress.

Notably, Cpd1 has great advantages of better water solubility and rapid clearance *in vivo* over

dantrolene. Cpd1 has the potential to be a promising new candidate for effective treatment of

patients carrying RyR1 mutations.

Introduction

The type 1 ryanodine receptor (*RYR1*; MIM# 180901) is a Ca^{2+}-release channel in the

sarcoplasmic reticulum (SR) of skeletal muscle that plays a central role in muscle contraction[1,2].

During excitation-contraction (E-C) coupling, RyR1 releases Ca^{2+} through physical association with the sarcolemmal slow voltage gated Ca^{2+} channel (dihydropyridine receptor, DHPR) during depolarization of T-tubule membrane. This mechanism is referred to as depolarization-induced Ca^{2+} release (DICR) [3, 4]. The RyR1 channel can also be directly activated by Ca^{2+}, which is referred to as Ca^{2+}-induced Ca^{2+} release (CICR) [5, 6], although its importance in the function is much lower than RyR2 and RyR3 [7].

Genetic mutations in the *RYR1* gene are associated with malignant hyperthermia (MH; MIM# 145600) [8]. MH is a life-threatening disorder characterized by skeletal muscle rigidity and elevated body temperature in response to all volatile anesthetics such as halothane or isoflurane [9]. MH mutations are thought to hyperactivate CICR, which causes massive Ca^{2+} release by halogenated anesthetics under resting conditions [6, 10, 11]. Heat stroke is a medical emergency with a high body temperature and altered mental status, which is triggered by exercise or environmental heat stress [12, 13]. It has been reported that MH mutations in the *RYR1* gene are also implicated in some heat stroke [14, 15, 16].

The only drug approved for ameliorating the symptoms of MH is dantrolene [17, 18]. Dantrolene was first developed in 1960s as a muscle relaxant [19] and was later shown to prevent Ca^{2+} release by direct interaction with RyR1 [20, 21]. However, dantrolene has several disadvantages for clinical use: the main disadvantage is its poor water solubility which makes rapid preparation difficult in emergency situations [22]. In addition, dantrolene has long plasma half-life ($t_{1/2}$ ~12 h), which causes long-lasting side effects such as muscle weakness [23]. To date, no alternative drugs improving these disadvantages have been developed over 40 years since the first discovery.

We have recently identified oxolinic acid as a novel RyR1-selective inhibitor with better water solubility using efficient high-throughput screening platform for RyR1 inhibitors [24, 25]. We synthesized a series of oxolinic acid derivatives by structural development, and

successfully   identified   6,7-(methylenedioxy)-1-octyl-4-quinolone-3-carboxylic   acid

(Compound 1, Cpd1) with extremely high potency which is comparable to dantrolene in *in vitro*

study [26]. In this study, we tested whether Cpd1 has therapeutic effects in treating the MH crisis

in a novel MH mouse model carrying *RYR1*-p.R2509C, a corresponding mutation (p.R2508C)

in humans [27, 28] and two other MH mouse models, *RYR1*-p.R163C [29] and *RYR1*-p.G2435R [30].

We found that Cpd1 effectively prevents and reverses a fulminant MH crisis triggered by

isoflurane anesthesia. The drug also treats mice with heat stroke caused by environmental heat

stress. A notable finding is that Cpd1 is rapidly metabolized in mice. Our results provide crucial

evidence for Cpd1 as a RyR1 inhibitor that may prove to be clinically-useful.

Results

Generation of novel MH model mice carrying *RYR1*-p.R2509C mutation

A MH mouse model carrying p.R2509C mutation in the *RYR1* gene (*RYR1*-p.R2509C) was

created using CRISPR/Cas9 system (see Materials and Methods, **Fig. 1a**). An additional *Xba* I

site was introduced to screen the genotype by PCR-RFLP. The homozygous *RYR1*-p.R2509C

mice died in late embryonic stage, but heterozygous *RYR1*-p.R2509C mice grew normally and

were as fertile as wild type (WT) (**Fig. 1b**).

It has previously been shown when MH susceptible mice, swine or humans with

mutations in the *RYR1* gene are exposed to volatile anesthetics, it causes a MH crisis and if

untreated can lead to death [29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34]. When anesthetized by isoflurane, nearly 80% (68

out of 83) heterozygous *RYR1*-p.R2509C (R2509C) mice rapidly increased their rectal

temperature to over 40°C (42.3±1.3°C, n=16) (**Fig. 1c, d**), exhibited muscle rigidity (**Fig. 1c,**

inset) and died within 90 min (64±30 min, n=16) from start of exposure (**Fig. 1e**). In the

remaining R2509C mice, exposure to isoflurane caused an increase in rectal temperature but it

did not exceed 39°C. In contrast, WT mice showed no elevation in rectal temperature in

response to isoflurane (**Fig. 1c, 1d**). Elevation of rectal temperature looks two-phase reaction; it rose slowly at first and then surged around 39°C (**Fig. 1c**). Interestingly, time from rectal temperature of 39°C to death was quite similar among all individual mice (16 ± 4 min, $n=16$) (**Fig. 1e**). We further investigated sex difference in response to isoflurane. More male mice (90%) succumbed to isoflurane than females (65%) (**Fig. 1f**). Among the mice that succumbed, there was no significant sex difference in the rectal temperature (**Fig. 1g**) and time to death (**Fig. 1h, 1i**). These findings suggest that *RYR1*-p.R2509C mice can reproduce human MH symptoms in response to exposure to volatile anesthetics and thus are a useful model for test of Cpd1.

Effect of Cpd1 on intracellular Ca^{2+} homeostasis in the isolated single muscle cells

Cpd1 is a derivative of oxolinic acid with an octyl group at nitrogen atom (oxolinic acid has an ethyl group) [26]. This modification increased the potency for inhibiting the RyR1 channel nearly 70-fold in a HEK293 cell-based assay (IC_{50} values from 810 nM for oxolinic acid to 12 nM for Cpd1). Since Cpd1 is a free acid, it is virtually water insoluble. We therefore prepared its sodium salt, which neutralizes the carboxyl group and significantly increases water solubility (**Fig. 2a**). The Cpd1 sodium salt exhibited good solubility in normal saline (0.9% NaCl) as well as pure water and glucose solution (**Table 1**). In contrast, dantrolene sodium salt was soluble in pure water and glucose solution but hardly soluble in normal saline, which is in accord with previous studies [35].

We initially tested the effect of Cpd1 in *in vitro* experiments using enzymatically-isolated single flexor digitorum brevis (FDB) muscle cells from the R2509C mice. Abnormal resting intracellular Ca^{2+} ($[Ca^{2+}]_i$) homeostasis in skeletal muscle cells is one of the most common features associated with MH in susceptible humans [36], swine [31, 32], and MH model mice [29, 30, 33, 34]. Muscle cells were loaded with a fluorescent Ca^{2+} indicator, Cal520, and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was fluorometrically monitored during exposure of the cells to halothane, which is used for

clinical MH testing [37]. Whereas halothane up to 0.1% (v/v) did not change $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in WT cells,

it caused increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R2509C cells in a dose-dependent manner (**Fig. 2b, 2c**).

Pretreatment of R2509C cells with Cpd1 (100 nM) reduced resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (**Supplementary**

Fig. 1a, 1b) and completely abolished halothane induced increases in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (**Fig. 2b, 2c**). We

then used the ratiometric Ca^{2+} indicator fura-2 to estimate the unstimulated resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ and

whether or not it could be modified by Cpd1. At rest fura-2 F_{340}/F_{380} ratios were significantly

higher in R2509C cells than in WT and Cpd1 reduced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R2509C cells in a dose-

dependent manner but had no significant effect on WT (**Fig. 2d**). Similar to the effects of

halothane, exposure to isoflurane increased $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R2509C but not in WT cells and Cpd1

completely prevented this effect. (**Fig. 2e, 2f**).

It has been shown that sarcolemmal cation influx is accelerated in skeletal muscle of

several MH model mice compared with WT mice [38, 39]. This is due to enhanced sarcolemmal

Ca^{2+} entry in response to chronic reduced SR Ca^{2+} load. We therefore measured resting Mn^{2+}

quench of fura-2 fluorescence. Unexpectedly, rate of Mn^{2+} quench in R2509C was not different

from WT and in this model Cpd1 had no effect (**Supplementary Fig. 2a, 2b**).

Effect of Cpd1 on contraction force in isolated muscles

The In Vitro Contracture Test (IVCT) using muscle biopsies is widely used for

diagnosis of MH susceptibility in humans [40]. A subject is considered MH positive if the muscle

exhibited a greater contracture at a lower dose of caffeine or halothane. We therefore tested the

effect of Cpd1 on caffeine-induced contracture in soleus muscles isolated from *RYR1*-p.R2509C

mice. WT muscles showed only minimal contracture in responses to caffeine up to 20 mM (**Fig.**

3a). In contrast, R2509C muscles exhibited dose-dependent contracture during exposure to

caffeine and pretreatment with 3 μM Cpd1 decreased caffeine-induced contracture tension of

R2509C muscles at 20 mM caffeine (**Fig. 3b**).

It has been reported that soleus muscles from MH model mice exhibit heat-induced

increase in the basal force at temperatures of 35°C or higher [33]. Basal tension at 42°C was

significantly increased in R2509C solei compared to WT muscles (**Fig. 3c, 3d**) and pretreatment

with 3 µM Cpd1 significantly reduced the heat-induced contracture in R2509C muscles.

Dantrolene is known to suppress twitch and tetanic contractions in both normal and

MH muscles [41, 42]. We tested whether Cpd1 affects twitch and tetanic contractions and whether

or not there was a difference in the Cpd1 effect between MH and WT. Untreated soleus muscles

from both WT and R2509C mice showed similar twitch and tetanic contraction force and

treatment with 3 µM Cpd1 significantly reduced both twitch and tetanic contraction force in

both groups (**Fig. 3e-3g**). The effect was stronger on twitch (72% inhibition) (**Fig. 3f**) than on

tetanic (35% inhibition at 100 Hz) (**Fig. 3g**) contractions, which is similar to dantrolene [41].

Effect of Cpd1 on *in vivo* isoflurane challenge

We next tested whether Cpd1 can prevent or treat MH episodes in R2509C mice *in*

vivo. We first tested the preventive effect of Cpd1 on MH episodes in response to isoflurane

exposure. We used male mice for the experiments, since male mice were more sensitive to

isoflurane than female mice (see **Fig. 1f**). Doses of either 3 mg/kg or 10 mg/kg of Cpd1

solubilized in normal saline were administered *i.p.* 10 min before isoflurane challenge. The 3

mg/kg dose did not prevent rise in rectal temperature and only 1 out of 6 mice survived (**Fig.**

4a-4c). Time to death for mice treated at 3 mg/kg (47±15 min, n=5) was not significantly

different than that for control mice (53±24 min, n=9). However, with the 10 mg/kg dose, Cpd1

successfully prevented any rise in rectal temperature (**Fig. 4a, 4b**). All the treated mice survived

90 min after induction of anesthesia (**Fig. 4c**) and they behaved normally for at least 24 h after

recovery from anesthesia.

We next tested whether Cpd1 could rescue mice from MH episodes. R2509C mice

(both males and females) were anesthetized with isoflurane and the drug was administered *i.p.*

when rectal temperature reached 39°C. The 3 mg/kg dose was able to reduce rectal temperature

by -0.03±0.81°C at 10 min after administration, compared to an increase of 1.79±0.82°C in

controls, but rectal temperature started to rise again ~30 min after administration of the drug in

some mice (**Fig. 4d, 4e**). The 10 mg/kg dose decreased body temperature by -0.64±0.29°C at

10 min after administration and maintained it at that level until the experiment was terminated

60 min after administration of the drug. At that time 60% of the mice in the 3 mg/kg group and

100% of the mice in the 10 mg/kg group survived (**Fig. 4f**) and all the survivors behaved

normally for at least 24 h after experiments.

Effect of Cpd1 on *in vivo* environmental heat stress challenge

It has been shown that environmental heat stress causes an increase in body

temperature and death in other MH model mice [29, 30, 33, 34]. We therefore tested whether R2509C

mice exhibit heat stroke triggered by environmental heat stress. Mice were anesthetized using

intravenous anesthetics and transferred to a 35 °C test chamber. Whereas the rectal temperature

of WT mice was maintained at a relatively constant level around 37°C (37.4±0.8°C, n=7), the

rectal temperature of R2509C mice steadily increased to 41.4±1.4°C (n=13) (**Supplementary**

Fig. 3a). Almost all the mice responded to heat and died (**Supplementary Fig. 3b**). Although

the time from start of heat stress to death largely varied substantially among individual mice,

the variation in time to death after reaching body temperatures of 38°C (36±13 min, n=13) or

39°C (22±8 min, n=12) became smaller (**Supplementary Fig. 3c**).

Using this model, we initially tested the preventive effect of Cpd1 on the heat stroke.

Pretreatment of mice with Cpd1 (10 mg/kg) slowed the rate of temperature rise (**Fig. 5a**), but

maximum rectal temperature did not change (**Fig. 5b**) and none of the treated mice (0 out of 4)

survived 120 min of heat stress (**Fig. 5c**). However, time to death for the treated mice (98±17

min, n=4) was significantly prolonged compared to the control mice (74±21 min, n=13) (**Fig. 5d**).

We next tested whether Cpd1 could rescue mice from environmental heat stroke. The R2509C mice were incubated in the test chamber and the drug was administered *i.p.* when their rectal temperature reached 39°C. All the untreated mice died within 30 min of the time of injection (time to death, 22±8 min, n=13). The 3 mg/kg Cpd1 dose slowed rise in the body temperature post injection (**Fig. 5e, 5f**) and 3 out of 5 mice survived 60 min after administration (**Fig. 5g**). The 10 mg/kg Cpd1 dose showed more pronounced effect: it suppressed rise in the body temperature and 10 out of 11 mice survived for 60 min after administration. After removing from the heat stress environment, the survivors behaved normally for at least 24 h after being and regaining consciousness. When the drug was administered at body temperature of 38°C, after which most untreated mice died within 60 min (time to death, 36±13 min, n=13), both the 3 and 10 mg/kg Cpd1 doses strongly suppressed the continued rise in the body temperature (**Supplementary Fig. 4a, 4b**) and almost all mice survived 60 min after its administration (**Supplementary Fig. 4c**).

Pharmacokinetics of Cpd1

We observed transient effects with the 3mg/kg dose of Cpd1 in rescue experiments in both *in vivo* isoflurane and heat stress challenges with R2509C mice (see **Fig. 4d, 5e**). This implies fast metabolism or excretion of the drug in mice. We therefore measured plasma concentration of Cpd1 after *i.p.* administration. Cpd1 rapidly declined in mouse blood following first order kinetics with $t_{1/2}$ of ~8 min for both the 3 mg/kg and 10 mg/kg dose (**Fig. 6a**). There was no sex difference in the kinetics of Cpd1 (**Supplementary Fig. 5a, 5b**). Since Cpd1 has hydrophobic moiety of octyl group (see **Fig. 2**), it can be metabolized in the liver. *In vitro* drug metabolism assay using mouse liver microsomes demonstrated that Cpd1 was reduced to 20% and 5% of

the original amount at 10 min and 60 min, respectively (**Fig. 6b**). Cpd1 was metabolized more

slowly by human liver microsomes; it was reduced to 20% at 60 min.

The duration of the effect of Cpd1 in mice was also evaluated using measurements of

in vivo muscle strength, since we showed that the drug inhibited twitch and tetanic contractions

in isolated skeletal muscle (see **Fig. 2**). Grip strength tests demonstrated that muscle strength

of WT mice was reduced by 15% 10 min after administration of 10 mg/kg Cpd1, and that this

deficit was almost completely recovered at 60 min, suggesting short duration of the medicinal

effect *in vivo* (**Fig. 6c**). No sex nor genotype differences were observed in the effect of Cpd1

on *in vivo* muscle contraction strength (**Supplementary Fig. 6a-6c**).

The above results indicate that transient effects of Cpd1 in the isoflurane challenge

and heat challenge experiments are due to rapid metabolism of the drug in mice. In fact, second

and third administrations of the 3 mg/kg dose when rectal temperature reached 39°C

successfully decreased the rectal temperature (**Supplementary Fig. 7**). We therefore tested

whether repeated administrations of Cpd1 could prevent mice from the crisis. Eight

administrations of 1 mg/kg Cpd1 at 10 min intervals successfully prevented rise in the rectal

temperature by exposure either to isoflurane (**Fig. 6d**) or to heat stress (**Fig. 6e**) and all the mice

survived the full 90 min after initiating either challenge (**Fig. 6f**). Pharmacokinetic analysis of

Cpd1 after repeated administrations revealed that Cpd1 rapidly declined from mouse blood as

was case of single administration (**Fig. 6g**). Interestingly, $t_{1/2}$ was slightly longer in female

(14.8±2.1 min, n=3) than in male (9.6±2.7 min, n=3), whereas C_{max} was significantly higher in

males (0.67±0.11 µg/mL, n=3) than in females (0.15±0.11 µg/mL, n=3). Muscle weakness was

transiently observed after the repeated administrations in both male and female, but it returned

to normal by 60 min (**Fig. 6h**).

Effect of Cpd1 on RYR1-p.R163C MH model mice

We demonstrated that Cpd1 prevented and reversed MH and heat stroke in R2509C mice. To

test whether this is also the case with other MH model mice carrying different mutations, we

examined the effects of Cpd1 on heterozygous *RYR1*-p.R163C (R163C) mice [29] using *in vivo*

measurements of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ with Ca^{2+}-selective microelectrodes [38]. Resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was threefold

higher in R163C muscle (330 ± 43 nM, n = 17) compared to WT muscle (122 ± 3 nM, n = 20)

(**Fig. 7a**). Administration of Cpd1 *i.p.* effectively reduced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R163C muscle in a dose-

dependent manner. Cpd1 also reduced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in WT muscles, but the effect was significantly

smaller. When mice were exposed to 1.5% (v/v) isoflurane, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ rapidly increased in

untreated R163C muscles (1226 ± 154 nM, n = 19), indicating a MH episode (**Fig. 7b, 7c**).

Administration of isoflurane had no effect on $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in WT muscles (121 ± 4 nM, n = 18) (**Fig.**

7c). Pretreatment with Cpd1 suppressed increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R163C muscle in a dose-

dependent manner (**Fig. 7b, 7c**) and effectively prevented the MH episode and death at doses

of 5 and 10 mg/kg (**Fig. 7d**). When Cpd1 at 10 mg/kg was administered to R163C mice 15 min

after induction of isoflurane anesthesia, it was able to abort the MH crisis and rapidly decreased

$[Ca^{2+}]_i$ to the levels measured in WT muscle (**Fig. 7e, 7f**).

To validate *in vivo* experiments, we tested the effect of Cpd1 in FDB muscle fibers

isolated from the R163C mice. Similar to the *in vivo* findings, $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was significantly higher

in quiescent R163C fibers (326 ± 27 nM, n = 16) compared to WT fibers (121 ± 3 nM, n = 20)

and Cpd1 reduced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R163C fibers in a dose-dependent manner to the level of WT fibers.

(**Supplementary Fig. 8**).

Effect of Cpd1 on RYR1-p.G2435R MH model mice

We also tested the effect of Cpd1 on a third MH model using homozygous *RYR1*-p.G2435R

mice [30]. The G2435R mice exhibit severe heat stroke by environmental heat stress. When

unanesthetized restrained G2435R mice were exposed to an ambient temperature of 38° C,

their rectal temperature rapidly increased and reached 40°C within 20 min (the experiment was

terminated at this point) (**Fig. 8a**). Pretreatment of G2435R mice with Cpd1 (30 mg/kg) greatly

slowed the rise in rectal temperature (**Fig. 8b**).

RYR1-p.G2435R muscles have also been shown to have enhanced cation influx

compared to WT which is thought to be in response to chronic reduced SR Ca^{2+} load [30]. To test

the effect of Cpd1 on sarcolemmal cation influx, we measured resting Mn^{2+} quench of fura-2

fluorescence in isolated G2435R and WT skeletal muscle fibers. The rate of Mn^{2+} quench in

G2435R fibers was twice that in WT fibers (**Fig. 8c, 8d**). Cpd1 reduced Mn^{2+} quench in G2435R

fibers in a dose-dependent manner and the Mn^{2+} quench rate at the 10 μM dose was the same

as untreated WT fibers.

Discussion

Here we examined the therapeutic effects of Cpd1, a novel RyR1-selective inhibitor

with high potency [26], on the volatile anesthetic and increased environmental temperature-

induced MH crisis. Cpd1 showed good solubility in normal saline (Table 1). Using three

different model mice, we demonstrated that Cpd1: (1) prevents increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ by volatile

anesthetics (halothane and isoflurane) and decreases resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in skeletal muscle *in vitro*

and *in vivo* (**Figs. 2, 7**), (2) inhibits sarcolemmal cation entry caused by chronic store Ca^{2+}

depletion (**Fig. 8**), (3) inhibits caffeine- and heat-induced contracture in isolated skeletal

muscle (**Fig. 3**), (4) effectively prevents and treats isoflurane-induced fulminant MH crisis

(**Figs. 4, 7**), and (5) treats severe heat stroke caused by environmental heat stress (**Figs. 5, 8**).

These results provide crucial evidence that Cpd1 is capable of effectively preventing and

treating the MH crisis and heat stroke by inhibiting the RyR1 channel.

Several strains of MH mouse models carrying mutations in the *RYR1* gene have

been reported to date [29, 30, 33, 34]. We created a novel mouse model carrying p.R2509C mutation

in the *RYR1* gene, which corresponds to MH mutation (p.R2508C) in human *RYR1* gene [27]. In a HEK293 expression system, the p.R2508C mutant exhibited the highest CICR activity among mutants in the central region tested [28]. Whereas homozygous mice were embryonic lethal, heterozygous mice grew normally and were as fertile as WT (**Fig. 1**). R2509C mice showed a halothane- and isoflurane-induced increase in $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ (**Fig. 2**) and caffeine- and heat-induced contracture in skeletal muscle (**Fig. 3**). In addition, they exhibited a MH crisis when exposed to isoflurane anesthesia (**Fig. 1**) and heat stroke when exposed to environmental heat stress (**Fig. 5, Supplementary Fig. 3**). These properties are common to those seen in the other model mice carrying severe MH mutations in the *RYR1* gene, e.g., p.R163C [29] and p.Y524S [33]. Thus, R2509C mice are a useful model for MH research. Interestingly, time to death by isoflurane anesthesia of R2509C mice (64±30 min, **Fig. 1**) was much longer than that of R163C mice (<20 min, **Fig. 7**). Correspondingly, increase in resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ appeared smaller in R2509C muscle (**Fig. 2**) than in R163C muscle (**Fig. 7, Supplementary Fig. 8**). These findings suggest that R2509C mice show milder phenotype than R163C mice.

Although dantrolene is the only compound that is available and used to treat and prevent MH, a major problem of dantrolene in clinical use is its poor aqueous solubility [22]. First, dantrolene must be solubilized with sterile water and injected or infused by the intravenous route, since it is virtually insoluble in normal saline. Second, dantrolene is prepared at a diluted concentration (0.33 mg/mL) due to its low water solubility, which makes rapid preparation difficult in emergency situations. Whereas the second problem has recently been solved by nanocrystalline suspension of dantrolene (Ryanodex®) which can be injected at a concentration of 50 mg/mL [43], the first problem remains unsolved to date. We found that Cpd1 exhibits good solubility (849±58 µg/mL) in normal saline, which is 34-fold higher compared to dantrolene (25.7±2.1 µg/mL) (**Table 1**). This enables continuous administration

of the drug by infusion using the intravenous route and expands usage of the drug before and

after surgery for prevention of MH and postoperative MH [44].

Another drawback of dantrolene in clinical use is its long plasma half-life (10-12 h

in humans after intravenous injection) [45]. Therefore, it is difficult to control the appropriate

plasma concentration and reduce side effects such as muscle weakness [22]. Pharmacokinetic

analysis revealed that Cpd1 is rapidly metabolized in mice with plasma half-life of ~8 min,

probably by metabolism by the liver (**Fig. 6**). Muscle weakness was completely recovered

within 60 min (**Fig. 6**). Rapid metabolism of Cpd1 was also true even after repeated

administration of 1 mg/kg Cpd1 at 10 min intervals, which successfully prevented rise in the

rectal temperature by exposure either to isoflurane or heat stress (**Fig. 6**). Thus, Cpd1 may be

beneficial for a treatment of MH episodes without the concern of residual weakness.

Heat stroke is a life-threatening condition clinically diagnosed as a severe elevation

in body temperature with central nervous system dysfunction [12, 13]. It has been reported that

MH mutations in the *RYR1* gene is implicated in some heat stroke [14, 15, 16]. Dantrolene has

therapeutic effects on some patients with severe exertional heat stroke [46]. Cpd1 effectively

prevents and treats fulminant heat stroke caused by environmental heat stress in both R2509C

(**Figs. 5, 6**) and G2435R (**Fig. 8**) model mice. Since Cpd1 is soluble in normal saline, it has

the potential to be administered by continuous infusion which could be necessary for

treatment of severe heat stroke without the concern for prolonged muscle weakness.

Dantrolene is also used for the treatment of neuroleptic malignant syndrome, a life-

threatening neurologic emergency associated with the use of antipsychotic agents [47] as well as

overdose of 2,4-dinitrophenol (a prohibited weight loss agent that interrupts ATP synthesis

and causes hyperthermia) [48]. Since Cpd1 has similar effects in preventing and treating MH

and heat stroke, it might also be a potential candidate for treatment of these emergency

situations.

Materials and Methods

Materials

Cpd1 was synthesized as described previously [26]. Sodium salt of Cpd1 was prepared as

follows. Cpd1 (100 mg, 0.29 mmol) was dissolved in 3 mL of tetrahydrofuran. Then, 44 μL

of NaOH aqueous solution (25%, 0.28 mmol) was added to the solution, and the suspension

was sonicated for 10 min to afford white precipitate. After 24 h at room temperature, the

colorless precipitates were collected by filtration, and washed with cold tetrahydrofuran. The

residual material was dried under reduced pressure to give the sodium salt of Cpd1 as

colorless powder.

Determination of thermodynamic solubility

Test compound (2 mg) was suspended with 1 mL of normal saline, pure water, or 5% glucose

aqueous solution in glass tube, and the suspension was shaken at 150 rpm for 48 h at 25 °C.

An aliquot was filtered by PVDF filter unit (Mini-Uni Prep^{TM}, GE Healthcare), and the

filtrate was diluted with pure water. The diluted sample solution was injected into HPLC

system (column (Mightysil RP-18, Kanto Chemical Co. Inc.), UV/vis detector (UV-2077,

JASCO), pump (PU-2089, JASCO), and column oven (CO-965, JASCO)) and the peak area

was recorded at 254 nm. The concentration of solution was calculated with a calibration

curve. Examinations of all conditions were performed three or four times.

Animals

All animal-related procedures were in accordance with the guidelines of the Jikei University

School of Medicine, Juntendo University School of Medicine, the National Center of

Neurology and Psychiatry (NCNP), Mount Sinai Hospital and UK Home Office, administered

by the University of Leeds. Mice were housed in isolator cages, fed with food and water ad

libitum, and kept under controlled lighting conditions (12 h-light/12 h-dark) in specific

pathogen-free conditions in the Jikei University, Juntendo University, National Institute of

Neuroscience, NCNP, Mount Sinai Hospital and the Leeds Institute of Medicine animal

facilities.

Generation of mutant mouse by gene editing using CRISPR-Cas9 system

Mouse genomic sequence within upstream- and downstream-50 bps each to that

corresponding to human mutation site was searched by CRISPR design tool

(http://crispr.mit/edu) to select PAM and its consequent guide sequence with high specificity.

CAATGCCATACACTCGGTCC**AGG** (bold: PAM sequence) was selected for crRNA

synthesis. A single-stranded donor oligonucleotide carrying *Xba* I site (underlined),

CCGAAGATGTCTGCATCCTTCGTGCCTGACCAGGCATCCATGGTGCTTTT<u>TCTAGA</u>

CTGCGTGTATGGCATTGAGAACCAGGACTTCTTGCTGCATGTGCTGGATGTGGG

was chemically synthesized for homologous recombination (**Fig. 1**). A *RYR1*-genomic

fragment containing PAM and the consequent guide sequence were amplified by PCR from

wild-type mouse genomic DNA. RNP complex formed by mixing of tracrRNA and crRNA

with recombinant Cas9 protein, was added to the PCR fragment and incubated for 1 hour.

Cleavage of PCR fragment into two fragments was confirmed by agarose electrophoresis.

RNP complex and single-stranded donor oligonucleotide were introduced to mouse one-cell-

stage zygotes by electroporation. The electroporated zygotes were transferred to the oviducts

of pseudopregnant females. Genomic DNA was prepared from newborns' tail and knock-in

mice were screened by PCR-RFLP method using a pair of primers (R2509C_Forward:

GCGTCAGGAATGGTTAGAATAGAT; R2509C_Reverse:

TTGTCTGATGCTAGGTAGAAGGTG) and *Xba* I digestion (**Fig. 1**). Crossing obtained

knock-in founders with wild-type mice to get F1 generations were done by standard protocol.

Preparation of single flexor digitorum brevis (FDB) cells

WT and mutant mice (R2509C, 8- to 20-week old; R163C, 12- to 16-week old, and G2435R,

12- to 16-week old) were euthanized and flexor digitorum brevis (FDB) muscles were

dissected and incubated with 2 mg/mL collagenase (Worthington Biochemical Co., NJ, USA)

in the HEPES-Krebs solution containing 2 mg/mL bovine serum albumin for 2-3 hours at

37°C. Following incubation, single cells were separated by gentle trituration in collagenase-

free HEPES-Krebs solution. Isolated single FDB cells were seeded on a laminin-coated cover

slip of the 35 mm glass-bottom dish or on 96 well plate coated with Cultrex basement

membrane matrix (Trevigen, Minneapolis, USA).

Ca^{2+} imaging of isolated single FDB cells

Isolated single FDB cells were incubated with 4 µM Cal520-AM (AAT Bioquest, CA, USA)

or fura-2-AM (Thermo Fisher Scientific) dye in the HEPES-Krebs solution (140 mM NaCl, 5

mM KCl, 2 mM CaCl$_2$, 1 mM MgCl$_2$, 11 mM glucose, 5 mM HEPES, pH 7.4) for 30 min at

37°C. The cells were then washed three times with the HEPES-Krebs solution to remove

excess dye, and after 30 min of de-esterification, fluorescence images were obtained with a

20X (NA=0.75) objective lens of an inverted microscope (Nikon TE2000-E Japan) equipped

with the sCMOS camera (Zyla, Andor, Belfast, Northern Ireland). Cal520 was excited at

480±15 nm, and fluorescence was measured at wavelengths of 525±25 nm. Fura-2 was

excited at alternating lights of 340±6 nm and 380±6 nm, fluorescent light was detected at

510±40 nm, and the ratio of fluorescence excited at 340 nm to that at 380 nm was determined.

Imaging experiments were carried out at 26°C by superfusing a HEPES-Krebs solution with

or without halothane or isoflurane. Cpd1 was administered 5 min before measurements. For

Mn^{2+} quenching experiments, fura-2 was excited at 360 ± 12 nm and emitted fluorescence at

510 ± 40 nm was monitored. The cells were perfused with basal Krebs solution (140 mM

NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 11 mM glucose, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, 10 mM HEPES, pH 7.4) for

60 sec to obtain the baseline signal and then perfused with Mn^{2+} quenching Krebs solution

(140 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM $MgCl_2$, 11 mM glucose, 0.5 mM $MnCl_2$, 10 mM HEPES,

pH 7.4) for 180 s followed by reperfusion with basal Krebs solution for 120 sec.

Measurement of muscle force *in vitro*

Muscle contraction measurement was assessed using intact soleus muscle as described

previously [49]. WT and R2509C mice (8- to 20-week old) were anesthetized with an *i.p.*

injection of sodium pentobarbital (70 mg/kg body weight) and the soleus muscles were

dissected. The isolated muscles were mounted between a force transducer (UL-100; Minebea

Co., Tokyo, Japan) and a fixed hook in a chamber containing Krebs solution (140 mmol/L

NaCl, 5 mmol/L KCl, 2 mmol/L $CaCl_2$, 1 mmol/L $MgCl_2$, 1 mmol/L NaH_2PO_4, 25 mmol/L

$NaHCO_3$, and 11 mmol/L glucose) bubbled with 95% O_2 and 5% CO_2 at 25°C. The muscles

were stretched to determine the length which produced maximum twitch contraction in

response to field stimulation for 1 msec at supramaximal voltage. For caffeine contracture

studies, muscles were exposed for 2 min to Krebs solution containing 10, 15, or 20 mM

caffeine. For heat-induced contracture studies, muscles were exposed to Krebs solution

warmed at 27, 35, 40 and 42°C until basal force peaked. For twitch and tetanic contraction

measurements, muscles were stimulated at 1 min intervals with 20 trains of 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50,

100, and 200 Hz pulses. For Cpd1 treatment, muscles were incubated with Krebs solution

containing 3 μM Cpd1 15 min prior to measurements. Absolute contractile force was

normalized to the maximum diameter of the muscle.

In vivo isoflurane challenge

WT and R2509C mice (8- to 20-week old) were weighed and then placed into an anesthetic

chamber. Anesthesia was induced with 2.0-3.0 vol% isoflurane in air using a precision

vaporizer (TK-7w BioMachinery isoflurane system, Japan) until there was no detectable

response to tweezer pinches (within 60 s). Then, mice were rapidly placed atop a bed

prewarmed at 37°C and anesthesia was maintained with isoflurane, 1.5-2.0 vol% in air via a

nose cone attachment. Rectal temperature was continuously monitored with a rectal probe

(RET-3; Physitemp Instruments, LLC, NJ, USA) using Powerlab 26T (AdInstruments,

Dunedin, New Zealand). Data were recorded every 10 s for up to 90 min or until the animal

died of an MH crisis. Cpd1 was administered *i.p.* either 10 min before the start of isoflurane

anesthesia for test of the preventive effect or when the rectal temperature was achieved 39°C

for treatment of MH episodes.

In vivo heat stress challenge

In anesthetized R2509C mice. To investigate heat stress responses, WT and R2509C mice

(8- to 20-week old) were anesthetized *i.p.* with an anesthetic mixture (0.75 mg/kg

medetomidine, 4 mg/kg midazolam and 5 mg/kg butorphanol) and transferred to a test

chamber prewarmed at 35°C. Rectal temperature was measured continuously during the heat

stress challenge (up to 120 min) or until death of animals by fulminant heat stroke. Cpd1 was

administered *i.p.* either 10 min before the start of heat stress challenge for test of the

preventive effect or when the rectal temperature was achieved at 38 or 39°C for treatment of

heat stroke.

In awake restrained G2435R mice. In this model to investigate the heat stress response,

G2435R mice (12- to 16-week old) was administered Cpd1 *i.p.*, placed into a mouse restrainer

(Kent Scientific, CT, USA), and placed in an environmental chamber warmed to 38°C. Rectal

temperature was monitored continuously with a probe and recorded every min. When the

rectal temperature reached 40°C the experiment was ended and the animal was euthanized by

cervical dislocation.

Ca^{2+} determinations in intact muscle fibers using ion-specific microelectrodes

Ca^{2+} ion specific microelectrode recordings were performed as described previously [38, 50]. For

in vivo measurements, WT and *RYR1*-p.R163C heterozygous mice (12- to 16-week old) were

anesthetized by *i.p.* injection of 100 mg/kg ketamine and 5 mg/kg xylazine and placed on a

37°C heating pad and their temperature was monitored. The *vastus lateralis* was exposed

surgically after which its muscle fibers were impaled with double-barreled Ca^{2+}-selective

microelectrode, and the potentials were recorded via a high-impedance amplifier (WPI Duo

773 electrometer; WPI, Sarasota, FL, USA). The potential from the 3 M KCl microelectrode

(V_m) was subtracted electronically from the potential of the Ca^{2+} electrode (V_{CaE}) to produce a

differential Ca^{2+}-specific potential (V_{Ca}) that represents the $[Ca^{2+}]_i$. V_m and V_{Ca} were filtered

(30–50 kHz) to improve the signal-to-noise ratio and stored in a computer for further analysis.

Determinations were carried out at resting condition and then 5-10 min after commencing

exposure to 1.5% isoflurane in the inspired air. Cpd1 (0-10 mg/kg) was administered *i.p.*

before exposure to isoflurane and measurements made every 5 min. For *in vitro*

measurements, single flexor digitorum brevis (FDB) muscle fibers were enzymatically

isolated as described above and placed in mammalian Ringer solution of following

composition (in mM): 140 NaCl, 5 KCl, 2 $CaCl_2$, 1 $MgCl_2$, 5 glucose, and 10 HEPES, pH 7.4.

Muscle fibers were impaled with the microelectrodes as above and $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ was determined in

the presence of varying (0-5 μM) concentrations of Cpd1.

Mn²⁺ quench assay

Assays were carried out as described previously [38]. 5µM of fura2-AM dye (Thermo Fisher Scientific) dissolved in mammalian Ringer solution (133 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 1 mM MgSO₄, 25 mM HEPES, 5.5 mM glucose, 2 mM $CaCl_2$, pH 7.4) was loaded onto the dissociated WT and *RYR1*-p.G2435R homozygous FDB fibers in 96 well plates for 30 mins at 37°C, 5% CO_2. Fibers were then washed twice with Ringer solution and then incubated with the desired concentration of Cpd1 dissolved in Ringer solution for the final wash in the drug treated samples. After washing fibers were maintained at 37°C for 20 mins for de-esterification of fura2-AM and in the presence of the tested concentration of Cpd1. The fibers were then transferred to the stage of a Nikon TE2000 inverted microscope (Nikon, Tokyo, Japan). Fura-2 was illuminated at its isosbestic wavelength (360nm) with the X-Cite 120 metal halide light source (Exfo, Ontario, Canada) and fluorescence emission at 510 nm was recorded using a 10 x 0.3na objective. The fibers were perfused with Ringer solution for 30 sec to obtain the baseline signal and then perfused with manganese quench buffer (133 mM NaCl, 5 mM KCl, 0.5 mM $MnCl_2$, 25 mM HEPES, 5.5 mM glucose, pH 7.4) for 180 s followed by reperfusion with Ringer solution for 30 sec to wash away the manganese quench buffer. Data were collected using an intensified 10-bit digital intensified CCD at 30 fps (Stanford Photonics, Stanford, CA) from regions of interest on 3-6 individual fibers per well and analyzed using Piper software (Stanford Photonics, Stanford, CA). The fluorescence signals were plotted as arbitrary fluorescence units over time. GraphPad Prism 7 was used to fit the baseline signal and quench signal into linear regression models ($y = mx + c$). The fluorescence quench rate was calculated by subtracting the slope of the baseline signal from that of the quench signal to obtain the net slope for both drug-treated and untreated samples.

Pharmacokinetics

Cpd1 sodium salt (3 mg/kg and 10 mg/kg) dissolved in normal saline was administered *i.p.* to

WT C57BL/6J mice (10 week-old). Serial tail bled blood samples ($\sim$20 μL) were collected

using heparinized tip at 5, 10, 30, and 60 min after administration. Aliquots (5μL) of plasma

samples obtained from each blood were treated with 50 μL of acetonitrile and organic layer

were injected onto LC-MS/MS system (Waters Corp., Milford, MA, USA). The

pharmacokinetic parameters included maximum concentration (C_{max}), elimination half-life ($T_{\frac{1}{2}}$).

Metabolic stability in liver microsomes.

Cpd1 (final concentration was 0.5 μM) was incubated with human or mouse hepatic

microsomes (XenoTech Ltd, Kansas City, KS) with nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide

phosphate (NADPH) for 10 and 60 min at 37°C. Each reaction was stopped by acetonitrile, and

the value of unchanged compound 1 was determined by quantitating using LC-MS/MS, and the

metabolic stability was evaluated as a remaining rate (%).

Measurement of muscle force *in vivo*

Muscle force was measured *in vivo* by grip-force test. The tests were performed as blinded, so

the experimenter did not know which kind of solution (vehicle or Cpd1) was injected to each

mouse. The force was measured before and 10 and 60 min after *i.p.* injection of saline or

Cpd1 (10 mg/kg). Mice (8- to 12-week old) were gently held by the tails and allowed them to

grasp the horizontally positioned metal bar of the Grip Strength Meter (MK308M,

Muromachi Kikai, Tokyo, Japan) with their forelimbs and hindlimbs (4-grips test). Each

mouse performed four trials for force measurement at every time point. The highest force

value applied to the metal bar was recorded and normalized by body weight [51].

Statistics

Data are presented as the mean ± SD. Statistical analysis was performed using Prism 8

(GraphPad Software, Inc., La Jolla, USA). Student's *t*-test was used for comparisons between

two groups. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by Dunnett's test, was

performed to compare multiple groups. Statistical significance was defined as $p < 0.05$.

References

1. Meissner G. Ryanodine receptor/Ca^{2+} release channels and their regulation by endogenous effectors. Annu Rev Physiol 56, 485-508 (1994).

2. Ogawa Y. Role of ryanodine receptors. Crit Rev Biochem Mol Biol 29, 229-274 (1994).

3. Rios E, Pizarro G, Stefani E. Charge movement and the nature of signal transduction in skeletal muscle excitation-contraction coupling. Annu Rev Physiol 54, 109-133 (1992).

4. Schneider MF. Control of calcium release in functioning skeletal muscle fibers. Annu Rev Physiol 56, 463-484 (1994).

5. Endo M. Calcium release from the sarcoplasmic reticulum. Physiol Rev 57, 71-108 (1977).

6. Endo M. Calcium-induced calcium release in skeletal muscle. Physiol Rev 89, 1153-1176 (2009).

7. Murayama T, Kurebayashi N. Two ryanodine receptor isoforms in nonmammalian vertebrate skeletal muscle: possible roles in excitation-contraction coupling and other processes. Prog Biophys Mol Biol 105, 134-144 (2011).

8. Robinson R, Carpenter D, Shaw MA, Halsall J, Hopkins P. Mutations in RYR1 in malignant hyperthermia and central core disease. Hum Mutat 27, 977-989 (2006).

9. Hopkins PM. Malignant hyperthermia: advances in clinical management and diagnosis. Br J Anaesth 85, 118-128 (2000).

10. Loke J, MacLennan DH. Malignant hyperthermia and central core disease: disorders of Ca^{2+} release channels. Am J Med 104, 470-486 (1998).

11. Mickelson JR, Louis CF. Malignant hyperthermia: excitation-contraction coupling, Ca^{2+} release channel, and cell Ca^{2+} regulation defects. Physiol Rev 76, 537-592 (1996).

12. Leon LR, Bouchama A. Heat stroke. Compr Physiol 5, 611-647 (2015).

13. Hifumi T, Kondo Y, Shimizu K, Miyake Y. Heat stroke. J Intensive Care 6, 30 (2018).

14. Davis M*, et al.* Malignant hyperthermia associated with exercise-induced rhabdomyolysis or congenital abnormalities and a novel RYR1 mutation in New

Zealand and Australian pedigrees. Br J Anaesth 88, 508-515 (2002).

15.   Wappler F, *et al.* Evidence for susceptibility to malignant hyperthermia in patients with

exercise-induced rhabdomyolysis. Anesthesiology 94, 95-100 (2001).

16.   Tobin JR, Jason DR, Challa VR, Nelson TE, Sambuughin N. Malignant hyperthermia

and apparent heat stroke. JAMA 286, 168-169 (2001).

17.   Kolb ME, Horne ML, Martz R. Dantrolene in human malignant hyperthermia.

Anesthesiology 56, 254-262 (1982).

18.   Krarup C. The effect of dantrolene on the enhancement and diminution of tension

evoked by staircase and by tetanus in rat muscle. J Physiol 311, 389-400 (1981).

19.   Snyder   HR,   Jr.,   Davis   CS,   Bickerton   RK,   Halliday   RP.   1-[(5-

arylfurfurylidene)amino]hydantoins. A new class of muscle relaxants. J Med Chem 10,

807-810 (1967).

20.   Paul-Pletzer K, Palnitkar SS, Jimenez LS, Morimoto H, Parness J. The skeletal muscle

ryanodine receptor identified as a molecular target of [3H]azidodantrolene by

photoaffinity labeling. Biochemistry 40, 531-542 (2001).

21.   Zhao F, Li P, Chen SR, Louis CF, Fruen BR, Mickelson JR. Dantrolene inhibition of

ryanodine receptor Ca^{2+} release channels. Molecular mechanism and isoform selectivity.

J Biol Chem 276, 13810-13816 (2001).

22.   Krause T, Gerbershagen MU, Fiege M, Weisshorn R, Wappler F. Dantrolene: a review

of its pharmacology, therapeutic use and new developments. Anaesthesia 59, 364-373

(2004).

23.   Flewellen EH, Nelson TE, Jones WP, Arens JF, Wagner DL. Dantrolene dose response

in awake man: implications for management of malignant hyperthermia.

Anesthesiology 59, 275-280 (1983).

24.   Murayama T, Kurebayashi N. Assays for Modulators of Ryanodine Receptor

(RyR)/Ca(2+) Release Channel Activity for Drug Discovery for Skeletal Muscle and

Heart Diseases. Curr Protoc Pharmacol 87, e71 (2019).

25.   Murayama T, *et al.* Efficient high-throughput screening by endoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+}

measurement to identify inhibitors of ryanodine receptor Ca^{2+}-release channels. Mol

Pharmacol 94, 722-730 (2018).

26.   Mori S, *et al.* Structural development of a type-1 ryanodine receptor (RyR1) Ca^{2+}-

release channel inhibitor guided by endoplasmic reticulum Ca^{2+} assay. Eur J Med Chem

179, 837-848 (2019).

27.   Ibarra MC, *et al.* Malignant hyperthermia in Japan: mutation screening of the entire

ryanodine receptor type 1 gene coding region by direct sequencing. Anesthesiology 104,

1146-1154 (2006).

28.   Murayama T*, et al.* Genotype-phenotype correlations of malignant hyperthermia and

central core disease mutations in the central region of the RYR1 channel. Hum Mutat

37, 1231-1241 (2016).

29.   Yang T*, et al.* Pharmacologic and functional characterization of malignant hyperthermia

in the R163C RyR1 knock-in mouse. Anesthesiology 105, 1164-1175 (2006).

30.   Lopez JR, Kaura V, Diggle CP, Hopkins PM, Allen PD. Malignant hyperthermia,

environmental heat stress, and intracellular calcium dysregulation in a mouse model

expressing the p.G2435R variant of RYR1. Br J Anaesth 121, 953-961 (2018).

31.   Allen PD, Lopez JR, Sanchez V, Ryan JF, Sreter FA. EU 4093 decreases intracellular

$[Ca^{2+}]$ in skeletal muscle fibers from control and malignant hyperthermia-susceptible

swine. Anesthesiology 76, 132-138 (1992).

32.   Lopez JR, Allen PD, Alamo L, Jones D, Sreter FA. Myoplasmic free $[Ca^{2+}]$ during a

malignant hyperthermia episode in swine. Muscle Nerve 11, 82-88 (1988).

33.   Chelu MG*, et al.* Heat- and anesthesia-induced malignant hyperthermia in an RyR1

knock-in mouse. FASEB journal : official publication of the Federation of American

Societies for Experimental Biology 20, 329-330 (2006).

34.   Yuen B*, et al.* Mice expressing T4826I-RYR1 are viable but exhibit sex- and genotype-

dependent susceptibility to malignant hyperthermia and muscle damage. FASEB

journal : official publication of the Federation of American Societies for Experimental

Biology 26, 1311-1322 (2012).

35.   Jansen ACA, Hilbers HW, Ni XR, Helden SPv, Janssen LHM. Some physical-chemical

properties of dantrolene and two of its analogues. Int J Pharm 75, 193-199 (1991).

36.   Lopez JR, Gerardi A, Lopez MJ, Allen PD. Effects of dantrolene on myoplasmic free

$[Ca^{2+}]$ measured in vivo in patients susceptible to malignant hyperthermia.

Anesthesiology 76, 711-719 (1992).

37.   Hopkins PM. Malignant hyperthermia: pharmacology of triggering. Br J Anaesth 107,

48-56 (2011).

38.   Eltit JM, Ding X, Pessah IN, Allen PD, Lopez JR. Nonspecific sarcolemmal cation

channels are critical for the pathogenesis of malignant hyperthermia. FASEB journal :

official publication of the Federation of American Societies for Experimental Biology

27, 991-1000 (2013).

39.   Yarotskyy V, Protasi F, Dirksen RT. Accelerated activation of SOCE current in

myotubes from two mouse models of anesthetic- and heat-induced sudden death. PLoS

One 8, e77633 (2013).

40.   Larach MG. Standardization of the caffeine halothane muscle contracture test. North
654   American Malignant Hyperthermia Group. Anesth Analg 69, 511-515 (1989).

655   41.   Leslie GC, Part NJ. The action of dantrolene sodium on rat fast and slow muscle in vivo.
656   Br J Pharmacol 72, 665-672 (1981).

657   42.   Meyler WJ, Mols-Thurkow I, Scaf AH, Sargo S, Wesseling H. The effect of dantrolene
658   sodium on rat skeletal muscle in relation to the plasma concentration. Eur J Pharmacol
659   53, 335-342 (1979).

660   43.   Schutte JK, *et al.* Comparison of the therapeutic effectiveness of a dantrolene sodium
661   solution and a novel nanocrystalline suspension of dantrolene sodium in malignant
662   hyperthermia normal and susceptible pigs. Eur J Anaesthesiol 28, 256-264 (2011).

663   44.   Sinha AK, Kumari P, Vaghela MM, Sinha C, Kumar B. Postoperative Malignant
664   Hyperthermia- A Medical Emergency: A Case Report and Review of Literature. J Clin
665   Diagn Res 11, PD01-PD02 (2017).

666   45.   Lerman J, McLeod ME, Strong HA. Pharmacokinetics of intravenous dantrolene in
667   children. Anesthesiology 70, 625-629 (1989).

668   46.   Hadad E, Cohen-Sivan Y, Heled Y, Epstein Y. Clinical review: Treatment of heat stroke:
669   should dantrolene be considered? Crit Care 9, 86-91 (2005).

670   47.   Simon LV, Hashmi MF, Callahan AL. Neuroleptic Malignant Syndrome. In: StatPearls)
671   (2020).

672   48.   Grundlingh J, Dargan PI, El-Zanfaly M, Wood DM. 2,4-dinitrophenol (DNP): a weight
673   loss agent with significant acute toxicity and risk of death. J Med Toxicol 7, 205-212
674   (2011).

675   49.   Eshima H, *et al.* Long-term, but not short-term high-fat diet induces fiber composition
676   changes and impaired contractile force in mouse fast-twitch skeletal muscle. Physiol
677   Rep 5, e13250 (2017).

678   50.   Lopez JR, Alamo L, Caputo C, DiPolo R, Vergara S. Determination of ionic calcium in
679   frog skeletal muscle fibers. Biophys J 43, 1-4 (1983).

680   51.   Anderson KD, Abdul M, Steward O. Quantitative assessment of deficits and recovery
681   of forelimb motor function after cervical spinal cord injury in mice. Exp Neurol 190,
682   184-191 (2004).

Acknowledgements

We are grateful for Mariko Hanano (The Jikei University), Ikue Hiraga (Juntendo University)

and the Laboratories of Molecular and Biochemical Research, Research Support Center

(Juntendo University), for their technical support. This work was supported in part by the Japan

Society for the Promotion of Sciences KAKENHI (grant Number 19K07306, 19H03198 and

20H04511 to T.Y., 20K11368 to T.K., 19K07105 to N.K., and 19H03404 to T.M.), the USA

National Institute of Arthritis, Musculoskeletal and Skin Diseases (R01AR068897; P.D.A.,

J.R.L., C.D. and X.L.), the Platform Project for Supporting Drug Discovery and Life Science

Research (Basis for Supporting Innovative Drug Discovery and Life Science Research

(BINDS)) (JP20am0101098 to H.K. (support number 1858), JP20am0101085 to K.N.,

JP20am0101123 to S.N. (support number 1424), and JP20am0101080 to T.M.), the Practical

Research Project for Rare/Intractable Diseases (19ek0109202 to N.K.) from the Japan Agency

for Medical Research and Development (AMED), and an Intramural Research Grant (29-4 and

2-5 to I.N. and T.M., 30-9 and 2-6 to S.Noguchi) for Neurological and Psychiatric Disorders of

NCNP, the Vehicle Racing Commemorative Foundation to T.M, and Cooperative Research

Project of the Research Center for Biomedical Engineering to H.K..

Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Author contributions

T.Y., T.K., N.K. and T.M. concepted and designed the work. T.Y., T.K., N.K., M.K., S.Noguchi.,

T.I., Y.U.I., S.M., H.I., N.M., A.U., J.A., J.R.L, X.L., C.D., S.K., K.I., B.L., Y.I., K.N. and T.M.

acquired and analyzed data. T.Y., T.K., N.K., M.K., S.Noguchi, T.I., Y.U.I., I.N., S.M., H.I.,

N.M., H.K., A.U., J.A., J.R.L., X.L., C.D., P.D.A., S.K., K.I., B.L., Y.I., K.N., S.Nakagawa, T.S.

and T.M. interpreted data. T.Y., T.K., N.K., S.K., J.R.L, P.D.A. and T.M. wrote and revised the

manuscript. All authors reviewed the manuscript.

   Figure legends

Fig. 1. Generation and characterization of *RYR1*-p.R2509C (R2509C) mice. R2509C mice

were generated by CRISPR/Cas9 system using single-stranded donor oligonucleotide carrying

Xba I restriction site (TCTAGA). **a.** Sequences of an amplified DNA fragment from a tail of

WT, heterozygous (Hetero), and homozygous (Homo) offspring. Sequencing confirms the

presence of both the R2509C mutation and a *Xba* I site on both alleles in homozygous and on

one allele in heterozygous offspring. **b.** Gross morphology and allele-specific PCR-RFLP

analysis of WT, heterozygous, and homozygous embryos at E19 day. *Top*, Heterozygous

embryos (No. 5, 7 and 8) showed no apparent differences from WT embryos (No. 3, 4 and 6),

but homozygous embryos (No. 1 and 2) were dead. *Bottom*, presence of a single 688 bp band

denotes WT mice, 366 bp and 326 bp bands (not well separated in this gel) denote homozygous

mice, and all three bands denote heterozygous mice. **c.** Change in rectal temperature of mice

after isoflurane challenge. Heterozygous R2509C mice but not WT mice exhibited elevation in

rectal temperature and died by fulminant MH crisis (†). *Inset*, R2509C mice responded with

full body contractions as reflected in arching of their backs and extension of their legs. **d.**

Maximum rectal temperature of WT (n=8) and R2509C (n=16) mice during isoflurane

challenge. *p < 0.05 compared to WT. **e.** Time to death from the start of isoflurane challenge or

from rectal temperature of 39°C. **f-i.** Comparison between male and female R2509C mice

during isoflurane challenge. **f.** Responsiveness to isoflurane. Whereas 90% of male mice

increased the body temperature to >39°C, only 65% of female mice exceeded 39°C. **g.**

Maximum rectal temperature. **h.** Time to death from isoflurane challenge. **i.** Time to death from

rectal temperature of 39°C during isoflurane challenge. There was no difference in this

measurement between male and female mice.

Fig. 2. Intracellular Ca^{2+} signals in single FDB muscle cells isolated from WT and

R2509C mice. a. Structure of Cpd1 sodium salt. **b.** Representative Ca^{2+} signals in the isolated

FDB muscle cells from WT and R2509C mice at various concentrations of halothane in the

absence (WT and R2509C) and presence of 0.1 μM Cpd1 (R2509C, Cpd1). Fluorescence

Ca^{2+} signals (F) were detected with Cal520 and normalized to the initial value (F$_0$). **c.** Average

resting Ca^{2+} signals at various concentrations of halothane and effects of 0.1 μM Cpd1. Data

are means ± SD (WT: n=4, R2509C: n=7, R2509C, Cpd1: n=5). *p <0.05 compared to WT.

#p <0.05 compared to R2509C. **d.** Average Ca^{2+} signals obtained with fura-2 at rest and in the

presence of Cpd1. Data are means ± SD (WT: n=16-34; R2509C: n=17-45). *p <0.05

compared to WT. #p <0.05 compared to R2509C. **e.** Representative fura-2 Ca^{2+} ratio signals

in isolated FDB muscle cells from WT and R2509C mice at various concentrations of

isoflurane in the absence (WT and R2509C) and presence of 0.1 μM Cpd1 (R2509C, Cpd1). **f.**

Average resting Ca^{2+} signals at various concentrations of isoflurane and effects of 0.1 μM

Cpd1. Data are means ± SD (WT: n=11; R2509C: n=8-10, 2 cells died after exposure to 0.5%

isoflurane; R2509C, Cpd1: n=11). *p <0.05 compared to WT. #p <0.05 compared to R2509C.

Fig. 3. Contractile function in soleus muscles from WT and R2509C mice. a. Typical

traces of basal stress after exposure to caffeine. Caffeine at indicated concentrations was

applied for 2 min. Soleus muscles from R2509C mice exhibit much greater increase in basal

stress after exposure to caffeine than those from WT mice. Pretreatment of muscles with Cpd1

(3μM) effectively reduces the increase in basal stress caused by caffeine in R2509C muscles.

b. Dose-dependence of the increase in basal stress in response to caffeine exposure. Means

with individual data points are shown (n=5). *p<0.05 compared to WT. **c**. Typical traces of

basal stress with increased temperature. **d**. The averaged values of basal stress for 30 seconds

after exposure to 42°C. Means with individual data points are shown (n=5). *p<0.05

compared to WT. #p<0.05 compared to R2509C. **e**. Typical traces of tension development by

electrical stimuli. Muscles were stimulated with 0.5 Hz pulses to evoke twitch and at 1 min

intervals with subsequent 20 trains of 1, 2, 5, 10, 20, 50, 100, and 200 Hz pulses. **f**. Summary

of twitch tension. Means with individual data points are shown (n=5). No significant

difference was observed between WT and R2509C muscles. Cpd1 (3μM) significantly

reduces twitch tension. $^{\&}$p<0.05 compared to WT. #p<0.05 compared to R2509C. **g**. Stress-

frequency relationship. Data are means ± SD (n=5). No significant difference was observed

between WT and R2509C muscles. Cpd1 (3μM) significantly reduces tetanic stress in both

groups. $^{\&}$ p<0.05 compared to WT. #p<0.05 compared to R2509C.

Fig. 4. *In vivo* isoflurane challenge in WT and R2509C mice. A-C. Preventive effects of

Cpd1. **a.** Rectal temperature in mice after anesthesia by isoflurane. Cpd1 (0, 3, 10 mg/kg) was

administered *i.p.* to R2509C mice 10 min before anesthesia. †, death by fulminant MH crisis.

b. Maximum rectal temperature. Data are means ± SD (WT: n=6; R2509C, 0 mg/kg: n=9;

R2509C, 3 mg/kg: n=6; R2509C, 10 mg/kg: n=5). *p <0.05 compared to WT. #p <0.05

compared to R2509C, 0 mg/kg. **c.** Survival rate of mice after 90 min of anesthesia.

Administration of Cpd1 at 10 mg/kg but not 3 mg/kg prevented R2509C mice from fulminant

MH crisis. **d-f.** Rescue effects of Cpd1 on fulminant MH crisis in R2509C mice. **d.** Rectal

temperature in mice after administration of Cpd1 during anesthesia. Mice were anesthetized

by isoflurane and Cpd1 (0, 3, 10 mg/kg) was administered *i.p.* when their body temperature

reached 39°C (arrow). †, death by fulminant MH crisis. **e.** Change in rectal temperature of

R2509C mice from 39°C at 10 min after the administration of Cpd1 or saline control and the

endpoint (60 min after administration or just before death). Data are means ± SD (0 mg/kg:

n=16; 3 mg/kg: n=10; 10 mg/kg: n=8). #p <0.05 compared to 0 mg/kg. **f.** Survival rate of

R2509C mice 60 min after administration of Cpd1 or Saline control.

Fig. 5. *In vivo* heat stress challenge in WT and R2509C mice. Anesthetized mice were

placed in a test chamber prewarmed at 35°C. Cpd1 (10 mg/kg) was administered 10 min

before heat stress challenge. **a.** Rectal temperature of mice. **b.** Maximum rectal temperature.

Data are means±SD (WT: n=7; R2509C, 0 mg/kg: n=13; R2509C, 10 mg/kg: n=4). *p <0.05

compared to WT. **c.** Survival rate of mice 120 min after heat stress challenge. **d.** Time to death

from start of heat stress challenge. Data are means±SD (0 mg/kg: n=13; 10 mg/kg: n=4). #p

<0.05 compared to 0 mg/kg. **e-g.** Rescue effects of Cpd1 on heat stroke in R2509C mice. **e.**

Rectal temperature of mice. Cpd1 (0, 3, 10 mg/kg) was administered *i.p.* when their body

temperature reached 39°C (arrow). †, death by heat stroke. **e.** Change in the rectal temperature

from 39°C at 10 min after the administration of Cpd1 or saline control and the endpoint (60

min after administration or just before death). Data are means ± SD (0 mg/kg: n=12; 3 mg/kg:

n=5; 10 mg/kg: n=11). #p <0.05 compared to 0 mg/kg. **f.** Survival rate of R2509C mice 60

min after administration of Cpd1 or saline control.

Fig. 6. Pharmacokinetics of Cpd1 in mice. a. Average plasma concentration-time profiles of

Cpd1 following *i.p.* injection of 3 mg/kg and 10 mg/kg. Data are means±SD (n=6 per time

point). **b.** Metabolic stability of Cpd1 in the presence of mouse (black) or human (red) liver

microsomes. Residual rates of Cpd1 at 0 min were considered 100%. Data are means±SD

(mouse: n=7; human; n=4). **c.** Effect of Cpd1 on muscle force of WT mice *in vivo*. Muscle

force was measured by grip force test (4-grips test). The tests were performed before (pre) and

10 and 60 min after *i.p.* injection of saline or Cpd1. The force values were normalized by

body weight (BW). Data are means±SD (n=14). #*p*<0.05, compared to the value of saline-

injected control. **d-f**, Effect of repeated administration of Cpd1 on rectal temperature of

R2509C mice stimulated by isoflurane (**d**) or environmental heat stress (**e**). Cpd1 was *i.p.*

injected 8 times at 1 mg/kg every 10 min and stimulus (isoflurane or environmental heat) was

started at time 0. **f.** Survival rate of mice 90 min after isoflurane or heat stress challenge. All

the mice survived. **g.** Averaged plasma concentration-time profiles of Cpd1 following 8-times

injection of 1 mg/kg at 10 min intervals in male and female mice. Data are means±SD (n=3

per time point). **h.** Effect of Cpd1 on muscle force of WT mice *in vivo* following 8-times

injection of 1 mg/kg at 10 min intervals. Data are means±SD (n=3).

Fig. 7. Effect of Cpd1 on heterozygous *RYR1*-p.R163C (R163C) mice. Resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in

vastus lateralis muscle from R163C mice was determined *in vivo* by Ca^{2+} selective

microelectrode. **a-d.** Preventive effect of Cpd1. **a.** Effect of Cpd1 on resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in WT and

R163C mice with no stimulus. **b.** Time course of $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R163C mice during isoflurane

challenge. Cpd1 (10 mg/kg) was injected *i.p.* at 20 min and isoflurane was administered at 50

min. **c.** Effect of Cpd1 on resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ during 1.5% isoflurane anesthesia. Cpd1 dose-

dependently reduced $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R163C mice to a level in WT mice. Data are means±SD

(n=15-21). *$p <0.05$ compared to WT. #$p <0.05$ compared to 0 mg/kg Cpd1. **d.** Survival

curves of R163C mice after isoflurane anesthesia. Cpd1 dose-dependently increases the

survival rate. **e-f.** Rescue effect of Cpd1. **e.** Resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ of R163C muscle was determined

by Ca^{2+} selective microelectrode. Isoflurane was administered at 20 min and Cpd1 (10 mg/kg)

was *i.p.* injected at 35 min. **f.** Summary of resting $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ before (Before) and after exposure

to isoflurane (ISF) and after addition of Cpd1 (ISF+Cpd1) in WT and R163C muscles. Cpd1

effectively reduces $[Ca^{2+}]_i$ in R163C muscles to the level in WT muscles. Data are means±SD

(n=16-20). *$p <0.05$ compared to WT. #$p <0.05$ compared to ISF.

Fig. 8. Effect of Cpd1 on homozygous *RYR1*-p.G2435R (G2435R) mice. a-b. *In vivo* heat

challenge of G2435R mice. Mice were placed in a 38°C test chamber. Compound 1 (0 or 30

mg/kg) was administered *i.p.* 10 min before heat challenge. **a.** Rectal temperature of mice.

The steepest and least steep representative rectal temperature changes from 0 mg/kg and 30

mg/kg Compound 1 administered mouse groups are shown. **b.** Slope of temperature change

from onset to end-point at 40°C. Data are means ± SD (0 mg/kg: n=7; 30 mg/kg: n=5). #p

<0.05 compared to 0 mg/kg. **c-d.** Divalent cation entry was measured by Mn^{2+} quench assay

with isolated FDB muscle fibers. **c.** Change in fura-2 fluorescence by switching to 1 mM

Mn^{2+} containing external solution. The trace for G2435R with 10 μM Cpd1 almost

overlapped with that for WT. **d.** Box whisker plots of the slope of the decline in fura-2

fluorescence (f.a.u./s) after switching to 1 mM Mn^{2+} containing external solution. G2435R

fibers show faster Mn^{2+} entry than WT fibers, an indicative of enhanced divalent cation entry.

Cpd1 reduces the rate of Mn^{2+} entry in G2435R fibers in a dose-dependent manner to the

level seen in WT fibers. Data are given as box and whisker plots (WT: n=78; G2435R, 0 μM:

n=73; G2435R, 1 μM: n=39; G2435R, 10 μM: n=60). *p <0.05 compared to WT. #p <0.05

compared to G2435R, 0 μM Cpd1.

Table 1. Solubilities of Cpd1 sodium salt and dantrolene sodium salt in solutions for

injection.

	Cpd1 sodium salt	Dantrolene sodium salt
Normal saline (0.9% NaCl)	849±58 (4)	25.7±2.1 (3)
Pure water	1,360±220 (4)	762±67 (3)
Glucose solution (5%)	351±14 (4)	744±22 (3)

854   *Values are represented in µg/mL.

855   **Number of tests are indicated in parenthesis.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

Fig. 7

Fig. 8