Title: SARS-CoV-2 induces acute neurological signs while Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide

(CGRP) signaling blockade reduces interleukin 6 (IL-6) release and weight loss in mouse

models.

Abbreviated title: SARS-CoV-2 induces acute neurological signs while CGRP signaling

blockade reduces interleukin 6 (IL-6) release and weight loss

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Abstract:

COVID-19 can result in neurological symptoms such as fever, headache, dizziness, and nausea. We evaluated whether the Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (CGRP) receptor antagonist, olcegepant, used in migraine treatment could mitigate acute neuroinflammatory and neurological responses to SARS-COV-2 infection. We infected wildtype C57BL/6J and 129/SvEv mice, and a 129 αCGRP-null mouse line with a mouse-adapted SARS-CoV-2 virus, and evaluated the effect of CGRP receptor antagonism on the outcome of that infection. We determined that CGRP receptor antagonism provided protection from permanent weight loss in older (>12 m) C57BL/6J and 129 SvEv mice. We also observed acute fever and motion-induced dizziness in all older mice, regardless of treatment. However, in both wildtype mouse lines, CGRP antagonism reduced acute interleukin 6 (IL-6) levels by half, with virtually no IL-6 release in mice lacking αCGRP. These findings suggest that blockage of CGRP signaling protects against acute IL-6 release and subsequent inflammatory events after SARS-CoV-2 infection.

Significance Statement:

COVID-19 can cause neurological symptoms such as fever, headache, dizziness, and nausea. However, such neurological symptoms of SARS-CoV-2 infection have not been assessed in mouse models. Here, we infected two commonly used wildtype mice lines (C57BL/6 and 129S) with mouse-adapted SARS-CoV-2 – and demonstrated neurological signs that including motion-related dizziness. Further, we show that CGRP signaling blockade can reduce IL-6 release and reverse long-term weight loss associated with SARS-CoV-2 infection, without rescuing either fever and/or dizziness. These findings suggest that CGRP signaling blockade can be protective in acute SARS-CoV-2 infections, and raise the possibility that it may also impact long-term outcomes of infection.

Introduction

Coronavirus disease (COVID-19) caused by severe acute respiratory syndrome CoV-2 (SARS-CoV-2) has caused a 3-year, ongoing, world pandemic (Zhu et al. 2020). There is a sound premise supporting testing CGRP-receptor antagonists such as olcegepant as a way to mitigate the neuroimmune consequences of SARS-CoV-2 infection (Robertson 2020). While CGRP has pleotropic effects on the immune system, CGRP release occurs as a result of SARS-CoV-2 activation of the transient receptor potential (TRP) channels; and is implicated in COVID-19 neurological symptoms such as fever, headache, dizziness, nausea pain, and the subsequent release of interleukin 6 (IL-6) (Assas, Miyan, and Pennock 2014; Assas, Pennock, and Miyan 2014; Channappanavar and Perlman 2017). IL-6 is an important mediator of inflammation that is often elevated in severe COVID-19 infection, and may be involved in the hyperimmune response cascade (cytokine storm) and the polarization of T-cell responses (Aghagoli et al. 2021; Liu et al. 2020). Headache, nausea, and dizziness are common neurological manifestations of COVID-19 infection (Bohn et al. 2020; Saniasiaya and Kulasegarah 2021; Doyle 2022), and in COVID-19 patients headache severity has been correlated with IL-6 levels (Bolay et al. 2021; Karadas et al. 2021). However, there have been no studies on animal models investigating dizziness and fever after SARS-CoV-2 infection (Carpenter, Yang, and Xu 2023) .

Studies have shown that both SARS-CoV-1 (2002 outbreak) and SARS-CoV-2 (2019 outbreak) enter the body by binding to the angiotensin-converting enzyme 2 (ACE2) cell receptor (Kuba et al. 2005; Ziegler et al. 2020). However, due to sequence and structural differences between mouse ACE2 and human ACE2, human SARS coronaviruses exhibit a species-restricted tropism and are inefficient at infecting wild-type mice. To overcome this obstacle, the Baric laboratory modified the clinical SARS-CoV-2/USA-WA1 variant to gain the ability to bind to the murine ACE2 receptor after serial passaging in mice, to generate the MA10-SARS-CoV-2 virus (Dinnon et al. 2020, 2021); we used this mouse-adapted virus in most of our study.

We first assessed both neurological symptoms of fever and dizziness/nausea in mouse models

after infection with the MA10-SARS-CoV-2 virus. As a readout of the nausea-like state present

after SARS-CoV-2 infection, we examined hypothermic responses to provocative motion, as we

have previously used to assess migraine nausea pain (Biorxiv

doi.org/10.1101/2022.06.03.494762) and others have used to assess motion-sensitivity in

transgenic mouse models (Tu et al. 2017). Studies have demonstrated that provocative motion

causes robust and prominent hypothermic responses in rats, humans, house musk shrews, and

mice. These decreases in body temperature can represent a biomarker of a nausea-like state in

laboratory animals as: i) temperature changes are provoked both by motion and by chemical

emetic stimuli, ii) differential pharmacological sensitivity of these responses mirrors sensitivity in

humans, iii) motion-induced hypothermia *precedes* emetic (vomiting) episodes, and iv) there is a

clear parallel in hypothermic responses between animals and humans in underlying

physiological mechanism - cutaneous vasodilatation that favors heat loss (Del Vecchio et al.

2014; Mazloumi Gavgani, Hodgson, and Nalivaiko 2017; Ngampramuan et al. 2014; Romano et

al. 2017; Tu et al. 2017). In the nausea/dizziness assay after provocative motion there is a

decrease in head temperature and an increase in tail temperature. We have shown that in

wildtype C57BL/6Jmice injection of Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide (CGRP) prolongs this

head temperature response and blunts the transient tail temperature increase, whereas a

CGRP-receptor antagonist can reverse these CGRP-induced changes (Doods et al. 2000;

Mallee et al. 2002) and Biorxiv doi.org/10.1101/2022.06.03.494762. Therefore, we investigated

if a MA10-SARS-CoV-2 viral infection would show similar acute dizziness/nausea responses as

CGRP injection, and if antagonizing CGRP signaling could reduce these dizziness/nausea

responses.

Materials and Methods

Animals

A total of 180 mice (120 M/60F) were used in these studies, either 129SvEv (Taconic 129SVE) or C57B6/J (JAX 0664) or αCGRP (-/-) null mice on a 129SvEv background. Prior to SARS-CoV-2 infection, mice were bred and housed under a 12 to 12 day/night cycle at the University of Rochester 's Vivarium under the care of the University of Rochester's Veterinary Services personnel. Mice were implanted with transponder chips (Backagin Microchip FDX-B ISO 11784/11785) to allow for blinded identification; and when relevant, implanted with pellets containing placebo or olcegepant (BIBN4096, Tocris; 2 mg/kg/day/SQ; Innovative Research of America, Inc.). After pretesting was performed, mice were transferred to Cornell's ABSL3 facility, and acclimated prior to virus infection and testing. All animal procedures were approved both by the University of Rochester's and Cornell University's IACUC committees and performed in accordance with NIH standards.

Virus propagation

Vero-E6 cells (obtained through BEI resources, NIAID, NIH, NR-53726) were cultured in Eagle's Minimum Essential Medium (ATCC, #30-2003) supplemented with 10% (vol/vol) fetal bovine serum (FBS) (Gibco, CA) and 1% penicillin-streptomycin (Pen-Strep, Life Technologies) at 37°C in a 5% (vol/vol) CO_2 atmosphere. Viral stocks of mouse-adapted SARS-CoV-2 (MA10) (obtained from the laboratory Dr. Ralph Baric) were propagated in Vero-E6 cells in 2% (vol/vol) FBS and 1% penicillin-streptomycin at 37°C at a multiplicity of infection (MOI) of 0.1. Viral stock titers were determined by $TCID_{50}$ analysis. Viral propagation involving live SARS-CoV-2 was conducted in Biosafety level 3 (BSL3) facilities both at the University of Rochester and at Cornell University.

Animal Biosafety level 3 (ABSL3) facility and viral inoculations

Mice were anesthetized using isoflurane and subsequently intranasally infected with MA-10 SARS-CoV-2. For infection with live virus, drops of the pre-characterized viral stock were administered into the rostral meatus of the nose, with a total volume of 50 µL per mouse. Daily monitoring and weighing of the mice were conducted until they reached a predetermined humane endpoint of 20% weight loss from their starting weight and/or severe clinical signs, at which point animals were humanely euthanized. Mouse studies were conducted in a BSL-3 laboratory and in accordance with protocols approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee at Cornell University (IACUC mouse protocol # 2017-0108 and BSL3 IBC # MUA-16371-1). See Fig. 1A.

Motion-Induced Thermoregulation Testing

Tu et al. first noticed thermoregulatory changes in the temperatures of the heads, bodies, and tails of mice, in response to provocative motion (Tu et al. 2017) . We therefore adapted their protocol for the present study (Biorxiv doi.org/10.1101/2022.06.03.494762). Head and tail temperatures of C57B6/J mice were measured for a total of 45 minutes using a FLIR E60 IR camera (model: E64501), as depicted in Fig. 1A. This camera was connected to a tripod and 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 were 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 video-recorded for 20 minutes (0 to 20 mins). After 20 minutes, the provocative motion was turned off, and mice were video-recorded for an additional 20 minutes to measure recovery to baseline (20 to 40 mins) as schematized in Figs. 1A and 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

vasodilatations, 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 vasodilatations* (^{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 ($0 \leq t \leq 10$).

Pulse Oximetry

A mouse Stat Jr X (Kent Scientific) was used to measure oxygen saturation (O2%) of

mice (see Fig. 1B). The O_2 sensor was applied to the rear leg, and data were recorded following

readout stabilization, defined as an unchanging recording over 5 seconds.

BAL harvest and tissue processing

Mice were euthanized with CO_2, and bronco-alveolar lavage BAL fluid was removed

from the lung; animals then underwent laparotomy and sternotomy with subsequent left and

right ventricular cardiac perfusion with 20 mL total of PBS. Lungs were treated with 4%

paraformaldehyde/PBS (volume/volume) for a minimum of 72 hours to ensure full viral

inactivation. Tissues were taken out of the BSL3 facility and underwent dehydration with ethanol

and were later embedded in paraffin blocks for histological analysis.

Histopathology

For histological examination, mouse lungs were collected directly after euthanasia and placed in 10% neutral buffered formalin for 72 h, after which tissues were embedded in paraffin. Four-micrometer tissue sections were stained with hematoxylin for analysis. Immunohistochemistry and digital image analysis for SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid was performed as previously described (Shapira et al. 2022). Briefly, 4 μm tissue sections were labeled with a rabbit IgG monoclonal antibody against SARS-CoV-2 nucleocapsid protein (GeneTex; GTX635679) at a 1:5,000 dilution and processed using a Leica Bond Max automated IHC Stainer. Digital image analysis was performed using QuPath software v.0.2.3 (Achanta et al. 2012; Bankhead et al. 2017; Shapira et al. 2022; Shapira et al. 2021).

Imaging

Histological specimens were visualized using a Zeiss Axioplan 2 microscope. Immunohistochemistry (IHC) and hematoxylin and eosin (HE) stained slides for each specimen were photographed in sequential order. In Adobe Photoshop, all images were sized with a 2080x2080 pixel frame and cropped to a uniform resolution of 1500x1500 pixels. IHC images were further analyzed using Color Selection and Magic Wand tools where areas containing brown staining were manually selected and cut into a separate layer. All images were exported into JPEG format. For staining percentages, quantification was performed using ImageJ. Images were converted from RGB Color into 8-bit grayscale and made Binary to set an automated threshold. Area was then calculated with the Analyze Particles function. Circularity of staining was assessed using the Circularity parameter set to 0.9-1.0.

Quantification of lavage cytokines by ELISA

Immulux 4HBx plates (ThermoFisher Scientific, #3855) were coated with IL-6 capture antibody (ThermoFisher Scientific, MP5-20F3) and left overnight at 4°C. Wells were washed five

times with PBS+0.05% Tween 20 and blocked with PBS+5% dry milk solution (Bio-Rad,

1706404) for 1 hour at room temperature. 50µL of lavage sample or standard (R&D systems,

406-ML-005/CF) was added to the blocked wells for 2 hours at room temperature. Bound

cytokine was detected using a biotinylated IL-6 detection antibody (ThermoFisher Scientific,

MP5-32C11), streptavidin horseradish peroxidase (strep-HRP), and tetramethylbenzidine (TMB)

(ThermoFisher Scientific, 34028). Wells were washed three times following the addition of

detection antibody and strep-HRP. Reactions were stopped with 2N H_2SO_4 and ODs were read

at 450nm. Cytokine concentrations for each sample were determined by plotting OD values on a

standard curve using IL-6 recombinant protein. All testing was performed in triplicate.

Statistics

Two-way mixed effects (ME) models were used to assess % weight loss, and core

temperatures (^{o}C) across the factors: i) placebo vs olcegepant protection and ii) dpi. Two-way

ME models were also used to assess: i) viral infection vs pretest and ii) placebo vs olcegepant

protection for tail vasodilation responses at 3 dpi. Bonferroni multiple comparisons test was the

preferred post-hoc analysis method. X-intercept analyses of head recovery (mins) were

conducted assuming a quadratic model, least squares regression fitting, and constraints where

the x-intercept must be greater than x = 20 mins and the curve fit was approximated to x = 50

mins. Nested 1-way ANOVAs with Tukey post hoc was used to analyze BAL IL-6

concentrations and H&E staining (positive SARS-CoV-2 cells per mm^2).

Results

MA-10 SARS-CoV-2 infection induces a fever-like state and disrupts

thermoregulation to provocative motion. We measured baseline head temperatures in 18

month-old male /6J, 129SvEv, and 129 αCGRP-null groups of mice during pretesting and 3

days post-infection (dpi) with 10^5 pfu of MA-10 SARS-CoV-2 virus (**Fig. 2A&B**). Our results

showed a higher head temperature at 3 dpi, indicating a fever in all mice, regardless of strain

and olcegepant pretreatment (**Fig. 2B**).

We also measured motion-induced thermoregulation and weight changes in 18 month-

old male C57BL/6J, 129SvEv, and 129 αCGRP-null groups of mice at 3 dpi with 10^5 pfu of MA-

10 SARS-CoV-2 virus (**Fig. 3A**). Motion-induced thermoregulation was pre-tested in each

mouse 5-7 days prior to the infection. During the pre-test, we observed transient tail vasodilation

in response to provocative, nauseating stimuli (**Fig 3B,C,D**). The assay involved a 5-minute

baseline recording, a 20-minute rotation period (75 rpm, 1 cm orbital displacement), and a 20-

minute recovery period (as shown in **Figs. 1B and 3A**). Tail temperature profiles also indicated

a fever-like state after infection with MA-10 SARS-CoV-2, with higher tail temperatures at all

time points during the 3 dpi test than during the pretest (**Fig. 3B,C,D**). We computed a shift in

the Δ tail vasodilations by subtracting the magnitude of Δ tail vasodilations at 3 dpi from an

animal's pretest Δ tail vasodilation. With the exception of infected αCGRP-null mice, we

observed a decrease in the magnitude of tail vasodilations in infected mice compared to their

pretest, as indicated by a negative change in the Δ tail vasodilation - which is a sign of less

severe dizziness.

Typically, a twenty-minute provocative rotation in mice causes observable hypothermia,

and an additional 20-minute recovery period is needed for the mice to recover to their baseline

head temperature. Interestingly, we observed that viral infection delayed this recovery period, as

seen in our raw data (**Fig. 3 E,F,G**). Using a second-order polynomial fit ($B_0 + B_1X + B_2X^2$), we

estimated the time required for the mice to recover back to their baseline head temperature by

interpolating a curve fit to t = 50 minutes (**Fig. 3H).** We then computed a Δ head recovery by

subtracting the recovery period at 3 dpi from the pretest, where a positive Δ head recovery

indicated a longer recovery period due to the infection. In all infected males, regardless of

olcegepant treatment or strain, we observed a longer recovery period at 3 dpi ($p < 0.0001$). No

protective effects were seen by olcegepant in head temperature recovery for either strain (**Fig. 3H**).

Olcegepant blockage or developmental loss of CGRP receptor leads to reduced IL-6 production in response to MA-10 infection

SARS-CoV-2 infected 129/SvEv mice treated with olcegepant pellets had lower interleukin 6 (IL-6) concentrations in their bronchoalveolar lavage (BAL) as compared to mice treated with placebo (**Fig. 4B**). Congruently, the lower IL-6 concentrations in olcegepant-treated mice were similar to the IL-6 concentrations measured in the αCGRP-null (-/-) mice (**Fig 4B**), which is consistent with the relationship between CGRP and IL-6 levels in migraines (Han 2019). In C57BL/6J mice, similar observations regarding olcegepant's effects in reducing IL-6 post-infection were observed but did not reach statistical significance (**Fig 4A**).

Older mice treated with olcegepant recovered from the initial weight loss by 7 dpi.

When 18-month-old C57 or 129S mice were infected with MA-10, those pretreated with olcegepant pellets showed a faster recovery to baseline weight compared to mice that received placebo pellets. This effect was observed in both female and male C57BL/6J mice (**Fig. 5A**), as well as in older female and male 129SvEv mice (**Fig. 5B**). Notably, 129S αCGRP (-/-) null mice of either sex experienced similar trends as 129S WT mice given olcegepant (**Fig. 5E**). Older infected mice exhibited lower core temperatures compared to the uninfected groups; however, olcegepant had no distinguishable effect on core temperatures regardless of age or strain (**Fig. 5 B,D,F**). In addition, MA-10 infection did not significantly impact O_2% saturation in mice regardless of age, sex, or strain. However αCGRP-null mice exhibited lower weight loss trends following virus infection that did WT mice - suggesting that the αCGRP-null mice have a reduced sensitivity to the MA-10 virus.

Histological analysis of lung tissue revealed no significant differences in the number of

SARS-CoV-2 infected cells in the lungs of C57BL/6J or 129S WT mice at 3 dpi (**Fig. 6 A&B**).

However, olcegepant-protected mice and αCGRP-null mice showed reduced staining for SARS-

CoV-2 when compared to placebo-treated mice, and this observation correlated with IL-6 levels.

Fig. 6 C&D shows SARS-CoV-2 staining (scale = 100 µm) of C57BL/6J (**C**) and 129S (**D**) lung

tissues.

Discussion:

Early in the pandemic, there was a controversy as to whether CGRP plasma levels were increased or decreased in COVID-19 disease (Abobaker and Darrat 2021; Ochoa-Callejero et al. 2021). However, a recent study with a relatively greater number of patients showed that elevated CGRP plasma levels are correlated with increased disease severity in hospitalized COVID-19 patients (Rizzi et al. 2022). In our study, the migraine drug olcegepant (small molecule CGRP receptor antagonist) reduced IL-6 release at three days post-infection (3 dpi) in two distinct wildtype mouse strains (C57B6 and 129S). Interestingly however, there was not a similar protective effect on fever or on the dizziness/nausea-like state elicited by SARS-CoV-2 MA-10 in these same infected mice, as tested at 3 dpi. However, we did replicate in the mouse model both the fever and vestibular symptoms observed in COVID patients (Aedo-Sanchez, Gutierrez, and Aguilar-Vidal 2023; Jeong et al. 2021).

A few studies have investigated CGRP antagonism on individuals infected with SARS-CoV-2. In one study (Caronna et al. 2021), no deleterious effects of CGRP antagonism were found, and no differences in symptom severity were found between CGRP antagonism to other treatment modalities in migraine subjects. However, in this study, patients were not stratified by age. We observed CGRP antagonism was protective from weight loss and IL-6 release only in older mice. COVID-19 symptoms are more severe and mortality rates are higher in aged human patients, adding significance to our results. Further, two relatively recent case studies showed that increased headaches after SARS-CoV-2 infection can be treated with CGRP monoclonal antibodies (Grassini et al. 2021; Ozkan et al. 2022). Our study suggests that olcegepant or other CGRP treatments may be further explored particularly to treat headaches or migraines in aged individuals and/or those with high IL-6 levels upon COVID-19 infection.

In conclusion, in addition to the acute effects studied here, antagonizing CGRP signaling may be therapeutic against long COVID, as long COVID patients also show higher IL-6 plasma levels (Littlefield et al. 2022). As long COVID has been demonstrated in mouse models (Dinnon

et al. 2022), future plans include investigating if antagonizing CGRP signaling in preclinical

models can mitigate associated neurological symptoms of long COVID.

Fig. 1

Fig. 2

Fig. 3

Fig. 4

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343 Fig. 5
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348   Fig. 6

 Figure Legends:

Fig. 1. The study timelines are depicted. **A.** WT mice were infected with 10^5 pfu of MA-10

SARS-CoV-2 in the presence of placebo or CGRP-receptor antagonist olcegepant slow-release

pellets (olcegepant, BIBN4096, Tocris; 2 mg/kg/day/SQ) or mice lacking CGRP were infected

with the same virus; animals were then assessed for motion-induced nausea (dizziness) at 3

days after viral infection (dpi). At the completion of the nausea testing at 3dpi, bronchoalveolar

lavage (BAL) samples were collected for ELISA and lung tissue was obtained from control and

virus-infected animals at 3 dpi. Nausea (dizziness) was assessed for 45 minutes when mouse

was subjected to an orbital motion, noting temperature profiles (head and tail). **B.** WT mice

were infected with 10^5 pfu of MA-10 SARS-CoV-2 in the presence of placebo or CGRP-receptor

antagonist olcegepant slow-release pellets (olcegepant, BIBN4096, Tocris; 2 mg/kg/day/SQ) or

mice lacking CGRP were infected with the same virus; animals were then monitored for

changed in weight, core temperature and oxygen (O_2) saturation from 0 to 7 dpi.

Fig. 2. As shown in the **Fig 1A** timeline, older C57B/6, 129SvEv, and 129 mice lacking CGRP

were assessed for nausea (dizziness) when subjected to an orbital rotation, noting temperature

profiles (head and tail). **A.** Head and tail temperatures of mice were measured for a total 45

minutes using a FLIR E60 IR camera (model: E64501). This camera was connected to a tripod

and 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). Three mouse strains were tested: C57/B6J WT,

129S WT, and 129S αCGRP-null mice. Within each wild type (WT) strain, four groups of mice

were tested: placebo only, olcegepant only, placebo with 10^5 MA-SARS-CoV-2, and olcegepant

with 10^5 SARS-CoV-2 MA-10. Virus-infected mice were tested at Cornell University's ABSL-3

environment, with all pre-infection testing performed at University of Rochester. **B.** All tested

mice experienced a fever-like state 3 days post-viral infection (3 dpi). Olcegepant did not have a

protective effect in reducing this acute fever-like state at 3 dpi.

Fig. 3. A. Upon provocative motion, humans and mice will show a drop in head temperature

that recovers once rotation is ceased, and mice show a transient tail spike ~10 min into rotation.

When nausea or dizziness is present, the head temperature drop takes longer to recover, and

the transient tail spike diminishes or disappears. **B,C,D.** Viral infection diminishes tail

vasodilatations and impairs a mouse's natural response to the provocative motion. At time t = 0,

mice experience a 20-minute provocative motion and exhibit a significant increase in tail

temperature. Δ tails are computed and are corrected for ambient temperature. Findings suggest

that olcegepant did not protect against virus-induced changes in tail vasodilation at 3 dpi in all of

the strains tested. **E,F,G.** Viral infection impacts recovery from hypothermia after provocative

motion. **H.** Second order curve fits observed recovery of head temperatures after provocative

motion to baseline. Across all strains, mice experienced delayed temperature recovery

compared to pretest, with longer recovery profiles. **I.** No protective effects were seen by

olcegepant in temperature recovery for any of the tested strains.

Fig. 4. Bronco-alveolar lavage (BAL) samples were obtained for ELISA testing, and lungs were

obtained for subsequent immunohistochemistry at 3 dpi. MA-SARS-CoV-2 infection increased

the release of the inflammatory cytokine IL-6, and this IL-6 release was attenuated by CGRP

signaling blockade. In both C57B6/J **(A)** and 129S mice **(B)** strains, IL-6 release was

attenuated by olcegepant SQ release. Moreover, in αCGRP null mice, IL-6 cytokine release was

statistically equivalent to non-infected controls **(B)**.

Fig. 5. Older (18 months) female and male mice were tested for weight loss and core

temperature drops after infection with MA-10 SARS-CoV-2, 10^5 pfu virus at 0-7 dpi. **A. C.** We

found that animals treated with olcegepant recovered from the initial weight loss, with male mice

showing increased protection. **A.** C57B6/J; **C.** 129S. **E.** Similar to the IL-6 findings (**Fig. 4**),

mice lacking the CGRP peptide were not significantly different from uninfected controls. **B, D,**

F. Viral infection caused core temperatures of mice to decrease, and this effect was unaltered

by olcegepant treatment.

Fig. 6. A**&B.** There was no statistically significant difference in the number of SARS-CoV-2

antigen-positive cells in the lungs of (**A, C**) C57/B6J or (**B, D**) 129 mice, between mice that

received placebo versus olcegepant pellets at 3 dpi. **C, D.** Representative SARS-CoV-2

immunostaining is shown for 3 dpi lung issues from C57B6/J (**C**), and 129S (**D**) mice. Scale bar

is 100 μm. (*= $p < 0.05$, ** =$p < 0.01$, ** *= $p < 0.001$, **** = $p < 0.0001$)

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