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

2. Author names and Affiliations: Shafaqat M. Rahman[1] & Anne E. Luebke[1,2*]

[1]University of Rochester, Department of Biomedical Engineering, Rochester, NY

14627.

[2]University of Rochester Medical Center, Department of Neuroscience, Del Monte

Institute of Neuroscience, Rochester, NY 14642.

3. Corresponding author contact details: Anne E. Luebke,

aluebke@ur.rochester.edu

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 both 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

Acknowledgments: We would like to acknowledge assistance with data collection

and analysis from Vedat Duzgezen, Stefanie Faucher, Elana Fine, Catherine

Hauser, Benjamin Liang, and Blaze Strangio. This work was fully supported by

NIH R01DC017261 (AEL).

Competing interests: No authors have any financial or non-financial competing

interests.

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]. 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. It is also 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. This was driven by

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

administration. However, motion-induced thermoregulation was a robust model of

motion sickness. 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 motion-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 145 mice (73 M/ 72 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)

and were not included in this study [23].

Drug administration: All 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 1.0x CGRP were prepared at 0.01, 0.05,

and 0.1 mg/kg (rat α-CGRP, Sigma), 1.0x olcegepant was prepared at 1.0 mg/kg

(BIBN4096, Tocris), 1.0x sumatriptan was prepared at 0.6 mg/kg (Sigma-Aldrich),

1.0x rizatriptan was prepared at 0.6 mg/kg (Sigma-Aldrich), and 0.1x, 0.5x, and

1.0x 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.

Off-Vertical Axis Rotation (OVAR): 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.

Motion-Sickness Index (MSI) Testing: 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*),

B) twenty to thirty minutes after drug injection (*post-injection*), and C) five

minutes after the OVAR (*post-VC*). Mice were placed in a testing box separate

from their home cage to observe for indicators of motion sickness detailed in

Fig. 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 when 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 incontinence.

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.

<u>Motion-Induced Thermoregulation Testing</u>**:** 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 Δ *tail vasodilations* (^{o}C), and were computed by subtracting the

baseline 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 Δ 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 Δ tail vasodilation and those less than +1.5^{o}C did not

meet the criteria. Mice were excluded from further testing if their Δ tail vasodilation

during the vehicle control test 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, 1.0x CGRP, and 1.0x SNP injections. Additionally, we

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

and SNP to compare with 1.0x effects.

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

9.5. Multivariate ANOVAs were analyzed for MSI and motion-induced

thermoregulation testing and are described in detail in the results. Second-

order curve fitting ($B_2*X^2 + B_1*X + B_0$) 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. Head recovery

(mins) was approximated by calculating the time to reach baseline using the

208 equation $(-B_1 + \sqrt{(B_1{}^2)}) / (2B_2)$ and subtracting it from t = 20 mins. For test-

209 retest reliability of head and tail profiles, Pearson's correlation coefficient is

210 listed as r (df), where r is the coefficient and df is the degrees of freedom. R^2

211 values are provided. Values are reported as mean ± SEM unless noted

212 otherwise, and significance was set at $p < 0.05$ for all analyses.

214 **Results:**

215 <u>CGRP and SNP's effects on motion sickness index</u>

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

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

218 $5HT_{1D}$ receptor agonist sumatriptan could mitigate MSI according to the timeline

219 shown in **Fig. 1A**. In females, a two-way ANOVA analyzed MSI outcomes

220 between treatments (CGRP versus CGRP co-delivered with blockers) and

221 between pre-injection versus post-vestibular challenge (VC) time points (**Fig. 1B**).

222 Significant effects were observed due to treatment ($F_{(2.15, 19.35)} = 9.94$; p <

223 0.001) and post- VC ($F_{(1.00, 9.00)} = 308.20$; $p < 0.001$). Bonferroni post-hoc test

224 showed that this increase was present for every treatment ($p < 0.001$ for all

225 comparisons). Post-VC MSI was higher after 1.0x CGRP ($p < 0.002$) and after

1.0x CGRP + sumatriptan ($p = 0.1$, trending) than vehicle, but significant

differences were not observed between 1.0x vehicle and 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x

olcegepant. This analysis was also conducted in males and the factors of

treatment ($F_{(3.00, 30.00)} = 19.09$; $p < 0.001$) and post-VC effects ($F_{(1.00, 30.00)}$

$= 634.8$; $p < 0.001$) were also strong. Bonferroni's post-hoc test showed post-VC

MSI was higher than pre-injection MSI for every treatment in males ($p < 0.001$).

Like females, post-VC MSI after 1.0x CGRP and 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan in

males was significantly higher than after vehicle ($p < 0.001$ each), but this

difference to vehicle was not seen with 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant. In **Fig. 1C**,

MSI outcomes after IP injection were compared to post-VC MSI, and 2-way

ANOVAs in females and males showed similar trends as was established in the

analysis portrayed in **Fig. 1B**. In **Fig. 1D**, pre-injection MSI was compared to post-

injection MSI, and with the exception of vehicle, post-injection MSI was higher than

pre-injection baseline. **(Fig. 1E-G)** A separate group of mice were tested for MSI

after 1.0x SNP ($n = 9M/9F$), and significant differences were observed when

comparing pre-injection to post-VC, post-injection to post-VC, and pre-injection to

post-injection. However, the effect of 1.0x SNP was not different from vehicle, and

so MSI was not further evaluated with co-delivery of SNP and blockers. A detailed

breakdown of F-values and p-statistics is found in **Table 1**.

<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 fecal incontinence, and so 2-way ANOVAs were used to assess

differences in fecal incontinence after treatment and across time points in males

and females (data not shown). Consistent in both sexes, Bonferroni post-hoc

analyses comparing post-VC fecal incontinence outcomes indicated high fecal

excretion after 1.0x CGRP ($p < 0.001$) and after 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan (p

< 0.001) compared to vehicle tests, but not in mice treated with 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x

olcegepant ($p = 0.99$). Diarrhea is a frequent observation after 1.0x CGRP and

1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan but not after 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant. Mice

treated with SNP did not exhibit diarrhea or increased fecal granules across all

time points or when compared to vehicle. 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. Thus, 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>

Fig. 2A describes the experiment for assessing motion-induced

thermoregulation. After a five-minute baseline recording, mice (n = 28M/27F) 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 similar magnitudes of the mouse's head hypothermia to

between males and females (**Fig. 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 Δ tail vasodilations were quantified for

females (4.34 ± 0.34 ^{o}C) and males (5.44 ± 0.42 ^{o}C) (**Fig. 2D**). To ensure that the

hypothermia and the tail vasodilations were physiological responses to the

provocative motion stimulus, a separate group of mice (n = 10M/9F) was tested

similarly but for stationary testing after vehicle treatment. No observed

hypothermia or transient vasodilations were seen in mice of either sex during the

stationary tests (**Fig. 2C** & **2E**).

CGRP and SNP's effects during stationary test

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

CGRP and SNP effects, mice assessed for vehicle stationary tests (n = 9M/9F)

were further tested with 1.0x CGRP **(Fig. 3A & D)** and 1.0x SNP **(Fig. 3B & E)**. No

differences were seen in the head or tail temperatures after 1.0x CGRP or 1.0x

SNP testing compared to vehicle, and hypothermia or Δ tail vasodilations were not

observed.

Test-retest reliability during provocative motion

After vehicle administration, male and female mice exhibited hypothermia

during the provocative rotation and this response was repeatably observed in the

retest (n = 9M/8F). In **Fig. 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. In **Fig. 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). The Δ tail vasodilations were

observed to have similar magnitudes 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 **Fig. 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 (28F/27M). A general trend of extended recovery times was

observed due to 1.0x CGRP delivery (female: 24.0 mins, R^2 = 0.73; male: 23.7

mins, R^2 = 0.83) compared to their vehicle control responses (female: 20.7 mins,

R^2 = 0.76; male: 19.0 mins, R^2 = 0.87). We observed no differences in the

magnitude of head hypothermia between CGRP and vehicle control tests in either

sex. **Fig. 4E and F** show tail temperature profiles after 1.0x CGRP, and a 2-way

ANOVA showed effects of biological sex ($F_{(1, 53)}$ = 6.79, p = 0.01) and CGRP (F

$_{(1, 53)}$ = 251.7, p < 0.001). 100% of mice exhibited normal Δ tail vasodilations

after vehicle control administration but a majority of mice (89% female, 59% male)

exhibited diminished Δ tail vasodilations (Bonferroni, p < 0.001) after 1.0x CGRP

administration when compared to vehicle (**Fig. 5E**). Due to the diminished Δ

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 (8F/8M), and

temperature profiles were analyzed. When measuring head temperatures, we did

not observe any differences in recovery time or in the magnitude of head

hypothermia (**Fig. 4C and D**). However, similar to CGRP, a 2-way ANOVA

indicated SNP impacted Δtail vasodilations ($F_{(1, 14)} = 38.8$, $p < 0.001$) but saw no

effects of biological sex ($F_{(1, 14)} = 0.002$, $p = 0.97$). Bonferroni post hoc analysis

indicated 100% of females ($p < 0.001$) and 75% of males ($p < 0.01$) exhibited

diminished vasodilations after 1.0x SNP (**Fig. 6G and 6H**).

Dose-dependent response of CGRP or SNP on tail vasodilations

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

= 10M/9F) and Δ tail vasodilations were analyzed for vehicle, 0.1x and 0.5x of IP

CGRP or IP SNP, and these mice were compared with the original groups of mice

tested for vehicle and 1.0x CGRP (**Fig. 4I-L**). A 2-way mixed effects model and

Bonferroni post hoc assessed the factors: biological sex and CGRP/SNP dilutions.

0.1x CGRP had no significant effect on Δ tail vasodilations in either sex. However,

differences were observed when comparing Δ tail vasodilations between vehicle

and 0.5x CGRP **(Supplementary Fig.S1 A.)** in females ($p < 0.001$) and in males

($p = 0.03$). Significant differences in Δ tail vasodilations were seen when

comparing vehicle and 1.0x CGRP in both sexes ($p < 0.001$ each). When

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

and 0.5x SNP compared to vehicle control **(Supplementary Fig. S1 B)**, but a

significant difference was seen when comparing vehicle to 1.0x SNP in females (p

$= 0.01$) and in males ($p = 0.0002$). The greatest effect of CGRP and SNP on Δ tail

vasodilations was observed at their 1.0x concentration and these concentrations

were used to assess the migraine blockers.

Olcegepant but not triptans protect against CGRP's effects on tail vasodilations

344   Administration of 1.0x CGRP reduced Δ tail vasodilations in nearly all mice

(**Fig. 5E**), and so it was hypothesized that these mice would regain their healthy

response to provocative motion with IP treatment of either CGRP + olcegepant (n

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

7M/7F), and different groups of mice were used. Prior to assessing CGRP +

blockers, groups of mice were assessed for blocker-only effects by testing vehicle

+ 1.0x olcegepant (n = 8F/10M), vehicle + 1.0x sumatriptan (n = 7F/10M), or

vehicle + 1.0x rizatriptan (n = 7F/7M), 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 **(Supplementary Fig. S2)**.

Tail temperature profiles were recorded and displayed for vehicle and drug

treatments (**Fig. 5A-D, G, H, J, K, M & N**). After quantifying Δ tail vasodilations,

one-way ANOVAs were used to assess CGRP + blocker effects in the designated

groups, and Dunnett post-hoc analysis was used to compare treatments to

vehicle. F-values and ANOVA p-values are listed in **Table 1**. We observed

olcegepant blocked CGRP-induced changes in males because Δ tail vasodilations

resembled vehicle **(Fig. 5F)**, and this protective effect was trending in females (p =

0.06). In contrast, triptans did not have a protective effect **(Fig. 5L & O)**. Mice after

1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan still exhibited diminished Δ tail vasodilations

compared to their IP vehicle test (p < 0.001 in females and p = 0.004 in males). A

similar observation was seen in mice after treatment of IP 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x

rizatriptan, as tail vasodilations were still significantly diminished in both sexes

compared their IP vehicle test (p = 0.003 in females and p = 0.004 in males). In

the dose-dependent response study, mice that experienced reduced vasodilations

due to the 0.5x CGRP dose were later tested with 0.5x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant,

and 86% of females and 80% of males were rescued after delivery of 1.0x

olcegepant (**Fig. 5I).** 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>

The effects of olcegepant and sumatriptan were also assessed against 1.0x

SNP (n = 8M/8F) that had reduced Δ tail vasodilations in nearly all mice **(Fig. 6E)**,

and tail temperatures are depicted (**Fig. 6A-D, F, G, I, & J)**. In order to conserve

mice, the same mice were treated with 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant and four

days later with 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan. 1-way ANOVAs with Dunnett post

hoc were computed and F-values and statistics are in **Table 1**. In females and

males, robust Δ tail vasodilation responses were observed in 50% of females and

50% males after 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant **(Fig. 6H)**, and these percentages

were also seen when mice were later tested with 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan

(Fig. 6K). Post-hoc analyses in both sexes indicated no significant difference in tail

vasodilations for either SNP + blocker when compared to vehicle. These mice

were not further tested with blockers at lower doses of SNP. **Table 2** is provided to

depict the percentage differences in the prevalence of diminished Δ tail

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

male and female mice.

<u>Discussion:</u>

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 triptans. This result 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 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 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. These experiments will 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.

<u>Study Highlight Bullet points:</u>

• 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

thermoregulatory changes in male compared to female mice.

<u>References:</u>

1.   Ozcelik P, Kocoglu K, Ozturk V, et al. Characteristic differences between

vestibular migraine and migraine only patients. *J Neurol* 2022; 269: 336-341. 2021/06/11.

DOI: 10.1007/s00415-021-10636-0.

2.   Wang J and Lewis RF. Contribution of intravestibular sensory conflict to motion

sickness and dizziness in migraine disorders. *J Neurophysiol* 2016; 116: 1586-1591.

2016/07/08. DOI: 10.1152/jn.00345.2016.

3.   Wurthmann S, Naegel S, Roesner M, et al. Sensitized rotatory motion perception

and increased susceptibility to motion sickness in vestibular migraine: A cross-sectional

study. *Eur J Neurol* 2021; 28: 2357-2366. 2021/04/30. DOI: 10.1111/ene.14889.

4.   Huang TC, Wang SJ and Kheradmand A. Vestibular migraine: An update on

current understanding and future directions. *Cephalalgia* 2020; 40: 107-121. 2019/08/10.

DOI: 10.1177/0333102419869317.

5.   Krishnan PS and Carey JP. Vestibular Migraine: Clinical Aspects and

Pathophysiology. *Otolaryngol Clin North Am* 2022; 55: 531-547. 2022/04/29. DOI:

10.1016/j.otc.2022.02.003.

6.   Lempert T, Olesen J, Furman J, et al. Vestibular migraine: Diagnostic criteria1. *J*

Vestib Res 2022; 32: 1-6. 2021/11/02. DOI: 10.3233/VES-201644.

7.   Mallampalli MP, Rizk HG, Kheradmand A, et al. Care Gaps and

Recommendations in Vestibular Migraine: An Expert Panel Summit. *Front Neurol* 2021;

12: 812678. 2022/01/21. DOI: 10.3389/fneur.2021.812678.

8.   Wang J and Lewis RF. Abnormal Tilt Perception During Centrifugation in Patients

with Vestibular Migraine. *J Assoc Res Otolaryngol* 2016; 17: 253-258. 2016/03/10. DOI:

10.1007/s10162-016-0559-7.

9.   Cha YH, Golding JF, Keshavarz B, et al. Motion sickness diagnostic criteria:

Consensus Document of the Classification Committee of the Barany Society. *J Vestib Res*

2021; 31: 327-344. 2021/03/02. DOI: 10.3233/VES-200005.

10.   Nalivaiko E, Rudd JA and So RH. Motion sickness, nausea and thermoregulation:

The "toxic" hypothesis. *Temperature (Austin)* 2014; 1: 164-171. 2014/10/01. DOI:

10.4161/23328940.2014.982047.

11.   Tu L, Poppi L, Rudd J, et al. Alpha-9 nicotinic acetylcholine receptors mediate

hypothermic responses elicited by provocative motion in mice. *Physiol Behav* 2017; 174:

114-119. DOI: 10.1016/j.physbeh.2017.03.012.

12.   Yu XH, Cai GJ, Liu AJ, et al. A novel animal model for motion sickness and its first

application in rodents. *Physiol Behav* 2007; 92: 702-707. DOI:

10.1016/j.physbeh.2007.05.067.

13.   Wei X, Wang ZB, Zhang LC, et al. Verification of motion sickness index in mice.

CNS Neurosci Ther 2011; 17: 790-792. 2011/11/29. DOI: 10.1111/j.1755-

5949.2011.00272.x.

14.   Goadsby PJ, Lipton RB and Ferrari MD. Migraine--current understanding and

treatment. *N Engl J Med* 2002; 346: 257-270. DOI: 10.1056/NEJMra010917.

15.   Lassen LH, Haderslev PA, Jacobsen VB, et al. CGRP may play a causative role in

migraine. *Cephalalgia* 2002; 22: 54-61.

16.   Tringali G and Navarra P. Anti-CGRP and anti-CGRP receptor monoclonal

antibodies as antimigraine agents. Potential differences in safety profile postulated on a

pathophysiological basis. *Peptides* 2019; 116: 16-21. 2019/04/25. DOI:

10.1016/j.peptides.2019.04.012.

17.   Scuteri D, Adornetto A, Rombola L, et al. New Trends in Migraine Pharmacology:

Targeting Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (CGRP) With Monoclonal Antibodies. *Front

Pharmacol* 2019; 10: 363. 2019/04/27. DOI: 10.3389/fphar.2019.00363.

18.   Bates EA, Nikai T, Brennan KC, et al. Sumatriptan alleviates nitroglycerin-induced

mechanical and thermal allodynia in mice. *Cephalalgia* 2010; 30: 170-178. 2009/06/06.

DOI: 10.1111/j.1468-2982.2009.01864.x.

19.   Russo AF. Calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP): a new target for migraine.

Annu Rev Pharmacol Toxicol 2015; 55: 533-552. DOI: 10.1146/annurev-pharmtox-

010814-124701.

20.   Recober A, Kuburas A, Zhang Z, et al. Role of calcitonin gene-related peptide in

light-aversive behavior: implications for migraine. *J Neurosci* 2009; 29: 8798-8804. DOI:

10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1727-09.2009.

21.   Wang M, Duong TL, Rea BJ, et al. CGRP Administration Into the Cerebellum

Evokes Light Aversion, Tactile Hypersensitivity, and Nociceptive Squint in Mice. *Front

Pain Res (Lausanne)* 2022; 3: 861598. 2022/05/14. DOI: 10.3389/fpain.2022.861598.

22.   Lessem SE. QuickStats: Percentage of Adults Who Had a Severe Headache or

Migraine in the Past 3 months, by Sex and Age Grou - National Health Interview Survey,

United States, 2018. In: Statistics NCfH, (ed.). *Morbidity and Mortality Weekly Report

(MMWR)*. March 27th, 2020 ed. 2018.

23.   Meyer CW, Ootsuka Y and Romanovsky AA. Body Temperature Measurements

for Metabolic Phenotyping in Mice. *Front Physiol* 2017; 8: 520. 2017/08/22. DOI:

10.3389/fphys.2017.00520.

24.   Furman JM, Schor RH and Schumann TL. Off-vertical axis rotation: a test of the

otolith-ocular reflex. *Ann Otol Rhinol Laryngol* 1992; 101: 643-650. 1992/08/01. DOI:

10.1177/000348949210100803.

25.   Hess BJM and Dieringer N. Spatial Organization of the Maculo-Ocular Reflex of

the Rat: Responses During Off-Vertical Axis Rotation. *European Journal of Neuroscience*

1990; 2: 909-919. DOI: 10.1111/j.1460-9568.1990.tb00003.x.

26.   Beraneck M, Bojados M, Le Seac'h A, et al. Ontogeny of mouse vestibulo-ocular

reflex following genetic or environmental alteration of gravity sensing. *PLoS One* 2012; 7:

e40414. 2012/07/19. DOI: 10.1371/journal.pone.0040414.

27.   Dai M, Sofroniou S, Kunin M, et al. Motion sickness induced by off-vertical axis

rotation (OVAR). *Exp Brain Res* 2010; 204: 207-222. 2010/06/11. DOI: 10.1007/s00221-

010-2305-4.

28.   Dai M, Kunin M, Raphan T, et al. The relation of motion sickness to the spatial-

temporal properties of velocity storage. *Exp Brain Res* 2003; 151: 173-189. 2003/06/05.

DOI: 10.1007/s00221-003-1479-4.

29.   Idoux E, Tagliabue M and Beraneck M. No Gain No Pain: Relations Between

Vestibulo-Ocular Reflexes and Motion Sickness in Mice. *Front Neurol* 2018; 9: 918.

2018/11/30. DOI: 10.3389/fneur.2018.00918.

30.   Christensen SL, Petersen S, Kristensen DM, et al. Targeting CGRP via receptor

antagonism and antibody neutralisation in two distinct rodent models of migraine-like pain.

Cephalalgia 2019; 39: 1827-1837. 2019/07/11. DOI: 10.1177/0333102419861726.

31.   Russo AF, Kuburas A, Kaiser EA, et al. A Potential Preclinical Migraine Model:

CGRP-Sensitized Mice. *Mol Cell Pharmacol* 2009; 1: 264-270. 2009/01/01.

32.   Falkenberg K, Bjerg HR and Olesen J. Two-Hour CGRP Infusion Causes

Gastrointestinal Hyperactivity: Possible Relevance for CGRP Antibody Treatment.

Headache: The Journal of Head and Face Pain 2020; 60: 929-937. DOI:

10.1111/head.13795.

33.   Chan TLH, Cowan RP and Woldeamanuel YW. Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide

Receptor Antagonists (Gepants) for the Acute Treatment of Nausea in Episodic Migraine:

A Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis. *Headache* 2020; 60: 1489-1499. 2020/06/10.

DOI: 10.1111/head.13858.

34.   Paige C, Plasencia-Fernandez I, Kume M, et al. A Female-Specific Role for

Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (CGRP) in Rodent Pain Models. *J Neurosci* 2022; 42:

1930-1944. 2022/01/22. DOI: 10.1523/JNEUROSCI.1137-21.2022.

35.   Kaiser EA, Rea BJ, Kuburas A, et al. Anti-CGRP antibodies block CGRP-induced

diarrhea in mice. *Neuropeptides* 2017; 64: 95-99. 2016/11/21. DOI:

10.1016/j.npep.2016.11.004.

36.   Holzer P and Holzer-Petsche U. Constipation Caused by Anti-calcitonin Gene-

Related Peptide Migraine Therapeutics Explained by Antagonism of Calcitonin Gene-

Related Peptide's Motor-Stimulating and Prosecretory Function in the Intestine. *Front*

Physiol 2021; 12: 820006. 2022/01/29. DOI: 10.3389/fphys.2021.820006.

37.   Johnson KW, Li X, Huang X, et al. Characterization of transit rates in the large

intestine of mice following treatment with a CGRP antibody, CGRP receptor antibody, and

small molecule CGRP receptor antagonists. *Headache* 2022; 62: 848-857. 2022/07/14.

DOI: 10.1111/head.14336.

38.   Allais G, Chiarle G, Sinigaglia S, et al. Gender-related differences in migraine.

Neurol Sci 2020; 41: 429-436. 2020/08/28. DOI: 10.1007/s10072-020-04643-8.

39.   Shen Y, Qi X and Wan T. The Treatment of Vestibular Migraine: A Narrative

Review. *Ann Indian Acad Neurol* 2020; 23: 602-607. 2021/02/25. DOI:

10.4103/aian.AIAN_591_19.

40.   Ji Y, Rizk A, Voulalas P, et al. Sex differences in the expression of calcitonin gene-

related peptide receptor components in the spinal trigeminal nucleus. *Neurobiol Pain*

2019; 6: 100031. 2019/06/22. DOI: 10.1016/j.ynpai.2019.100031.

 Fig. Legends:

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

C57B6/J 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. In each instance, the first bar graph

in each condition is MSI calculated either pre-injection **(B & E),** post-injection **(C &**

F), or pre-injection **(D & G)**, and the second part of bar graphs are either post-

vestibular challenge **(B, C, E & F)**, or post-injection **(D & G)**. Two-way ANOVAs

were analyzed in males and in females. F-statistics and p-values can be found in

Table 1.

Fig. 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.
Sample sizes are depicted in the bottom left for female (pink) and male (blue)
C57B6/J mice. After administering vehicle (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 Δ head temperatures
were computed by subtracting temperature at time t = 20 mins from t = 0 mins.
Head curves compute similar hypothermia between sexes but different from
stationary tests. During the first 10 minutes of the provocative rotation, Δ tail
vasodilations were computed to be 4.34 ±0.34^{o}C for females and 5.44 ± 0.42^{o}C for
males. Mice during stationary testing did not experience Δ tail vasodilations, and
had Δ tail changes of -1.1 ± 0.8^{o}C for females and 0.2 ± 0.6^{o}C for males.

Fig. 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, 1.0x CGRP, and 1.0x 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

^{o}C vs -1.2 ^{o}C) or males (test vs retest: -1.3 vs 1.2 ^{o}C). (**D and E**) Tail

temperatures were compared between stationary tests for vehicle, 1.0x CGRP,

and 1.0x 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 Δ

tail vasodilations in either female (test vs retest: 4.00 ± 0.80 ^{o}C vs 4.20 ± 0.80 ^{o}C)

or male (test vs retest: 4.90 ± 0.80 ^{o}C vs 4.90 ± 0.90 ^{o}C).

Fig. 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 & E)** vehicle and then **(B & F)** 1.0x CGRP. When

assessing head temperature recovery, the 2nd-order curve fits extrapolated

recovery times for vehicle control (female: 20.7 mins, male: 19.0 mins) and IP

CGRP (females: 24.0 mins, male: 23.7 mins). The Δ tail vasodilations observed

after vehicle treatment significantly diminished after 1.0x CGRP. A separate mice

cohort was allocated for assessing SNP's effects on head and tail and was tested

for **(C & G)** vehicle control and later **(D & H)** 1.0x SNP. While head temperature

recovery did not differ between vehicle and 1.0x SNP groups, Δ tail vasodilations

were diminished after 1.0x SNP. **(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 1.0x 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.

Fig. 5: Olcegepant, but not sumatriptan or rizatriptan, protects against

CGRP's effects on tail vasodilations. Sample sizes are labeled in the bottom

right corner. Tail temperatures were recorded after IP delivery of **(A & B)** vehicle,

(C & D) 1.0x CGRP, **(F & G)** 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant, **(J & K)** 1.0x CGRP +

1.0x sumatriptan and **(M & N)** 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x rizatriptan. **(E)** Bonferroni post-

hoc indicated diminished tail vasodilations after 1.0x CGRP in all mice (p < 0.001

in either sex). **(F)** Dunnett post-hoc comparisons suggested olcegepant protected

against CGRP-induced effects more strongly in males than females. When

comparing 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant to vehicle, no differences were observed

in males. In females, differences were deemed not significant but were less certain

as p = 0.057. **(I)** Mice treated with 0.5x CGRP and exhibited diminished Δ tail

vasodilations were treated with 0.5x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant and recovered their

response. **(L & O)** Mice were not protected by 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan or

by 1.0x CGRP + 1.0x rizatriptan as Δ tail vasodilations were still diminished

compared to their vehicle response (vehicle vs CGRP + sumatriptan: p < 0.001 in

females and p = 0.004 in males; vehicle vs CGRP + rizatriptan: p = 0.003 in

females and p = 0.004 in males).

Fig. 6: Olcegepant and sumatriptan block SNP's effects on tail vasodilations:
Similar to CGRP testing, tail temperatures were recorded after IP delivery of **(A &**
B) vehicle, **(C & D)** 1.0x SNP, **(F & G)** 1.0x SNP + 1.0x olcegepant, and **(I & J)**
1.0x SNP + 1.0x sumatriptan, and sample sizes are labeled in the bottom right
corner. **(E)** Dunnett's post-hoc comparisons showed that SNP diminished Δ tail
vasodilations compared to vehicle control in both sexes. No differences were

observed between **(H)** vehicle vs 1.0x SNP + 1.0x olcegepant, or **(K)** vehicle vs

1.0x SNP + 1.0x sumatriptan in either sex.

Supplementary Fig. S1: A. 2-way mixed effects model assessed the factors i)

sex (male vs female) and ii) CGRP dilutions (0.1x, 0.5x, and 1.0x CGRP).

Compared to vehicle responses, significant differences were observed at 0.5x

CGRP for females ($p < 0.001$) and for males ($p = 0.03$). These differences were

more strongly observed at 1.0x CGRP ($p < 0.001$ for both sexes). 0.1x CGRP did

not have a strong effect. Sample sizes are listed: vehicle (34 F/37M), 0.1x, and

0.5x CGRP (9F/10M), 1.0x CGRP (28F/27M). **B.** 2-way mixed effects model

assessed the factors i) sex (male vs female) and ii) SNP dilutions (0.1x, 0.5x, and

1.0x SNP). Compared to vehicle responses, significant differences were observed

at 1.0x SNP for females ($p = 0.015$) and for males ($p = 0.0002$). Significant

differences were not seen at 0.1x and 0.5x SNP. All 8F/8M were tested across

dilutions.

Supplementary Fig. S2: In females and males, 1-way mixed effect models with

Dunnett's post hoc comparison tests were computed to assess drug controls to the

vehicle (Veh), and no significant differences were observed. Sample sizes are

listed: vehicle (28 F/27M), Veh + 1x Olceg (8F/10M), Veh + 1.0x Suma (7F/10M),

Veh + 1.0x Riza (7F/7M).

Table Legends:

Table 1: ANOVA analyses are depicted for motion sickness index (MSI) testing

(top half) and for Δ tail vasodilations from motion-induced thermoregulation assay

(bottom half). Analyses were conducted separately in males and females. The

following abbreviations are listed: pre-injection is pre-inj, post-injection is post-inj,

post-vestibular challenge is post-VC, olcegepant is olceg, and sumatriptan is

suma. For MSI, two-way repeated measure ANOVAs with Bonferroni post hoc

comparisons were computed to assess two factors: treatment (vehicle, CGRP,

CGRP+olceg, CGRP+suma) and timepoint differences (pre-inj vs post-VC, post-inj

vs post-VC, and pre-inj vs post-inj). For Δ tail vasodilations, 1-way ANOVAs were

conducted to study effects of olcegepant, sumatriptan, and rizatriptan. Dunnett

post-hoc comparisons were between treatments to vehicle. 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 Δtail vasodilations ($<1.5^{\circ}$ C)

during motion-induced thermoregulation testing across treatment. Treatments are

717 administered at the following concentrations: 0.1x CGRP - 0.01 mg/kg, 0.5x CGRP

718 - 0.05 mg/kg, 1.0x CGRP - 0.1 mg/kg, 1.0x olcegepant - 1 mg/kg, 1.0x sumatriptan

719 - 0.6 mg/kg, 1.0x rizatriptan - 0.6 mg/kg, 1.0x SNP - 2.5 mg/kg.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

Fig. 5

Fig. 6

Supplementary Fig. S1

Supplementary Fig. S2

Table 1

Assay	Biological Sex	ANOVAs	Post-Hoc	
Motion Sickness Index (MSI)	Females	pre-inj vs post-VC: F (1.00, 9.00) = 308.2, p < 0.001 treatment: F (2.15, 19.35) = 9.94, p < 0.001	vehicle CGRP CGRP + Olceg CGRP + Suma	<0.001 <0.001 <0.001 <0.001
		post-inj vs post-VC: F (1.00, 9.00) = 296.0, p < 0.001 treatment: F (2.10, 19.00) = 10.0, p < 0.001	vehicle CGRP CGRP + Olceg CGRP + Suma	<0.001 <0.001 <0.001 <0.001
		pre-inj vs post-inj: F (1.00, 9.00) = 91.0, p < 0.001 treatment: F (2.00, 18.00) = 9.0, p = 0.002	vehicle CGRP CGRP + Olceg CGRP + Suma	0.200 <0.001 0.001 0.001
	Males	pre-inj vs post-VC: F (1.00, 30.00) = 634.8, p < 0.001 treatment: F (3.00, 30.00) = 19.1, p < 0.001	vehicle CGRP CGRP + Olceg CGRP + Suma	<0.001 <0.001 <0.001 <0.001
		post-inj vs post-VC: F (1.00, 8.00) = 458.0, p < 0.001 treatment: F (2.00, 16.00) = 20.0, p < 0.001	vehicle CGRP CGRP + Olceg CGRP + Suma	<0.001 <0.001 <0.001 <0.001
		pre-inj vs post-inj: F (1.00, 60.00) = 157.0, p < 0.001 treatment: F (2.20, 45.00) = 17.0, p < 0.001	vehicle CGRP CGRP + Olceg CGRP + Suma	0.280 0.002 0.001 <0.001
Δ Tail Vasodilations	Females (CGRP)	Olcegepant: F (1.21, 10.90) = 10.0, p = 0.007	veh vs CGRP veh vs CGRP + Olceg	<0.0001 0.057
		Sumatriptan: F (1.84, 12.90) = 40.4, p < 0.0001	veh vs CGRP veh vs CGRP + Suma	<0.001 <0.001
		Rizatriptan: F (1.23, 7.36) = 24.4, p = 0.001	veh vs CGRP veh vs CGRP + Riza	0.005 0.003
	Females (SNP)	Olcegepant: F (1.31, 9.19) = 7.7, p = 0.016	veh vs SNP veh vs SNP + Olceg	0.009 0.208
		Sumatriptan: F (1.87, 13.10) = 7.0, p = 0.009	veh vs SNP veh vs SNP + Suma	0.009 0.332
	Male (CGRP)	Olcegepant: F (1.18, 10.60) = 7.6, p = 0.016	veh vs CGRP veh vs CGRP + Olceg	0.001 0.315
		Sumatriptan: F (1.67, 15.00) = 20.8, p < 0.0001	veh vs CGRP veh vs CGRP + Suma	0.000 0.004
		Rizatriptan: F (2.00, 11.90) = 25.4, p < 0.0001	veh vs CGRP veh vs CGRP + Riza	0.001 0.003
	Male (SNP)	Olcegepant: F (1.10, 7.67) = 3.6, p = 0.094	veh vs SNP veh vs SNP + Olceg	<0.001 0.472
		Sumatriptan: F (1.06, 7.41) = 2.7, p = 0.143	veh vs SNP veh vs SNP + Suma	<0.001 0.903

Table 2

Reduced Δ 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	89%	59.0%
0.5x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant	14.2%	20.0%
1.0x CGRP + 1.0x olcegepant	70.0%	10.0%
1.0x CGRP + 1.0x sumatriptan	77.8%	50.0%
1.0x CGRP + 1.0x rizatriptan	71.4%	85.7%
0.1x SNP	20.0%	0.0%
0.5x SNP	50.0%	50.0%
1.0x SNP	100%	75.0%
1.0x SNP + 1.0x olcegepant	50.0%	50.0%
1.0x SNP + 1.0x sumatriptan	50.0%	50.0%