1. Title: Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (CGRP) Receptor Antagonism

Reduces Motion Sickness Indicators in Mouse Migraine Models

Abbreviated Title: CGRP Receptor Antagonism Reduces Motion Sickness

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4. Structured Abstract:

Background: Migraine and especially vestibular migraine are associated with

enhanced motion sickness and motion-induced nausea. Murine models of

migraine have used injections of Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (CGRP) or

other migraine triggers [i.e., sodium nitroprusside (SNP)] to induce migraine

sensitivities to touch and light. Yet, there is limited research on whether these

triggers increase motion-induced nausea, and if migraine blockers can reduce

these migraine symptoms. We hypothesized that systemic delivery of CGRP or

SNP will increase motion sickness susceptibility and motion-induced nausea in

mouse models, and that migraine blockers can block these changes induced by

systemically delivered CGRP or SNP.

Methods: We investigated two measures of motion sickness assessment [motion

sickness index (MSI) scoring and motion-induced thermoregulation] after

intraperitoneal injections of either CGRP or SNP in C57B6/J mice. The drugs

olcegepant, sumatriptan, and rizatriptan were used to assess the efficacy of

migraine blockers.

Results: MSI measures were confounded by CGRP's effect on gastric distress.

However, analysis of tail vasodilations as a surrogate for motion-induced nausea

was robust for <u>both</u> migraine triggers. Only olcegepant treatment rescued tail

vasodilations.

Conclusion: These preclinical findings support the use of small molecule CGRP

receptor antagonists for the treatment of motion-induced nausea of migraine, and

show that triptan therapeutics are ineffective against motion-induced nausea of

migraine.

5. Trial Registration: NA

6. Keywords: CGRP, vestibular, gastric distress, motion-sickness, nausea, migraine, mouse, olcegepant, rizatriptan, sumatriptan

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Introduction:

Motion sickness and motion-induced nausea are symptoms of migraine and

especially vestibular migraine (VM) [1-7]. VM patients show lower motion perception

thresholds compared to healthy controls and also show enhanced susceptibility to

motion sickness[3]. Interestingly, Wang and Lewis (2016) found that in VM patients,

but not in migraine or healthy controls, the residual sensory conflict between

gravitational (otolith) and rotational (semicircular canal) cues correlated with

motion sickness susceptibility [8].

The diagnostic criteria for human motion sickness have recently been

updated [9] and are included in the international classification of vestibular

disorders. The major symptoms of motion sickness include facial pallor, nausea,

vomiting, gastric awareness and discomfort, sweating, and hypothermia. Motion

sickness-related hypothermia is broadly expressed phylogenetically in humans,

mice, rats, and musk shrews [10, 11]. However, rodent models of motion sickness

have been constrained because rodents do not have an emesis reflex. Pica-

eating behavior is thought to be an alternative to vomiting, yet, pica has not been

shown to be a sensitive measure of motion sickness [12]. Instead, piloerection,

tremor, fecal, and urinal incontinence have been used in scoring criteria called the

motion sickness index (MSI) to quantify the degree of motion sickness-like

behavior experienced by rats and mice to emetic stimuli [12, 13]. In addition,

thermoregulatory changes can also be used to assess motion sickness, which in

the mouse model involves a decrease in head temperature (hypothermia) and

transient tail-skin vasodilation early in the onset of provocative motion [11].

Moreover, tail vasodilations to provocative motion have been reported to precede

emesis events in the musk shrew, serving as an early index for motion-induced

nausea in experimental rodent models.

Despite the high prevalence of motion-induced nausea in VM, the

underlying mechanisms have yet to be defined. It is accepted that migraine

involves the neuropeptide Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (CGRP). CGRP is

upregulated during migraine attacks[14, 15], infusion of CGRP can induce migraine [15],

and antibodies that block CGRP or its receptor can effectively treat most migraines

[16, 17]. Yet, it is unclear if CGRP signaling antagonism can also alleviate motion-

induced nausea of VM.

Animal models of migraine have used injections of CGRP or other migraine

triggers such as sodium nitroprusside (SNP) - which generates nitric oxide and

stimulates the release of CGRP – to induce allodynic responses to touch [18, 19] and

light-aversive behavior [20, 21]. However, it is not known if these triggers can induce

motion-induced nausea in preclinical models. Moreover, it is not known if migraine

blockers used in preclinical models of touch and light sensitivities can also block

motion-induced nausea and motion sensitivity characterized in VM.

To better understand CGRP's role in VM motion-sickness susceptibility, we

investigated two measures of motion sickness assessment (MSI scoring and

motion-induced thermoregulation) after systemic injections of either CGRP or SNP

in the wild-type C57B6/J mouse. In this study, we found that MSI measures based

on gastric distress were lessened by CGRP antagonism. Yet, this was driven by

CGRP's effect in causing diarrhea, which was not observed after SNP

administration. However, the motion-induced thermoregulation was a very robust

model of motion sickness. Moreover, CGRP receptor antagonism by olcegepant

was effective in relieving CGRP effects on motion-induced nausea, whereas

triptan therapies were not efficacious. Our studies provide a strong premise that

antagonizing CGRP signaling will be effective for treating notion-induced nausea

of VM, as it has been shown to be highly effective for typical migraine.

Materials & Methods:

Animals: C57B6/J mice were obtained from Jackson Laboratories (JAX #664) and

were housed under a 12 hour day/night cycle under the care of the University

Committee on Animal Resources (UCAR) at the University of Rochester. Mice are

housed with *ad libitum* access to food, water, bedding, and enrichment materials.

A total of 213 mice (106 M/ 107 F) were tested, and all studies were powered

sufficiently to detect male/female differences. Prior to behavioral testing, mice

were equilibrated in the testing room controlled for an ambient temperature

between 22-23°C for at least 30 minutes. Mice were tested around 2.3 to 6 months

of age. This age range correlates to 20-30 years in humans and is within the range

that migraine symptoms most likely occur in patients [22]. Different cohorts of mice

were used to test motion sickness indices and motion-induced nausea. Testing

occurred from 9:00 am to 4:30 pm during the day cycle to control for behavioral

and thermoregulatory changes that may arise from circadian rhythms. For motion-

induced nausea testing, mice were screened for instances of patchy fur (alopecia)

that could add uncontrolled variance to thermoregulation analysis. Mice with

alopecia were not included in this study [23].

Drug administration: Injections were performed intraperitoneally (IP) with a fine 33

gauge insulin syringe.   Dulbecco PBS served as the diluent and as the vehicle

control. Migraine blockers used were the CGRP-receptor antagonist olcegepant

and the selective serotonin receptor agonists sumatriptan and rizatriptan. The

concentrations are listed: 0.1x, 0.5x, and 1x CGRP were prepared at 0.01, 0.05,

and 0.1 mg/kg (rat α-CGRP, Sigma), 1x olcegepant was prepared at 1 mg/kg

(BIBN4096, Tocris), 1x sumatriptan was prepared at 0.6 mg/kg (Sigma-Aldrich), 1x

rizatriptan was prepared at 0.6 mg/kg (Sigma-Aldrich), and 0.1x, 0.5x, and 1x

sodium nitroprusside (SNP)- (Sigma-Aldrich) were prepared at 0.25 mg/kg, 1.25,

and 2.5 mg/kg. After injection, animals were placed in a separate cage from their

home cage to recuperate from injection stress. Mice were tested approximately

twenty to thirty minutes after delivery of either vehicle, CGRP, SNP, CGRP or SNP

co-administered with a blocker, or drug controls. Animals were gently handled and

anesthesia was not needed. All animal procedures were approved by the

University of Rochester's (IACUC) and performed in accordance with the

standards set by the NIH.

<u>Off-Vertical Axis Rotation (OVAR):</u> Prior human and rodent studies have used

OVAR to assess the otolith-ocular reflex and assess the semicircular canal-

otolith interaction [24-26]. Constant velocity OVAR at a tilt can be disorienting and

promote motion sickness in human participants [27, 28], and further studies in

mice have shown that provocative rotation leads to pica and observations of

urination, piloerection, and tremor [29]. In this study, a two-cage rotator (cage

dimensions: 12.7 cm x 8.9 cm) was use for twenty minutes (60 rpm, 45° tilt

from the vertical, 20 cm from the axis of rotation) as an OVAR vestibular

challenge.

<u>Motion-Sickness Index (MSI) Testing</u>**:** We adapted Yu et al.'s protocol that

previously assessed the drugs scopolamine and modafinil on mitigating motion

sickness indicators in rats and mice [12]. We incorporated OVAR (described

above) as the vestibular challenge (VC) in this test. We evaluated MSI in mice

at the end of the following time points: A) a five-minute baseline (*pre-*

injection/pre-VC), B) twenty to thirty minutes after drug injection (*post-*

injection/pre-VC), and C) five minutes after the OVAR (*post-injection/post-VC*).

Mice were placed in a testing box separate from their home cage to observe

for indicators of motion sickness detailed in **Figure 1A.** A motion sickness

index (MSI) score was determined by the summation of the indicators.

Certain actions were taken to normalize the weight distribution of MS

indicators during reporting. Fecal granules (Fg) were counted separately at

each time point. The unit weight per Fg after vehicle injection was used to

back-calculate the granule number in cases where the weight of fecal

incontinence (in grams) was instead measured, for example, in cases of

gastric distress. This calculation was necessary during CGRP testing as mice

experienced diarrhea, which made it difficult to count fecal.

Urination was assigned a 1.2 score and was only counted once throughout

the time points. Piloerection was measured as either mild (0.6) or severe (1.2),

and tremors were assigned a 1.2.

Motion-Induced Thermoregulation Testing: We adapted Tu et al.'s protocol

who first noticed these thermoregulatory changes when measuring the

temperatures of the heads, bodies, and tails of mice to provocative motion [11].

In this study, head and tail temperatures of C57B6/J mice were measured for a

total 45 minutes using a FLIR E60 IR camera (model: E64501). This camera is

connected to a tripod and is positioned approximately 43 cm above an open,

plexiglass box (mouse box) used to house an individual mouse during testing.

Both the tripod and mouse box are securely attached to the shaker's base. Briefly,

baseline measurements were recorded for five minutes prior to the provocative

motion (-5 to 0 mins). The provocative motion was an orbital rotation (75 rpm, 2-

cm orbital displacement), and mice were recorded for 20 minutes (0 to 20 mins).

After 20 minutes, the provocative motion was turned off, and mice were recorded

for an additional 20 minutes to measure recovery to baseline (20 to 40 mins) as

schematized in Fig. 2. Head and tail temperatures were measured after data

retrieval using the software FLIR Tools+. Tail and head temperatures were

measured within predefined field of views: square region (3x3 mm) for tail, and

circular region (10x10 mm) for head. Tail measurements occurred 2 cm from the

base of the tail and head measurements occurred at the center of the head image,

in between the mouse's ears. Infrared imaging data was collected every minute

during baseline measurements, and every 2 minutes during and after the

provocative motion. We quantified thermoregulatory changes to provocative

motion by comparing changes in tail vasodilations, and we approximated the

magnitude of the head hypothermia based on second order curve fit estimates.

Transient increases in the tail temperature of the mouse to provocative motion are

referred to as *delta tail vasodilations* (^{o}C), and were computed by subtracting the

tail temperature at time t = 0 minutes (rotation ON) from the max tail temperature

measured during the first 10 mins of the rotation ($0 \leq t \leq 10$). In order to facilitate

quantification and comparisons of the delta tail vasodilations between treatment

groups, a threshold of 1.5^{o}C was imposed upon the data to make it a binary

outcome measure. Tail temperature changes equal to or greater than +1.5^{o}C were

designated a delta tail vasodilation and those less than +1.5^{o}C did not meet the

criteria.

Prior to assessing the efficacy of migraine blockers on thermoregulatory

changes due to provocative motion, control experiments were performed to assess

i) test-retest reliability of motion-induced thermoregulation and ii) stationary testing

(no rotation) after vehicle, 1x CGRP, and 1x SNP injections. Additionally, we

tested motion-induced thermoregulation at 0.1x and 0.5x concentrations of CGRP

and SNP to compare with 1x effects.

<u>Statistical Analyses:</u> Statistical analyses were conducted in GraphPad Prism

9.0. Repeated measures ANOVA is not capable of analyzing data with missing

values (i.e., excluded mice), and so a mixed-effects (ME) model approach was

the statistical substitute. ME models use a compound symmetry covariance

matrix and are fit using Restricted Maximum Likelihood (REML). In the presence of

missing values, these results can be interpreted like repeated measures

ANOVAs. Sphericity was not assumed during analyses and so a Greenhouse-

Geisser correction was applied to results. When comparing effects of migraine

blockers on motion sickness indices (feces and total MSI), we ran 3-way ME

models with the first factor assessing timepoint differences, the second factor

assessing sex, and the third factor comparing treatments. For motion-induced

thermoregulation data, two-way ME models were applied to delta tail

vasodilations across the two factors (sex and treatment) for both triggers.

Second-order curve fitting were used to generalize trends in head temperature

profiles and approximate the magnitude of head hypothermia, a single value

with no standard error, computed by subtracting the curve's predicted head

temperature at t = 20 mins from t= 0 mins. Across both assays, Tukey

multiple-comparisons test was the preferred post-hoc analysis. For test-retest

reliability of head and tail profiles, Pearson's correlation coefficient is listed as r

(df), where r is the coefficient and df is the degrees of freedom. Head

temperature curves are computed by 2nd order curve fitting and an R^2 value is

provided. Values are reported as mean ± SEM unless noted otherwise, and

significance was set at $p < 0.05$ for all analyses.

Results:

CGRP and SNP's effects on motion sickness index

We studied the effects of CGRP release (n = 9M/10F) on motion sickness

indicators (MSI) and whether the CGRP receptor antagonist olcegepant or the

$5HT_{1D}$ receptor agonist sumatriptan could mitigate MSO according to the timeline

shown in Fig. 1. While no effect of sex was seen on motion sickness indicators,

increased MSI were observed both after CGRP/SNP injection and after a

vestibular challentge (VC) **(Fig. 1B, C, and D).** Significant differences were seen

between measurements as described: pre-injection versus post-VC (F *(1, 18) =*

846.7, p < 0.0001), post-injection vs post-VC (*F(1,18) = 904.1, p < 0.0001*), and

pre-injection versus post-injection (*F(1,18) = 74.7, p < 0.0001*)**.** Tukey post hoc

analysis compared MSI outcomes between treatments after the vestibular

challenge, and significant increases in MSI were seen after delivery of 1x IP

CGRP (*p < 0.0001*) or 1x IP CGRP + sumatriptan (*p = 0.0002*) compared to

vehicle control. No difference in MSI was seen between vehicle and 1x IP CGRP +

olcegepant (*p = 0.98*). A similar observation of increasing MSI score was seen

with IP SNP administration at similar time points **(Figure 1E, F, and G)**. For SNP

treated animals (n = 9M/9F), significant differences were seen in MSI outcomes

when comparing pre-injection vs post-VC (*F (1,17) = 267.8, p < 0.0001*), post-

injection vs post-VC (*F(1,17) = 136.6, p < 0.0001)* and pre-injection versus post-

injection (*F(1,17) = 105.6, p < 0.0001*). However, Tukey post hoc showed no

differences between vehicle and IP SNP groups at each time point, and so

blockers were not further evaluated for SNP's effects on MSI**).**

<u>Motion sickness (MSI) outcome is driven by feces criteria</u>

A closer observation of MSI outcomes showed that the main driver of MSI is the

magnitude of feces collected. Across the three time points, differences in collected

feces were significant and mimicked MSI outcomes for both IP CGRP and IP SNP**.**

Mixed-effects analyses were used to assess differences in feces collected. Tukey

post-hoc analyses after the vestibular challenge showed increased fecal excretion

after 1x CGRP (adj. $p < 0.0001$) and after 1x CGRP + 1x sumatriptan (adj. $p =$

0.0001). In contrast, mice treated with 1x CGRP + 1x olcegepant showed no

significant difference in excreted feces compared to vehicle control (adj p. $= 0.97$).

During the test, we observed that mice treated with 1x CGRP or 1x CGRP + 1x

sumatriptan exhibited diarrhea while mice treated with 1x CGRP + 1x olcegepant

did not. Mice treated with 1x SNP did not exhibit diarrhea across all time points,

and no differences were observed in collected feces across treatment. In addition,

piloerection, urination, and tremor did not significantly differ between CGRP or

SNP-treated groups (data not shown). These results suggest that computing an

index for motion sickness based on fecal incontinence, urination, piloerection, and

tremor is problematic due to how biased the index is towards fecal excretion. We

used a different method to assess motion-sickness based on motion-induced

thermoregulation.

<u>Hypothermia and tail vasodilations occur during provocative motion and not</u>

<u>stationary testing</u>

Figure 2A describes the experiment for assessing motion-induced

thermoregulation. After a five-minute baseline recording, mice (n = 32M/25F) are

challenged with provocative motion (t = 0 mins, rotation = ON) and exhibited

gradual hypothermia until the end of the motion (t = 20 mins, rotation = OFF). 2nd

order curve fits calculated the magnitude of the mouse's head hypothermia to be -

$1.22^{o}C$ for females and $-1.62\ ^{o}C$ for males with R^2 fits equal 0.9 for both curves

(**Figure 2B).** In addition to the hypothermia, mice exhibited transient but significant

increases in tail temperature during the first 10 minutes of the provocative motion.

The delta tail vasodilations were quantified for females ($4.6 \pm 0.3\ ^{o}C$) and males

($6.1 \pm 0.4\ ^{o}C$) (**Figure 2D**). To ensure that the hypothermia and the tail

vasodilations were physiological responses to the provocative motion stimulus, a

separate group of mice (n = 9F/10M) was tested similarly but for stationary testing.

No observed hypothermia or transient vasodilations were seen in mice of either

sex during the stationary tests (**Figure 2C** and **2E**).

<u>CGRP and SNP's effects during stationary test</u>

To exclude the possibility of thermoregulatory changes that may be due to

the treatments - CGRP and SNP - and not the rotation, a secondary stationary test

was performed on mice (n = 9M/9F) who were tested with 1x CGRP and 1x SNP.

No differences were seen in the head or tail temperatures after 1x CGRP or 1x

SNP testing compared to vehicle control, and hypothermia or delta tail

vasodilations were not observed (**Figure 3A, B, D, E).**

<u>Test-retest reliability during provocative motion</u>

When assessing IP vehicle delivery, male and female mice exhibited

hypothermia during the provocative rotation and this response was repeatably

observed in the retest (n = 9M/8F). In **Figure 3C**, 2nd order curve fits were

generated for test-retest head curves and strong fits were seen for female

(Pearson's *r (23)* = 0.87, p < 0.0001) and for male (Pearson's *r (23)* = 0.89, p<

0.0001). The magnitude of hypothermia measured in the head temperatures was

similar between sexes and reproducible during the test-retest (data not shown). In

Figure 3F, similar tail temperature profiles were observed during test-retest for

females (Pearson's r (23) = 0.92, p < 0.0001) and for male (Pearson's r (23) =

0.95, p < 0.001). Delta tail vasodilations were observed to be similar in magnitude

for females (mean vasodilation $_{test}$: 4.0 ± 0.8 ^{o}C, mean vasodilation $_{retest}$: 4.2 ± 0.8

^{o}C) and for males (mean vasodilation $_{test}$: 4.9 ± 0.8 ^{o}C, mean vasodilation $_{retest}$: 4.9

± 0.9 ^{o}C).

<u>CGRP and SNP affect motion-induced thermoregulation in C57/B6J mice</u>

As seen in **Figure 4A and B**, 2nd order curve fits were used to compute the

recovery of head temperatures back to baseline values after the hypothermia after

1.0x CGRP delivery, and a general trend of extended recovery times was

observed due to 1.0x CGRP delivery (female: 28.4 mins, R^2 = 0.73; male: 25.4

mins, R^2 = 0.83) compared to their vehicle control responses (female: 20.3 mins,

R^2 = 0.86; male: 20.4 mins, R^2 = 0.85). We observed no differences in the

magnitude of head hypothermia between CGRP and vehicle control tests. **Figure**

4E and F show tail temperature profiles after 1.0x CGRP. 100% of mice exhibited

normal delta tail vasodilations after vehicle control administration but a majority of

mice (83.3% female, 45% male) exhibited diminished delta tail vasodilations (<

1.5^{o}C) after 1.0x CGRP administration. Due to the diminished delta vasodilations

and the extended recovery times detected after CGRP testing, it is inferred that

1.0x CGRP impacted a mouse's natural response to the provocative motion and

their nausea response. In parallel, a different group of mice was used to assess

SNP's effects on motion-induced thermoregulation, and temperature profiles were

analyzed similarly. When measuring head temperatures, we did not observe any

differences in recovery time or in the magnitude of head hypothermia (**Figure 4C**

and D). However, similar to CGRP, 1.0x SNP impacted delta tail vasodilations.

After vehicle control, 100% of mice showed observable, normal delta tail

vasodilations assumed for this behavior but a majority of mice in this testing cohort

(100% females, 75% males) exhibited diminished vasodilations after 1.0x SNP

similarly to what was observed with 1.0x CGRP (**Figure 4G and H**).

<u>Dose-dependent response of CGRP or SNP on tail vasodilations</u>

While 1.0x concentrations were used for the motion sickness assay in this study

and these concentrations are based on previous studies assessing these migraine

triggers, it was unclear whether lower doses would also elicit observed responses.

To answer this question, a dose-dependent response curve was tested in mice (n

= 9M/9F) and delta tail vasodilations were analyzed at 0.1x, 0.5x, and 1.0x

concentrations of IP CGRP or IP SNP (**Figure 4I, J, and L**). In the CGRP group

(n = 10M/9F), 0.1x CGRP had no significant effects on delta tail vasodilations in

either sex. However, significant differences were observed when comparing delta

tail vasodilations between vehicle and 0.5x CGRP in females ($p < 0.0002$) and in

males ($p < 0.02$). Significant differences in delta tail vasodilations were also seen

when comparing vehicle and 1.0x CGRP in both sexes ($p < 0.0001$). When

assessing SNP's effects (n = 8F/8M), no significant differences were seen at 0.1x

and 0.5x SNP compared to vehicle control, but a significant difference was seen

when comparing vehicle to 1.0x SNP in females ($p < 0.02$) and in males ($p <$

0.0002). The greatest effect of CGRP and SNP on delta tail vasodilations was

observed at their 1.0x concentration and these concentrations were used to

assess the migraine blockers.

<u>Olcegepant but not triptans protect against CGRP's effects on tail vasodilations</u>

Administration of 1x IP CGRP reduced delta tail vasodilations in nearly all

mice, and so it was hypothesized that mice would regain their healthy response to

provocative motion with IP treatment of either CGRP + olcegepant (n = 10M/7F),

CGRP + sumatriptan (m = 10M/8F), or CGRP + rizatriptan (n = 7M/7F). Prior to

assessing CGRP + blockers, groups of mice were assessed for blocker-only

effects by testing 1x IP olcegepant (n = 7F/10M) or 1x IP sumatriptan (n = 6F/10M)

, but no differences were seen when compared to their vehicle control so the

blockers, by themselves, do not have a secondary effect on tail vasodilations.

Tail temperature profiles were recorded and displayed for vehicle and drug

treatments (**Figure 5A-J**). A floating bar plot is used to compare all animals for

assessing CGRP's effects on delta tail vasodilations (**Figure 5K**). Mixed-effects

analysis on delta tail vasodilations with Dunnett post-hoc analysis showed that the

factors CGRP/CGRP+Blockers (*F (4, 93) = 61.6, p < 0.001*) and sex (*F (1, 69) =*

10.2, p = 0.002) to be significant (**Table 1).** Tukey post-hoc analysis showed a

significant difference between vehicle and 1.0x CGRP (adj. p < 0.0001) and

vehicle versus 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan (adj. p<0.001), and 1.0x

CGRP+1.0x rizatriptan (<0.005) for male and female mice, while no significant

differences were seen between vehicle vs 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant. I n a

dose-dependent response study, while no significant effects were seen with 0.1x

CGRP, mice that experienced reduced vasodilations due to the 0.5x CGRP dose

were later tested with 0.5x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant, and a majority of these mice

were rescued after delivery of 1.0x olcegepant (**Figure 5K**). These findings show

that olcegepant blocked the effects of CGRP and allowed for a majority of mice to

exhibit their normal response to the provocative motion by blocking CGRP's

effects, while both triptans were not effective.

<u>SNP's effects on tail vasodilations are blocked by olcegepant</u>

Similar to CGRP testing, the effects of the blockers olcegepant and

sumatriptan were also assessed against 1x IP SNP (n = 8M/8F), and tail

temperatures are depicted (**Figure 6A, B, C, D, E, F, G, and H**). A floating bar plot

is used to compare all tested animals used for assessing SNP's effects (**Figure 6I,**

J and K). Mixed-effects analyses with Dunnett post hoc analyses showed that the

factor SNP/SNP + Blockers (*F (2.4, 44.5) = 6.0, p = 0.003*) to be significant but

that sex was not significant (*F (1, 56) = 0.1, p = 0.79*). Dunnett's post-hoc analysis

indicated that 1x IP SNP significantly reduced tail vasodilations in males (*p =*

0.0002) and females (*p = 0.01*), but saw no differences in tail vasodilations

between IP vehicle and IP SNP co-administered with either olcegepant or

sumatriptan (**Table 1**). Blockers were partially effective in regaining tail

vasodilations in SNP-treated mice, as half of mice were still affected by SNP's

effects (50% F/50% M). **Table 2** is provided to depict the differences in diminished

tail vasodilations observed across all treatments (CGRP/SNP + blockers) for both

male and female mice.

Discussion:

In this study, we show that systemic CGRP injections can induce motion

sickness in wildtype C57B6/J mice, and this motion sickness can be strongly

antagonized by the CGRP receptor blocker, olcegepant. Published studies

assessing CGRP's effects on light-aversive behavior (photophobia) and

cutaneous hypersensitivity (allodynia) in rodents indicate triptans are effective

in reducing these surrogate behaviors [30, 31], but interestingly in our study,

sumatriptan and rizatriptan did not show significant efficacy in blocking

CGRP's effects in motion sickness and motion-induced nausea. We have

used two different murine motion sickness assays: 1) MSI and 2) motion-

induced thermoregulation. In both assays, provocative motion caused distinct

changes, but MSI was too weighted on gastric distress. This bias reduced its

validity as an assay because gastrointestinal complications do not directly

imply motion sickness. However, the motion-induced thermoregulation model

is more suitable for studying motion sensitivity as it involves studying motion-

induced thermoregulation caused specifically by a vestibular stimulus – the

constant orbital rotation. In addition, the motion-induced thermoregulation

model was robust for assessing CGRP and SNP's effects. Similar rodent

studies suggest tail vasodilations are a precursor to emesis and removal of toxins

[11]. Our data showing CGRP's blunting of tail vasodilations to provocative motion

suggests that motion-induced nausea may be aggravated with CGRP and that

olcegepant is protective but not sumatriptan or rizatriptan. This finding is in

agreement with clinical findings that showed a 2-hour infusion of CGRP caused

gastrointestinal hyperactivity and nausea, and pretreatment with a CGRP receptor

antagonist ameliorated these clinical symptoms but pretreatment with sumatriptan

did not [32]. Moreover, a clinical meta-analysis of anti-CGRP signaling treatments

for nausea in episodic migraine provided strong support for their effectiveness [33].

Interestingly, we also observed that female mice were more severely affected

by systemic CGRP than their male counterparts, which correlates with

preclinical studies showing stronger tactile sensitivity in female mice when

challenged with durally applied CGRP [34].

<u>CGRP signaling and murine motion-sickness indices:</u>

Others have shown in human subjects and in mouse models that CGRP

causes diarrhea by disrupting peristaltic intestinal activity and promoting ion

and water secretion in the intestinal lumen, and that CGRP signaling

antagonism can reverse these effects [35-37]. Thus, it is expected that CGRP-

induced diarrhea would cause noticeable increases in the motion sickness

index (MSI) calculation. The OVAR rotation further increased the motion

sickness index (MSI) regardless of CGRP or SNP, highlighting the effect of a

strong vestibular perturbation in increasing MSI outcomes.

Interestingly, the motion-induced thermoregulation model revealed

differences between vehicle and CGRP/SNP injected mice. Differences in

motion-induced nausea after CGRP administration were significantly blocked

by a CGRP receptor antagonist (olcegepant) but not by triptans (sumatriptan

or rizatriptan). We also showed that in the stationary tests, there are no

thermoregulatory changes in the absence of provocative motion. While male

and female mice both showed disrupted thermoregulatory responses to IP

CGRP injections, dose response experiments at 0.05 and 1 mg/kg CGRP

show that olcegepant can rescue CGRP-induced nausea in male yet

olcegepant did not fully rescue all female mice. (**Table 2**). This sexual

dimorphism is similar to higher incidence of migraine and VM in female

patients [4, 38, 39] and reports of sexual-dimorphic effects of CGRP both in dura-

induced pain, spinal cord neuropathic pain, and preclinical surrogate of

allodynia or touch sensitivities [34]. To this end, other studies have

demonstrated a sex difference in the expression of CGRP receptor

components in the trigeminal nucleus [40].

This study is the first to provide preclinical evidence for the use of CGRP

antagonists in treating motion hypersensitivities that occur in VM, and should

be paired with findings from pertinent clinical trials for validation. We provide

data that the motion-induced thermoregulation assay is sensitive to the known

migraine triggers, CGRP and SNP, and show the effectiveness of different

migraine drugs ('gepants' and triptans) in reducing nausea responses

observed in this mouse model. Future experiments will assess if mice over- or

under-expressing the CGRP receptor will be more or less susceptible to

changes in their thermoregulatory responses to provocative motion, and if

migraine blockers can provide protection, to achieve the greater goal of

elucidating the role of CGRP signaling in the symptoms of nausea and motion

sickness that occur in migraine and VM.

Study Highlight Bullet points:

• Enhanced motion-induced nausea is an observed symptom in migraine and

especially vestibular migraine (VM).

• We used two different murine motion sickness assays (thermoregulation

and MSI), but MSI was too weighted on gastric distress to be effective.

• Differences in motion-induced thermoregulation after systemic CGRP

were blocked by olcegepant but not by triptans.

• Olcegepant was more effective in rescuing CGRP-induced nausea in

male mice then in female mice who were more affected by CGRP

injection..

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Figure Legends:

Figure 1: CGRP and SNP's effects on MSI: Female (pink) and male (blue)

C57B6J mice were tested for motion sickness indicators. Treatments were

delivered intraperitoneally (IP): vehicle control (open circle/open square), CGRP

(closed circle), SNP (closed square), olcegepant + CGRP (top half-filled circle),

and sumatriptan + CGRP (bottom half-filled circle). **(A)** Assay timeline is illustrated

and a table of criteria and MSI scoring. Motion sickness index (MSI) was

computed by a summation of criterion at the appropriate scoring and involved

measuring feces, piloerection, urination, and tremor. MSI was recorded at three

different time points. The vestibular challenge involved off-vertical axis rotation (60

rpm, 45° tilt from the vertical) for 30 minutes. **(B-D).** In each instance, the first

bar graph in each condition is MSI calculated either pre-injection (B), post-injection

(C), or pre-injection (D), and the second part of bar graphs are either post-

vestibular challenge (B & C), or post-injection (D) to tease apart effects of injection

with CGRP and vestibular challenge on MSI. In animals allocated for assessing

CGRP's effects, MSI outcomes significantly increased after injection and after the

vestibular challenge for all treatments. Tukey post-hoc indicated increased MSI

after IP CGRP (adj. p < 0.0001) or after IP CGRP+sumatriptan (adj. p = 0.0002)

compared to vehicle control. **(B-D).**   **(E-G).** When testing SNP's effects,

significant differences were seen in MSI outcomes after the vestibular challenge,

but no differences were seen when comparing vehicle control versus SNP.

Figure 2: Stationary and provocative motion testing after IP vehicle control:

(A) Using a FLIR E60 infrared camera, head and tail temperatures for all

conditions are recorded before, during, and after a provocative twenty-minute

orbital rotation acting as the vestibular challenge. Infrared recordings are 45

minutes in duration. (**B-E**). Sample sizes are depicted in the bottom left for female

(pink) and male (blue) C57B6/J mice. After administering vehicle control (saline),

(B and C) head and **(D and E)** tail temperatures were compared during **(C and E)**

stationary testing or **(B and D)** during the provocative rotation.   Head

temperatures for stationery and VC testing were fit to the second-order curve

($B_2X^2 + B_1X + B_0$) and delta head temperatures were computed by subtracting

temperature at time t = 20 mins from t = 0 mins. Head curves compute an

approximate hypothermia of -1.22^{o}C for females and -1.62^{o}C for males during VC

testing and a difference of 0.70^{o}C for females and 0.27^{o}C for males during

stationary testing. Delta tail vasodilations were computed by averaging individual

tail responses and are depicted as group averages +/- standard error of the mean

(SEM). During the first 10 minutes of the provocative rotation, delta tail

vasodilations were computed to be 4.6 ±0.3^{o}C for females and 6.1 ± 0.4^{o}C for

males. Mice during stationary testing did not experience delta tail vasodilations,

and thus a similar computation led to delta tail changes of -1.1 ± 0.8^{o}C for females

and 0.2 ± 0.6^{o}C for males.

Figure 3: Stationary testing after IP CGRP/SNP and test-retest of IP vehicle

control. Sample sizes are listed in the upper left corner. **(A and B)** Head

temperature curves were recorded during stationary testing after IP delivery of

vehicle control, 1x CGRP, and 1x SNP. **(C and F)** A different cohort of mice was

used to assess the test-retest reliability of head and tail temperatures during

provocative rotation. **(C)** When assessing test-retest reliability, no significant

differences were seen in the approximate magnitude of hypothermia in females

(test vs retest: -1.2 $^{\circ}$C vs -1.2 $^{\circ}$C) or males (test vs retest: -1.3 vs 1.2 $^{\circ}$C). (**D and**

E) Tail temperatures were compared between stationary tests for IP vehicle, IP

CGRP, and IP SNP as similarly done with head temperatures, and no significant

differences were seen. **(F)** Similar to head temperatures, test-retest of tail

measurements during provocative rotation showed no significant differences in

delta tail vasodilations in either female (test vs retest: 4.0 ± 0.8 $^{\circ}$C vs 4.2 ± 0.8 $^{\circ}$C)

or male (test vs retest: 4.9 ± 0.8 $^{\circ}$C vs 4.9 ± 0.9 $^{\circ}$C).

Figure 4: CGRP/SNP effects on hypothermia to provocative motion and

dose-dependent changes in tail vasodilations. Sample sizes are shown in the

upper right corner. Mice allocated for assessing CGRP's effects on head and tail

temperatures were tested for **(A and E)** vehicle control and then **(B and F)** 1x

CGRP at 0.1 mg/kg. When assessing head temperature recovery, the 2nd-order

curve fits extrapolated recovery times for vehicle control (female: 20.3 mins, male:

20.4 mins) and IP CGRP (females: 28.4 mins, male: 25.4 mins). Delta tail

vasodilations were observed under vehicle control (female: 4.56 ± 0.31 $^{\circ}$C, male:

6.05 ± 0.35 ^{o}C) but were significantly diminished after 1x IP CGRP delivery

(female: 0.61 ± 0.20 ^{o}C, male: 1.92 ± 0.40 ^{o}C). A separate mice cohort was

allocated for assessing SNP's effects on head and tail and was tested for **(C and**

G) vehicle control and later **(D and H)** 1x SNP at 2.5 mg/kg. While head

temperature recovery did not differ between vehicle and 1x IP SNP groups, delta

tail vasodilations were diminished after 1x IP SNP delivery (female: 0.3 ± 0.1 ^{o}C,

male: 1.1 ± 0.5 ^{o}C) when compared to vehicle control (female: 4.2 ± 1.0 ^{o}C, male:

3.4 ± 0.5 ^{o}C). **(I – L)** Dose-dependent changes in tail temperatures were observed

for both IP CGRP and IP SNP. For CGRP testing, 0.1x, 0.5x, and 1x

concentrations were prepared at 0.01, 0.05, and 0.1 mg/kg. For SNP testing, 0.1x,

0.5x, and 1x concentrations were prepared at 0.25 mg/kg, 1.25, and 2.5 mg/kg.

Figure 5: Olcegepant, but not sumatriptan or rizatriptan, protects against

CGRP's effects on tail vasodilations: (A-J) Sample sizes are labeled in the

bottom right corner. Tail temperatures were recorded IP delivery of vehicle control,

CGRP, CGRP+olcegepant, CGRP + sumatriptan and CGRP + rizatriptan. **K**. A

floating bar plot is used to compare all animals used to assess CGRP and

CGRP+blockers' effects on delta tail vasodilations. Tukey post-hoc analysis

showed delta tail vasodilations were significantly diminished after CGRP,　after

CGRP+sumatriptan, and after CGRP + rizatriptan delivery in both sexes but no

significant differences between vehicle control and CGRP+olcegepant.　**L.** Mice

treated with 0.5x IP CGRP also showed reduced delta tail vasodilations compared

to vehicle control, and fully regained near normal vasodilations when treated with

IP 0.5x CGRP + olcegepant.

Figure 6: Olcegepant and sumatriptan block SNP's effects on tail

vasodilations: (A-H) Similar to CGRP testing, tail temperatures were recorded

after IP delivery of vehicle control, SNP, SNP+olcegepant, and SNP+sumatriptan,

and sample sizes are labeled in the bottom right corner. Tukey's post-hoc analysis

showed that SNP diminished delta tail vasodilations compared to vehicle control in

both sexes , yet no difference between vehicle vs IP SNP+olcegepant,　or vehicle

vs IP SNP+sumatriptan. **(I)** A floating bar graph depicts delta tail values for all

mice assessed with SNP and　SNP + blockers.

Table Legends:

Table 1: Two-way mixed-effects models were computed to assess the effects of

treatment (CGRP, SNP, or CGRP/SNP + Blockers) on delta tail vasodilations.

Mice were separated by sex and the interaction of treatment x sex was also

considered. Separate groups of mice were used to compare the effects of

CGRP/CGRP+Blockers or SNP/SNP + Blockers. The Geisser-Greenhouse

Correction (ε) was applied to factors that are repeated measures. Tukey post-hoc

comparisons are described in relation to vehicle control in males and females. For

tabular results and multiple comparisons, F and P-values are listed accordingly.

Table 2: Diminished tail vasodilations indicate a disrupted response to provocative

rotation. Percentage of mice that exhibited diminished delta tail vasodilations

($<1.5^{o}$ C) during motion-induced thermoregulation testing across treatment.

Treatments are administered at the following concentrations: 0.1x CGRP - 0.01

mg/kg, 0.5x CGRP - 0.05 mg/kg, 1x CGRP - 0.1 mg/kg, 1x olcegepant - 1 mg/kg,

sumatriptan - 0.6 mg/kg, rizatriptan - 0.6 mg/kg, SNP - 2.5 mg/kg.

A

Pre-injection/Post-vestibular challenge (Post VC) - (B&E)

Post-injection/Post VC - (C&F)

Pre-injection/Post-injection-(D&G)

Vestibular Challenge (VC)
OVAR rotation (20 m)

Inject vehicle/CGRP/SNP
or CGRP/SNP+blockers IP

∠45°

Criterion	MS Index scoring
Fecal Granules	0-none; 1 per fecal granule
Piloerection	0-none; 0.6 light; 1.2 severe
Urination	0-none; 1.2 urination
Tremor	0-none; 1.2 tremor

700   Figure 1

729 Figure 2

    Figure 3

733   Figure 4

735   Figure 5

Figure 6

Table 1

Delta Tail - mixed effects models						
Analysis	**Factors**	**P-val**	**F (DFn, DFd)**	**Sex**	**Treatment**	**P-val**
CGRP vs CGRP+Blockers	CGRP/CGRP+Blockers	<0.001	F (4, 93) = 61.62	M	vehicle vs. CGRP	<0.001
					vehicle vs. CGRP + olcegepant	0.5
					vehicle vs. CGRP + sumatriptan	<0.001
	Sex	0.002	F (1, 69) = 10.20		vehicle vs. CGRP + rizatriptan	0.003
				F	vehicle vs. CGRP	<0.001
	CGRP/CGRP Blockers x sex	0.86	F (4, 93) = 0.32		vehicle vs. CGRP + olcegepant	0.1
					vehicle vs. CGRP + sumatriptan	<0.001
					vehicle vs. CGRP + rizatriptan	0.008
SNP vs SNP+Blockers	SNP/SNP+Blockers	0.003	F (2.4, 44.5) = 5.96	M	vehicle vs. SNP	0.0002
					vehicle vs. SNP + olcegepant	0.58
	Sex	0.79	F (1, 56) = 0.07		vehicle vs. SNP + sumatriptan	0.96
				F	vehicle vs. SNP	0.01
	SNP/SNP+Blockers vs Sex	0.77	F (3, 56) = 0.38		vehicle vs. SNP + olcegepant	0.27
					vehicle vs. SNP + sumatriptan	0.42

Table 2

Reduced delta tail vasodilations (< 1.5 ^{o}C) during motion-induced thermoregulation		
Treatment	**Female %**	**Males %**
Vehicle	0.0%	0.0%
0.1x CGRP	22.2%	0.0%
0.5x CGRP	77.7%	50.0%
1.0x CGRP	83.3%	45.0%
0.5x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant	14.2%	20.0%
1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant	57.1%	20.0%
1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan	87.5%	60.0%
1.0x CGRP + 1.0x rizatriptan	75.0%	87.5%
1.0x SNP	100.0%	75.0%
1.0x SNP + 1.0x olcegepant	50.0%	50.0%
1.0x SNP + 1.0x sumatriptan	50.0%	50.0%