Comprehensive mapping of sensory and sympathetic innervation of the developing kidney

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Abstract

The kidney functions as a finely tuned sensor to balance body fluid composition and filter out waste through complex coordinated mechanisms. This versatility requires tight neural control, with innervating efferent nerves playing a crucial role in regulating blood flow, glomerular filtration rate, water and sodium reabsorption, and renin release. In turn sensory afferents provide feedback to the central nervous system for the modulation of cardiovascular function. However, the cells targeted by sensory afferents and the physiological sensing mechanisms remain poorly characterized. Moreover, how the kidney is innervated during development to establish these functions remains elusive. Here, we utilized a combination of light-sheet and confocal microscopy to generate anatomical maps of kidney sensory and sympathetic nerves throughout development and resolve the establishment of functional crosstalk. Our analyses revealed that kidney innervation initiates at embryonic day (E)13.5 as the nerves associate with vascular smooth muscle cells and follow arterial differentiation. By E17.5 axonal projections associate with kidney structures such as glomeruli and tubules and the network continue to expand postnatally. These nerves are synapsin I-positive, highlighting ongoing axonogenesis and the potential for functional crosstalk. We show that sensory and sympathetic nerves innervate the kidney concomitantly and classify the sensory fibers as calcitonin gene related peptide (CGRP)$^+$, substance P$^+$, Trpv1$^+$, and Piezo2$^+$, establishing the presence of Piezo2 mechanosensory fibers in the kidney. Using retrograde tracing, we identified the primary dorsal root ganglia, T10-L2, from which Piezo2$^+$ sensory afferents project to the kidney. Taken together our findings elucidate the temporality of kidney innervation and resolve the identity of kidney sympathetic and sensory nerves.

Introduction

Major functions of the kidney include the maintenance of body fluid and electrolyte homeostasis and modulation of blood pressure. These functions are maintained by a variety of intrinsic cellular mechanisms as well as extrinsic input from the nervous system (May et al., 2010; McMahon, 2016; Osborn et al., 2021). Peripheral neurons originating from ganglia innervate the kidney and are predominantly

unmyelinated C-fibers (Kneupfer and Schramm, 1987; Booth et al., 2015; Osborn et al.,
2021), although some myelinated renal afferent fibers have been reported in the kidney,
yet their identity remains unclear (Simon and Schramm, 1983; Kneupfer and Schramm,
1987; Stella and Zanchetti, 1991). Kidney innervation consists of afferent sensory
nerves that influence cardiovascular function through the relay of chemical and
mechanical information from the kidney to the central nervous system (CNS), or efferent
sympathetic nerves regulating renal function through the CNS (Osborn et al., 2021).
Precise innervation and modulation of nerve activity maintains kidney physiology while
aberrant nerve function is associated with several kidney diseases (DiBona & Kopp,
1997; Malpas, 2010; Sata et al., 2018). Therefore, modulating nerve activity is widely
seen as a potential therapy to address kidney-related physiological disorders (Bhatt et
al., 2022). Yet, to achieve such precise neuromodulation, an accurate mapping of the
kidney nerve origins and a complete understanding of their molecular identity is
necessary. Many studies to date have focused on sympathetic nerves and their
regulation of mature kidney physiology. Therefore, we still lack detailed information
about how both the sensory and sympathetic innervation of the kidney is established
and how nerves pattern to reach their target cells and establish crosstalk.

Sympathetic nerves participate in the control of several kidney functions including
vascular tone and glomerular filtration rate, sodium and water reabsorption, and renin
release (Denton et al., 2004; DiBona, 2000; Fujisawa et al., 2011). They also modulate
processes such as the release of cytokines to mediate inflammatory responses (Banek
et al., 2016; Osborn et al., 2021; Veelken et al., 2008; Xiao et al., 2015). Overactivity of
kidney sympathetic nerves contribute to the development and maintenance of
hypertension (Osborn et al., 2021; Sata et al., 2018). In contrast to the numerous
functions for sympathetic nerves in both normal physiology and pathophysiology, our
understanding of kidney sensory nerve anatomy, classification, and their physiological
roles remain poorly understood (Osborn et al., 2021). Kidney sensory nerves have been
thus far been classified as transient receptor potential cation channel subfamily V
member 1-positive (Trpv1^{+}) due to their response to capsaicin and have also been
shown to produce the nociceptor-associated neuropeptides calcitonin gene-related
peptide (CGRP) and substance P (Osborn et al., 2021; Tyshynsky et al., 2023).

Sensory neurons innervating the kidney project to the dorsal horn and synapse onto
interneurons that project to CNS sites regulating cardiovascular function and in turn
feedback to modulate kidney sympathetic nerve activity (Kopp, 2015). Recently, studies
have established the importance of mechanosensitive Piezo2 sensory nerves in the
urogenital system to regulate bladder and sexual function (Lam et al., 2023; Marshall et
al., 2020). However, whether Piezo2 sensory nerves are also present in the kidney is
unknown. Lastly, a recent study published by Cheng et. al. show parasympathetic
cholinergic (ChAT$^+$ and VAChT$^+$) nerves innervate the renal artery and pelvis with
cholinergic ganglion found within the kidney nerve plexus (Cheng et al., 2022). Whether
these axons project to the kidney cortex and associate with cells or structures within
kidney has not been elucidated to date. Initial studies of renal denervation in
hypertensive patients led to a decrease in blood pressure although further intensive
trials reported that certain patients experienced a rise in arterial pressure (Krum et al.,
2013, 2014; Osborn & Foss, 2017; Schlaich et al., 2009; Symplicity HTN-2 Investigators
et al., 2010; Townsend et al., 2017). To date, this method of controlling hypertension
remains an attractive option with additional trials being conducted. However, such
procedures non-selectively target both sensory and sympathetic nerves, therefore
understanding the full extent of kidney nerve activity may inform efforts to optimize renal
denervation strategies.

Ganglia located externally send axonal projections to the kidney. It has been
reported that sympathetic innervation arises from the celiac, superior mesenteric,
aorticorenal ganglia, and partially from the paravertebral chain depending on the model
system being used (Barajas et al., 1992; Bell & McLachlan, 1982; Ferguson et al., 1986,
1988; Kuo et al., 1982). In rat, studies have shown that kidney sensory neurons project
from dorsal root ganglion (DRG) at level T6 to L4, the majority of which derive from
DRG at the level of T12–L3 (Donovan et al., 1983; Weiss & Chowdhury, 1998).
However, the origin of sensory axons which innervate the mouse kidney is unclear.
Moreover, the process of kidney innervation during development, in any model, has not
been detailed thoroughly aside from a few recent studies reporting the close association
of nerves with the developing kidney arterial tree (Honeycutt et al., 2023; Tarnick et al.,
2023). In this study, we provide detailed spatiotemporal mapping of mouse kidney

sensory and sympathetic neurons across embryonic and early postnatal development,

as well as their persistence in the adult. We establish when kidney innervation begins,

origins in the DRG, the spatial organization and growth of axons, their association with

kidney cells and structures, as well as the identity of the nerves across these different

stages. Altogether, we have generated a rich resource of knowledge surrounding kidney

innervation that will inform studies of both kidney development and physiological

regulation.

Results

Spatiotemporal mapping of kidney innervation

Due to the lack of knowledge on how kidneys are innervated during

development, we set out to determine when neuronal axons first reach the kidney and

how this network subsequently expands. We generated spatiotemporal maps of kidney

innervation throughout development by performing wholemount immunostaining

followed by 3D light-sheet imaging of either whole urogenital systems (E12.5, E13.5) or

individual kidneys (E14.5, E16.5, E18.5, P0, P7). Kidneys and urogenital systems were

immunostained with the pan-neuronal marker α-tubulin class III (Tubb3, Tuj1) to

visualize axons, the arterial marker α-smooth muscle actin (SMA), and the endothelial

marker CD31. Our previous studies have shown that the nerves and vasculature are

tightly aligned in the developing kidney, therefore we wanted to further examine the

association of these two networks at the various developmental timepoints (Honeycutt

et al., 2023). Male and female kidneys were both examined, with no significant

differences observed. At E12.5, no Tubb3$^+$ nerves or SMA$^+$ vessels could be observed

in the kidney, which was discerned by cytokeratin staining of the ureteric tree (**Fig. 1A**).

SMA$^+$ cells were primarily localized to the descending aorta with no SMA$^+$ vascular

mural cells yet found in the kidney, correlating with previous investigations of kidney

vascularization (Daniel et al., 2018) (**Fig. 1A**). Despite the lack of axons in the kidney,

we did observe the presence of ganglia and postganglionic nerve fibers tracking with

the descending aorta (**Fig. 1A**). As organogenesis continues, Tubb3$^+$ nerve fibers

navigate towards the kidney and begin innervation at E13.5, closely associating with

SMA$^+$ mural cells which mark the maturing renal arteries (Daniel et al., 2018; Honeycutt

et al., 2023; Luo et al., 2023; Tarnick et al., 2023) (**Fig. 1B, arrowheads**). Despite the low SMA$^+$ vascular mural cell coverage at this timepoint, an extensive CD31$^+$ endothelial network is established in the kidney by E13.5 (**Fig. 1B**).

At E14.5, SMA coverage was more extensive, marking several arterial branches (**Fig. S1A**). Concurrently, the Tubb3$^+$ nerve fibers continue tracking with the major arterial branches, only extending along the portion of endothelium with SMA$^+$ vascular mural cell coverage (**Fig. S1A**). Additionally, axons track with the SMA$^+$ ureteric smooth muscle layer (**Fig. S1A)**. As development continues, axons grow and branch in coordination with the arterial network, highlighting a tight neurovascular interplay as the major arterial branches are established by E16.5 (**Fig. 1C**). Multiple nerve fibers associate with a single arterial branch and the larger fibers may consist of multiple axons which are tightly bundled (**Fig. 1C, arrowhead).** Once the major arterial branches were established, the axonal network expanded via interstitial branching as observed at E18.5 (**Fig. 1D**). The branching axons can be observed looping around structures such as glomeruli (**Fig. 1D, arrowhead**). Subsequent imaging of the postnatal kidney at postnatal day (P)0 (**Fig. S1B**) and P7 (**Fig. S1C**) revealed a significant increase in nerve fiber density and arborization of the network due to continued axonal growth and branching. Together, these data highlight the coordinated growth of an extensive neuronal network as kidney organogenesis progresses.

To visualize the innervation of target cells and structures within the developing kidney at greater resolution, we performed confocal imaging on E18.5 kidneys section. Supporting our wholemount 3D analyses, we observed the axons tightly associating with SMA+ vasculature, with several fibers often being associated with any one arterial branch (**Fig. 2A**). The nerves track with renal arteries and arterioles into the renal cortex and can separate from the SMA$^+$ vascular mural cells to loop around and associate with the Bowman's capsule of glomeruli (**Fig. 2B, Fig. 1D**) and epithelial structures (**Fig. 2C**). Overall, kidney innervation is tightly linked to arterial differentiation with axons dissociating from the SMA$^+$ vessels to navigate towards or around kidney target structures such as glomeruli.

Sensory nerves innervate the developing kidney

While we have mapped the spatiotemporal innervation of the developing kidney,

Tubb3 is a pan-neuronal marker labeling all nerve fibers types. It is well established that

the mature kidney is innervated by sympathetic neurons that modulate renal physiology,

however, the contribution of sensory nerves and the timing of sensory innervation in the

kidney is poorly understood (Kopp, 2015; Osborn et al., 2021). To visualize the

distribution and abundance of sensory neurons in the developing kidney, we crossed a

$Trpv1^{Cre}$ line to the $R26^{tdTomato}$ reporter line ($Trpv1^{Cre/+};R26^{tdTomato/+}$) to label all

nociceptive Trpv1$^+$ sensory neurons. Trpv1$^+$ nociceptive neurons are thought to

comprise the majority of, if not all sensory nerves within the kidney and therefore

labeling this population should accurately represent the sensory contribution (Stocker &

Sullivan, 2023; Tyshynsky et al., 2023). We performed wholemount imaging on

$Trpv1^{Cre/+};R26^{tdTomato/+}$ kidneys at E16.5 to visualize the total complement of sensory

nerve fibers traced from the start of kidney innervation. TdTomato$^+$ signal extensively

overlapped with the pan-neuronal marker Tubb3 (**Fig. 3A**). To visualize these sensory

fibers and their association with kidney structures in greater detail, we examined

sections from $Trpv1^{Cre/+};R26^{tdTomato/+}$ kidneys at P1. The tdTomato$^+$ sensory nerves are

found adjacent to Lrp2$^+$ proximal tubules and E-cadherin (Ecad)$^+$ epithelial structures

(**Fig. 3B**). Additionally, sensory axons are found near arteries, arterioles, and glomeruli

(**Fig. 3C**). Taken together, these findings show that sensory nerves make up a

significant portion of the neuronal network in the developing kidney and associate with

kidney structures by early postnatal stages.

Nociceptive sensory afferent nerve identity and function can also be defined by

the production of neuropeptides such as calcitonin gene-related peptide (CGRP) and

substance P. To assess renal peptidergic sensory innervation, we immunostained

kidney sections at E14.5, E15.5, E18.5, P0, and adult stages using antibodies for CGRP

and substance P. At E14.5 we could not yet detect CGRP$^+$ or substance P $^+$ nerves (**Fig.

S2A, S2B**). However, by E15.5 we observed CGRP$^+$ sensory nerves that closely

associated with renal arteries (**Fig. 4A**). To circumvent cross-reactivity issues due to

several of our antibodies being raised in the same species, we crossed the transgenic

podocin Cre line ($Pod-Cre^{tg}$) to the $R26^{tdTomato}$ reporter ($Pod-Cre^{tg/+};R26^{tdTomato/tdTomato}$)

thereby labeling all glomerular podocytes with tdTomato. Assessing kidneys from these

animals at P0, we found that CGRP$^+$ sensory nerves came in close proximity to
glomeruli and proximal tubules (**Fig. 4B**). CGRP$^+$ sensory neurons were also found in
adult kidneys, where they similarly associated with the vasculature and were near
glomeruli (**Fig. 4C**). In contrast to CGRP, substance P immunolabelling was not
detected until E18.5 where these sensory nerves were observed near blood vessels
and glomeruli (**Fig. 4D**). In the adult kidneys, substance P maintained this localization
pattern and was similarly found near the vasculature and glomeruli (**Fig. 4E**).

Piezo2 is a mechanoreceptor utilized by a subset of peripheral sensory neurons
(Coste et al., 2010). Piezo2$^+$ neurons innervate organs of the urogenital system such as
the bladder to help coordinate urination and genital sub-regions to support sexual
function (Lam et al., 2023; Marshall et al., 2020). Therefore, we used
immunofluorescence staining of Piezo2 on kidney sections to examine whether Piezo2$^+$
neurons also innervate the kidney during development. At E15.5, we observed Piezo2$^+$
neurons associating with the CD31$^+$ large vessels (**Fig. 4F**). By P0, we found Piezo2$^+$
neurons near glomeruli and proximal tubules (**Fig. 4G**). Collectively, our findings
demonstrate the diversity of kidney sensory innervation which consists of both
nociceptive and mechanosensitive neurons. The timing of when these neurons and
associated neuropeptides can be detected varies throughout kidney development.
However, all can be detected by birth and follow a similar pattern of association with the
renal vasculature, glomeruli, and tubules.

Retrograde tracing identifies the DRG origin of kidney sensory neurons

The soma of peripheral sensory neurons are located in DRG present along the
spinal column. To identify the DRG that contain the sensory neurons projecting to the
kidney, we performed retrograde tracing experiments. We injected into the right kidney
(ipsilateral) of adult mice the fluorescently labeled neuronal tracer Cholera toxin subunit
B (CTB). Four days after the injections, both the injected and non-injected kidney as
well as the ipsilateral and contralateral DRG were dissected to determine the origin of
kidney sensory innervation (**Fig. 5A**). By examining the fluorescent signal from all
cervical, thoracic, lumbar, and sacral DRGs, we determined that kidney sensory
innervation traces to the ipsilateral DRG of the lower thoracic (T10-T13), lumbar (L1-

L6), and sacral (S1-S2) regions (**Fig. 5B**). However, the majority of sensory innervation projected from the lower thoracic (T10-T13) and upper lumber (L1-L2) regions (**Fig. 5B**). Ipsilateral kidney sections showed CTB$^+$ nerves near vasculature and glomeruli (**Fig. 5C**). Strikingly, we also observed CTB$^+$ cells within the contralateral DRG of the upper lumbar region (L1-L2), suggesting these DRG may also innervate the kidney (**Fig. 5B**). We also observed a few CTB$^+$ nerve fibers around blood vessels in the contralateral kidney (**Fig. 5C**). No difference was identified between male and female mice in the tracing results obtained.

Next, we specifically traced Piezo2 sensory neurons using the recombinant adeno-associated virus *pAAV-Flex-tdTomato* that we injected into the right kidney of *Piezo2$^{EGFP-IRES-Cre/+}$* mice (**Fig. S3A**). The tracing confirmed innervation of the kidney by Piezo2$^+$ sensory neurons and shows that the majority of Piezo2$^+$ nerves project from the lower thoracic (T10-T13) and lumbar (L1 and L2) DRG (**Fig. S3B,C**). Taken together, the retrograde tracing experiments validated sensory innervation of the kidney and uncovered their origins within the lower thoracic, lumbar, and sacral regions (**Fig. 5D, S3C**). The observation that CTB$^+$ cells were found in L1 and L2 contralateral DRG, along with the presence of labeled axons in the contralateral kidney, suggests the possibility of cross communication between the kidneys and DRG on the opposite sides of the body.

Sympathetic and cholinergic innervation of the developing kidney

Sympathetic postganglionic neurons produce tyrosine hydroxylase (TH), an enzyme involved in catecholamine synthesis, and this marker has previously been utilized in the adult kidney to localize sympathetic nerves (Tiniakos et al., 2004; Torres et al., 2021). Thus, to determine the distribution of renal sympathetic nerves in the developing kidney we performed wholemount immunolabeling with a TH antibody at E14.5 and P0 (**Fig. 6A,B**). At E14.5, TH$^+$ nerve fibers were detected in the kidney, overlapping with Tubb3 and tracking with the arteries (**Fig. 6A**). By P0 the sympathetic nerves had branched significantly with the arterial tree and the axons were found navigating around structures such as Lrp2$^+$ proximal tubules (**Fig. 6B**). We also examined kidney sections and similarly observed TH$^+$ axons primarily associated with

renal arteries at earlier stages of development (**Fig. 6C**). By P0, the nerves could be
found abutting glomeruli and proximal tubules (**Fig. 6D**). Taken together, these findings
show that sympathetic neurons innervate the kidney early in development, tracking with
the vasculature as they make their way to nephron targets such as tubules and
glomeruli in alignment with their known physiological functions (DiBona, 2004; DiBona &
Kopp, 1997; Osborn & Foss, 2017; Sata et al., 2018).

Previous studies showed that during development, TH may also be produced by
cholinergic parasympathetic nerves (Howard, 2005). A recent study demonstrated
parasympathetic innervation of the main renal artery and pelvis, yet there remains no
anatomic evidence of significant parasympathetic innervation into the kidney. To identify
whether there are cholinergic nerves in the developing kidney, we immunostained
sections at E14.5, E15.5, P0, and adult for the cholinergic marker vesicular
acetylcholine transporter (VAChT) (**Fig. S4**). We did not observe VAChT$^+$ nerves
overlapping with pan-neuronal marker Tubb3 at E14.5 (**Fig. S4A**) even though the first
nerve fibers innervating the kidney at E14.5 were TH$^+$ (**Fig. 6A**). By E15.5, we observed
that Tubb3$^+$ nerves overlapped with VAChT signal, and these nerves were primarily
associated with the renal artery in the kidney shown by CD31 immunostaining (**Fig.
S4B**). Vascular-associated innervation increased by E16.5, and we observed VAChT$^+$
fibers around proximal tubules and glomeruli at P0 (**Fig. S4C**). In adults, the VAChT$^+$
fibers were found associated with the kidney vasculature (**Fig. S4D**). In sum, these data
lend support to the presence of parasympathetic innervation into the kidney with axons
reaching nephrons.

Evidence for the establishment of neuroeffector junctions during kidney
development

In order to exert an impact on kidney development and physiology, neurons need
to establish functional crosstalk with kidney cells. To investigate the formation of
neuroeffector junctions, synapse-like structures that form between neurons and non-
neuronal cells, we characterized the cellular localization of a synaptic marker by
immunofluorescence on cryosectioned kidneys. Using an antibody raised against
synapsin I (Syn1), a membrane-associated phosphoprotein contained within small

synaptic vesicles of presynaptic nerves, we investigated if and at which stage Syn1 is detected. At E14.5 Syn1$^+$ axons were observed around the vasculature (**Fig. 7A**). At E16.5, there was similar localization of Syn1$^+$ nerves mainly associated with the vasculature (**Fig. 7A**). By P0, Syn1$^+$ axons were localized near proximal tubules and glomeruli (**Fig. 7B**). A similar pattern was retained in the adult with Syn1$^+$ axons found along the vasculature and near glomeruli (**Fig. 7C**).

Next, we investigated the developmental expression of receptors associated with various neuronal signaling mechanisms and known post-synaptic markers to understand which kidney cells are responsive to neuronal signaling. We utilized a publicly available single cell RNA-seq dataset from the E18.5 kidney to obtain the enrichment of these factors in the various cells of the developing kidney (Combes et al., 2019) (**Fig. S5**). These data show that a variety of cell types and structures including nephron progenitors, stromal cells, renal vesicles, and the S-shaped body express α-adrenergic receptors *Adra1a* and *Adra1b*, whereas *Adra2a* and *Adra2b* were enriched in the distal tubules, ureteric epithelium, and proximal tubules (**Fig. S5A**). We also noted the β-adrenergic receptor *Adrb2* was strongly enriched in the resident immune cells while *Adrb3* was expressed by stromal cells (**Fig. S5A**). Next, we also looked for the expression of major purinergic receptors in the developing kidney. Many of the ATP and Adenosine receptors including *P2rx4, P2rx7, P2ry6, P2yr12, P2yr13, P2yr14, Lpar6,* and *Lpar4* showed enrichment in the resident immune cells. Endothelial cells, tubule epithelium, and ureteric epithelium showed expression of *Ador2a, P2ry1, Lpar6, Lpar4,* and *Adora1* while *P2rx4* and *P2ry14* were moderately enriched in podocytes (**Fig. S5B**). Lastly, we observed the enrichment of known post-synaptic markers or synapse-promoting markers like *Vamp2, Tenm3, Tenm4, Ephb1, Ephb3, Epha2, and Grm7* by podocytes, *Nlgn1, Epha2, Ephb1, and Ephb4* by endothelial cells, and *Gria3, Ephb2, Ephb3, Ephb4, Ephb6, Epha1, Epha4, Epha7, Tenm2, Dlg4, Dlg1, Nlgn3* by the distal and proximal tubules (**Fig. S5C**). Collectively, the single-cell expression data provides evidence that cells within the developing kidney express a variety of receptors and post-synaptic markers suggesting they are competent to receive and respond to neuronal-derived signals.

The spatial organization of nerves is conserved in the adult human kidney

Given the specific distribution of kidney nerves around important structures such

as glomeruli and tubules in the mouse, we aimed to validate that innervation of

structures in the human adult kidney was similar. First, we immunostained adult human

cortex cryosections with sympathetic nerve marker TH. We observed TH$^+$ axons looping

around glomeruli and closely associating with the Bowman's capsule similar to the

mouse. These sympathetic nerves were also found near epithelial structures (ECAD+)

(**Fig. 8A**). Next, we sought to confirm the presence of PIEZO2$^+$ mechanosensory

afferents in the adult human kidney. We identified PIEZO2$^+$ nerves that were closely

associated with glomeruli and vessels as well as the kidney epithelium (**Fig. 8B**). To

validate that the nerves were actively signaling we assayed for the presence of

neuroeffector junctions by immunostaining for SYN1. We observed SYN1$^+$ nerve fibers

looping around glomeruli and around tubules (**Fig. 8C**). Taken together, these data

show that the close association of both sympathetic and sensory nerves with vessels

and nephrons is conserved in humans.

Discussion

In this study, we set out to investigate the process of kidney innervation across

embryonic and postnatal mouse development. We generated spatiotemporal maps of

innervation using markers specific to various classes of axons and identified the

presence of both sensory and sympathetic nerves, as well as evidence for

parasympathetic innervation. High resolution imaging of kidney sections provided

insights into the association of nerves with kidney structures such as the vasculature,

glomeruli, and tubules and the possible establishment of neuroeffector junctions.

Finally, we validated that the human kidney shows similar associations of sympathetic

and sensory nerve subclasses with nephron structures. Altogether, we have garnered

substantial new insights into the process of kidney innervation with implications for both

development and physiological regulation.

The close association of nerves with kidney vasculature

We established that kidney innervation begins at E13.5 and coincides with the initiation of arterial differentiation as vascular smooth muscle cells associate with the nascent endothelium. In the developing kidney, it has been shown that arterial differentiation is first established at E13.5 and progresses toward the kidney periphery (Daniel et al., 2018; Luo et al., 2023). Our findings of a strict association of axons with vascular smooth muscle cells correlates with a recent description of kidney innervation as well as our own recent studies (Honeycutt et al., 2023; Tarnick et al., 2023). We hypothesize that SMA+ vascular mural cells may be signaling to the axons, thereby guiding the nerves as the arteries differentiate and grow. This has been shown in other systems with axons responding to vascular-derived cues like artemin (*Artn1*) and neurotrophin 3 (*Ntf3*) (Glebova & Ginty, 2005). In the kidney, *Ntf3* is expressed by the vasculature whereas *Artn1* does not appear to be expressed, as inferred from single cell RNA-seq data of the developing kidney (Combes et al., 2019). Whether *Ntf3* or *Artn1* modulate innervation of the kidney has not been investigated to date. Once established, continued axonal growth and survival relies on neurotrophic factors such as nerve growth factor (NGF). During nephrogenesis, NGF is produced by cortical, medullary, and ureteric stroma (Combes et al., 2019; Glebova & Ginty, 2004). Additionally, it was established that NGF is required for the complete sympathetic innervation of the kidney via its interaction with its innate receptor tropomyosin receptor kinase A (TrkA) (Glebova & Ginty, 2004). Moreover, proper innervation also requires chemotactic guidance cues released by adjacent cells within the tissue. In the kidney, we and others have established that proper patterning of the neurovascular network is mediated by the guidance cue netrin-1 (Honeycutt et al., 2023; Luo et al., 2023). However, we established that the endothelium is the primary responder to netrin-1 guidance cues, with the nerves following the vascular pattern, suggesting the SMA[+] vascular mural cells themselves play a significant role in guiding kidney innervation (Honeycutt et al., 2023). While it has been established that netrin-1 plays a key role in synapse formation and axonal regeneration in the brain, we do not know whether the same is true in the kidney (Zheng et al., 2018). Additional studies are necessary to establish the full complement of cues necessary for proper kidney innervation and the establishment of functional crosstalk.

The diversity of kidney nerves

During kidney development, we found that both sensory and sympathetic nerves innervate the tissue early in development and branch following the arterial tree. Sensory nerves could be classified as nociceptive by Trpv1^{+} lineage tracing. The limitation of this approach is that as neurons mature, they may not remain Trpv1^{+}. As such, and with the lack of our ability to identify a Trpv1 antibody that worked on our kidneys, this lineage trace only serves as a proxy for Trpv1^{+} nerves that innervate the kidney from the onset. However, we were able to further classify the sensory neurons by their production of the neuropeptides CGRP and substance P. CGRP[+] nerves were identified earlier in development than substance P[+] nerves (E15.5 vs. E18.5), but both did not appear until innervation had already been established for several days. With the importance of neurotrophic factors for proper sensory afferent nerve function, these delays in production could be due to changes in molecular cues required for their specific growth and function (Ernsberger et al., 2020; Golden et al., 2010). The expression of their innate target receptor on kidney cells could also play an important role in triggering neuropeptide production. Despite these differences, all the sensory nerve markers showed similar tracking with the vasculature and association with kidney target structures such as glomeruli and tubules around E18.5 to P0.

Recent studies have established the expression of the *Piezo2* mechanosensory receptor by stromal progenitor cells during kidney development, as well as juxtaglomerular (JG) cells and glomerular mesangial cells in the adult kidney (Mochida et al., 2022, Hill et al., 2023). While our antibody labeling did not detect these Piezo2^{+} cells, this was also noted in the study by Mochida et al. where RNAScope *in situ* hybridization was necessary to detect *Piezo2* expression. We have established the presence of Piezo2/PIEZO2^{+} sensory nerves in both the mouse and human kidney where they associate with the vasculature, glomeruli, and proximal tubules. We hypothesize that these sensory axons are poised to sense changes in pressure or volume within the kidney. It has been established that Piezo2^{+} cells in the bladder communicate with pressure sensitive Piezo2^{+} afferent nerves to mediate micturition (Marshall et al., 2020), and Piezo2 signaling is critical for sexual function (Lam et al.,

2023). Intriguingly, a recent report suggests that Piezo2 in JG cells modulates renin
levels (Hill et al., 2023). However, further investigation is required to understand
whether such communication between Piezo2^{+} kidney cells and Piezo2^{+} sensory
neurons play a role in development or physiological function. Interestingly, many of
these sensory nerves are seen looping in a "hairpin" fashion around glomeruli and
tubules. Such anatomic position may better enable the ability to sense changes in
pressure, volume, filtration rate, and tubule physiology ensuring homeostatic control.
The looping may also enable innervation of structures within the kidney without the
need for a singular synapse to each kidney cell. These findings further emphasize the
need for studies investigating the physiological role of sensory afferent nerves in the
control of kidney development and function in health and disease.

In addition to the sensory nerves, we also showed that TH[+] sympathetic efferent
nerves innervate the developing kidney. TH[+] axons were detected as early as E14.5
and as development progressed, TH[+] nerves associated with the vasculature, tubules,
and glomeruli. Association with these structures correlates with the known physiological
functions of sympathetic nerves in modulating vascular tone, tubular sodium
reabsorption, and renin release by JG cells (Osborn et al., 2021; Osborn & Foss, 2017).
It has been established that renal sympathetic nerves contribute to the pathogenesis of
hypertension. Thus, procedures like catheter-based renal denervation are seen as novel
therapies that could reduce blood pressure in hypertensive patients (Esler et al., 2012;
Krum et al., 2013, 2014). However, this procedure non-selectively targets all renal
nerves and a deeper understanding of the interplay between sympathetic and sensory
nerves in the mediation of physiology may inform efforts to optimize these ablation
strategies.

Most visceral organs are innervated by both sympathetic and parasympathetic
nerves. This is no exception to the kidney which was first hypothesized to harbor
parasympathetic nerves that enter the kidney along the renal vasculature (Mitchell,
1950). Yet, there remains no significant anatomic evidence of extensive
parasympathetic innervation within the kidney, and this remains a topic of debate. In our
study, we observed Tubb3^{+} nerve fibers which colocalized with the cholinergic marker
VAChT. However, this could represent a subset of immature sympathetic nerves

expressing both VAChT and TH, although as development progressed, we observed VAChT$^+$ nerves in the cortex associating with structures such as tubules which are more likely to represent mature, functional parasympathetic nerves. Higher resolution imaging studies are needed to determine if these are sympathetic nerves expressing cholinergic markers or whether they represent separate classes. Recently, research by Cheng et al. on adult mouse renal arteries showed the presence of periarterial cholinergic nerves which were separate from sympathetic and sensory nerve fibers (Cheng et al., 2022). Together, these findings point to the potential for greater contribution of parasympathetic activity in the modulation or kidney function than has been previously appreciated, although further characterization is necessary.

Common DRG projections to organs of the urogenital system

The regulation of kidney homeostasis is in part maintained by neuronal modulation. Ablation of renal nerve activity is widely seen as a way to treat diseases like hypertension. Accurate mapping and understanding the molecular identity of kidney nerves will help guide such interventions. However, studies have largely focused on kidney sympathetic nerves and only recently has the contribution of sensory neurons to physiological regulation been more thoroughly investigated (Banek et al., 2016; Ong et al., 2019; Osborn et al., 2021). Building on these previous studies, we found that kidney sensory innervation is substantial and molecularly diverse. Axons from sensory neurons form an extensive network in the developing kidney that continues to expand with maturation. Validation of sensory innervation was provided by retrograde tracing and identified the DRG origins of these nerves. Kidney sensory innervation primarily traces to the lower thoracic region from DRG T10-T13, the lumbar region from DRG L1-L6, and the sacral region from DRG S1 and S2. However, the DRG labeling was variable with the majority of axons innervating the kidney projecting from T10-13 and L1-L2. Piezo2$^+$ neurons similarly traced to the DRG at these levels. Tracing performed in the mouse bladder and prostate via the application of FastBlue dye revealed similar projection of neurons from T13, L1, L2, L6, and S1 (Lee et al., 2016). This suggests that organs of the genitourinary system are largely innervated from common DRG. Interestingly, our CTB tracing experiment also showed that contralateral DRG at L1 and

L2 were positive for CTB. These data suggest that some axons innervating the kidney
might originate from contralateral DRG or that the same DRG in the ipsilateral side
sends axons to both kidneys. Concurrent retrograde labeling of sensory nerves in the
bladder and colon showed that dichotomizing afferent nerves coming from an individual
DRG neuron innervate both the colon and the bladder (Christianson et al., 2007). Such
connectivity is important for integrating sensory input from multiple organs and likely
plays a major role in pelvic pain disorders.

Establishing crosstalk during kidney development

During development the nerves lie in close association with the vasculature,
tubules, and glomeruli suggesting potential functional crosstalk. Sympathetic and
sensory nerves branch with the vasculature and dissociate to navigate through the
tissue where they appear to loop around glomeruli and come in close proximity to
tubules. Such close association likely allows for the formation of neuroeffector junctions
with target structures and allow nerves to functionally innervate multiple structures as
axons navigate around them. As reviewed previously (Barajas et al., 1984; DiBona &
Kopp, 1997; Osborn et al., 2021), these fiber varicosities could impact adjacent kidney
cells by establishing neuroeffector junctions more than 50μm away from the
neurotransmitter release site, allowing for diffusion throughout the interstitium and to
target cells. To investigate the presence of neuroeffector junctions in the kidney, we
assessed the localization of synapsin I, which is a major component of pre-synaptic
vesicles and important for axonogenesis (Chin et al., 1995). Early during development,
we observed that synapsin I is mainly localized near vasculature and this localization
profile is extended to the glomeruli and tubule by E18.5. Such findings agree with our
current understanding of kidney development and physiology. Mouse kidney
development continues postnatally contrary to human kidney development which is
finished before birth (McMahon, 2016). We also know that the mouse kidney forms
around 90% of its nephrons towards the end of ureteric branching with 40% of them
differentiating after birth (Smyth, 2021). Yet, kidney function must be established very
early on in newborn pups. Thus, it is likely important to establish proper innervation of
the developing kidney to regulate homeostasis. Interestingly, data mining through

publicly available single cell RNA-seq datasets of E18.5 kidneys (Combes et al., 2019)
suggests that many AMPA (*Gria1*, *Gria3*, *Gria4*) and NMDA (*Grin3a*) receptors are
expressed by different nephron and stromal progenitors, as well as early proximal
tubules. While it has been established that glutamatergic signaling via NMDA maintains
the epithelial phenotype of proximal tubular cells through calcium signaling in a proximal
tubule cell line (HK-2) (Bozic et al., 2011), it remains unclear what role glutamate
transport may play in the proper development of proximal tubules. Overall, the
expression of neurotransmitter receptors and postsynaptic markers in the developing
kidney suggests the potential for several neuronal signaling mechanisms that regulate
development and function.

Limitations of our studies

To our knowledge, our study is the first to provide a thorough characterization of
kidney innervation detailing the spatial and temporal establishment of nerve networks
during development, including association and putative crosstalk with target structures.
Importantly, we establish that a significant portion of the nerve network consists of
sensory afferent axons with the novel identification of Piezo2^{+} mechanosensory
neurons. However, it is important to note some assumptions which guided our study.
For the classification of noradrenergic sympathetic nerves, we use TH as a marker. The
strong expression of TH by sympathetic ganglion near the descending aorta support our
finding that TH[+] sympathetic nerves are abundant in the kidney. However, some TH[+]
axons in the developing kidney may project from the DRG (Meerschaert et al., 2020)
thus we cannot omit that a certain percentage of these nerves may be sensory,
although this is likely to be a minor percentage given the low level of TH expression
within sensory ganglia prior to birth (Smith-Anttila et al., 2021). Finally, we relied on the
careful study of technical and biological replicates but did not quantify axon metrics
such as density or percent of sympathetic versus sensory nerves. Hence, there is a
possibility that we did not identify more subtle differences among stages and classes of
nerves, in addition to sex differences. Future investigations are necessary to parse out
these details and to also determine the significance of these nerves to overall kidney
development and the establishment of proper function.

Materials and methods

Animals

All procedures and experiments were performed according to the guidelines of the National Institutes of Health Guide for the Care and Use of Laboratory Animals and were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committees of The University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill protocols 19-183 and 22-136. Mice were grouped and housed in a 12-h light-dark cycle with ad libitum access to food and water. Adult Swiss Webster (Taconic stock: SW MPF) and C57Bl6/J (Jackson Labs/JAX stock #: 000664) mice were purchased from the respective vendor for in house matings. Swiss Webster incrosses were utilized for all experiments involving only wild type mice. C57Bl/6J mice were utilized for maintenance of transgenic and knock-in lines. $Trpv1^{Cre}$ (JAX stock #:017769)(Cavanaugh et al., 2011) were maintained as a homozygous line, $Pod\text{-}Cre^{tg}$ mice (JAX stock #:008205)(Moeller et al., 2003) were maintained as heterozygotes, $R26^{tdTomato}$ (JAX stock #:007914)(Madisen et al., 2010) mice were maintained as a homozygous line, and $Piezo2^{EGFP\text{-}IRES\text{-}Cre}$ (JAX stock #:027719) (Woo et al., 2014) mice were maintained as heterozygotes.

Tissue collection and processing

For all mouse experiments, mattings were set up in the afternoon and copulation plugs found the following day were designated as embryonic day (E)0.5. The day of birth was considered postnatal day (P)0. This occurred at E19.5, births earlier or later than E19.5 were not utilized in these studies. At the desired developmental time point, pregnant dams were sacrificed by CO_2 inhalation, and death was confirmed by cervical dislocation. Mouse embryos were excised from the uterus and kidneys or whole urogenital systems dissected in ice-cold 1x phosphate-buffered saline (PBS). For genetic crosses, tail or ear clips were taken and incubated with DirectPCR lysis buffer (Viagen Biotech; Cat#102-T) containing 10µg/mL proteinase K (Sigma; Cat#3115836001), incubated at 55°C overnight, and denatured at 95°C for 20 min the next day. Genotyping was performed using JAX genotyping protocols and recommended primers with the following PCR parameters: annealing temperature T_{anl} =

58°C, elongation time t_{elg} = 40 sec for 35 cycles. To ensure biological significance, we

analyzed a minimum of 3 animals per neuronal marker for both sexes at the following

stages: E12.5, E13.5, E14.5, E16.5, E18.5, P0, P7, and adults (6-10 weeks old). For

tissue processing, all steps below were performed on rotating shakers. Harvested

kidneys or urogenital systems from embryonic and postnatal mice were fixed by

immersion in fresh ice-cold 4% PFA-PBS (Fishersci, Cat#15714) at 4°C for 30 min,

while kidneys obtained from juvenile and adult mice were fixed by immersion in fresh

ice-cold 4% PFA-PBS at 4°C for 2 hours. Next, all kidneys were washed in ice-cold 1x

PBS three times for 10 min each at room temperature and stored at 4°C in 1x PBS until

use. All kidneys destined to be sectioned were incubated in ice-cold 30% sucrose-PBS

solution overnight. The next day, kidneys were then embedded in Tissue freezing media

(Fishersci, Cat#23730571) and sectioned at 12μm on a Leica cryostat CM1850. Slides

were stored at -80°C until use.

Human kidney tissue samples were obtained from the UNC Tissue Procurement

Facility and were de-identified and therefore were exempt from IRB approval. Tissue

was obtained as a frozen block. A small piece of tissue was removed with a razor blade,

fixed for 10 min in 4% paraformaldehyde, and subsequent processing for cryosectioning

and immunofluorescence was carried out as for the mouse.

Cholera Toxin B(CTB) and pAAV-FLEX-tdTomato retrograde tracing

Surgeries were performed as in Woodard et al., 2018. Briefly, mice were

anesthetized with isoflurane inhalation and the right kidney accessed via flank incision.

The kidney was exposed and carefully isolated with cotton-tip applicators from

peripheral fat or connective tissues in order to not disrupt nerve connections. For

retrograde labeling of the DRGs innervating the kidney, 4 injections of 3μl 0.2% CTB-

555 were administered to 4 males and 4 females on a C57Bl6/J and Swiss Webster

background. For retrograde labeling of the Piezo2$^+$ nerves innervating the kidney, 4

injections of 5μl of *pAAV-FLEX-tdTomato* (plamid #28306) were administered to 2

males and 2 females *Piezo2$^{EGFP-IRES-Cre/+}$* (Jax# 027719). All injections were

administered directly into kidney tissue through the renal capsule. The 4 injections

consisted of one cortical injection per pole of the kidney, one injection in the medulla,

and one injection in the renal pelvis. For each injection, the needle was left inside the
tissue after injection for an additional 1 minute to avoid back-leak. After injections, the
muscle and skin were closed with sutures, and bupivacaine was administered for
analgesia. After suturing, mice were housed in a clean cage with heat pads underneath
until ambulatory. Mice were euthanized 4 days after CTB injections and 4 weeks after
pAAV-FLEX-tdTomato injections. Mice were perfused with 30ml 1x PBS and 20ml
4%PFA-PBS with kidneys and DRGs collected for tissue sectioning and imaging.

Section immunofluorescence

Kidney sections for immunofluorescence were removed from the -80°C freezer
and allowed to equilibrate to room temperature for 10 min. Sections were rehydrated,
and the freezing medium was removed by incubating the slide in 1x PBS for 10 min in a
Coplin jar. After rehydration, excess PBS was removed from the slide then a
hydrophobic barrier was drawn around the section using a hydrophobic pap pen (Vector
Laboratories, Cat#H-4000). Sections were incubated for 30 min in blocking solution (ice-
cold PBS solution with 4% donkey serum (Equitech-Bio, Cat#SD30-0100), 1% bovine
serum albumin (Fishersci, Cat#BP9706-100), and 0.25% Triton X-100 (Fishersci,
Cat#BP151-500). Slides were then incubated at room temperature for 2 hours covered
from light with primary antibodies in block solution (see Supplemental Table 1 for
primary antibodies utilized; Piezo2 antibodies were combined as a mixture for
detection). After primary incubation, slides were washed 3 times for 5 min at room
temperature covered from light with wash solution (PBS + 0.25% Triton X-100) before
incubating them for 45 min at room temperature covered from light with the appropriate
Alexa Fluor secondary antibody (488, 568, or 647 conjugated; ThermoFisher) in
blocking solution. Finally, slides were washed 4 times for 5min at room temperature
covered from light using wash solution with the last wash containing DAPI diluted at
1:10000. Slides were mounted using Prolong gold mounting media (ThermoFisher,
Cat#P36930), and images were captured with a Zeiss 880 confocal laser scanning
microscope.

Wholemount immunofluorescence and tissue clearing

For mouse embryonic and postnatal kidneys or urogenital systems (E12.5-P7),

we used a modified version of the original iDISCO protocol (Renier et al., 2014) for

wholemount immunolabelling (see Supplemental Table 2) using validated antibodies

and concentrations indicated in Supplemental Table 1. All steps are performed on

rotating shakers. We first incubated whole pre-fixed tissue in 1ml blocking solution (ice-

cold PBS solution with 10% (v/v) Heat Inactivated Sheep Serum (HISS) (ThermoFisher,

Cat# 16070096) and 0.5% (v/v) Triton X-100) for 1hr at room temperature. Then, we

incubated the blocked kidney in 1ml primary antibody in block solution for 7 days at 4°C

while covered from light. The labeled kidney was then washed using 1ml wash buffer

(PBS solution with 0.25% Triton X-100) for a whole day at room temperature covered

from light with wash solution changed every 1 hour. After washing, labeled kidneys were

incubated in 1ml secondary antibody in block solution at a concentration of 1:1000 for

3.5 days at 4°C while covered from light. After secondary antibody labeling, kidneys

were washed again using 1ml wash buffer for a whole day at room temperature covered

from light with wash solution changed every 1 hour. Before optical clearing, successful

labeling was checked on a widefield Leica fluorescent microscope (Leica DMi8).

Labeled kidneys were then embedded in 1% agarose (Fishersci, Cat#BP160-500) gel

made with 1x TAE, the agarose block was cut to a size of 5mmx5mm to ensure proper

mounting on the light-sheet microscope. To clear kidneys, we first dehydrated the

agarose block in a methanol-H_2O (Fishersci, Cat#A433P-4) series wash at room

temperature (25%, 50%, 75%, and 100%) for 1 hour each minimum covered from light.

Next, dehydrated agarose blocks were incubated in 66% v/v dichloromethane (DCM)

(Sigma, Cat#270997-2L)/33% v/v methanol for 3 hours at room temperature covered

from light. Following this, the agarose blocks were then incubated in 100% DCM for

15min x 2 at room temperature covered from light. Finally, the fully dehydrated agarose

blocks were incubated in 100% v/v dibenzyl ether (DBE) (Sigma, Cat#33630-1L) and

stored at room temperature away from light. The blocks became transparent and

invisible within 5-7hr and were stored in DBE until imaging. The DBE was changed out

for fresh DBE before imaging the sample.

3D light-sheet and confocal imaging

All whole-mount images were obtained using the LaVision BioTec
Ultramicroscope II light-sheet system at the UNC Microscopy Services Laboratory
(MSL). This light-sheet is outfitted with an Andor Zyla 5.5 sCMOS detector, an Olympus
MVPLAPO 2X/0.5 objective coupled to a zoom body ranging from 1.26x to 12.6x with a
corrected dipping cap and a working distance of 5.7mm. All whole-mount images in this
study were imaged with laser wavelengths: 488, 561, and 647nm as well as 3 angled
light-sheet from one side only with the following parameters: sheet NA of 0.016,
horizontal focus set in the middle of the sample, correction collar set at 3.5 and 2μm Z-
spacing (step size). All tiff images are generated in 16-bit. All confocal images were
obtained using a Zeiss 880 confocal laser scanning microscope in the UNC Hooker
Imaging Core via the Zen 2 software with 34-channel gallium arsenide phosphide
(GaAsP) detectors. All images obtained were imaged using a Plan-Neofluar 40x/NA:1.3
or 63x/NA:1.4 oil objective with the following working distance respectively: 0.21mm and
0.19mm. Pinhole size of 1AU set on the longest wavelength fluorophore with the same
diameter size for all the rest. All image acquisition settings can be found in
Supplemental Table 3.
698

Image processing
Images, 3D volume, and movies were generated using Imaris x64 software
version 9.9.1. All stack images obtained from light-sheet imaging were first converted
into an imaris file (.ims) using Imaris File Converter version 9.8.2. All wholemount
images and videos were obtained using the "snapshot" and "animation" tools in Imaris
9.9.1. files obtained from Zeiss confocal microscope (.czi) were converted into an Imaris
file using Imaris File Converter 9.8.2. Tilescan images were stitched with 20%
overlapped using Imaris stitcher 9.9.1 and image analysis was done in Imaris version
9.9.1.
708

709　***Receptor and postsynaptic marker scRNA-seq enrichment***
710　　　　　To identify the kidney cell populations in which nerve associated receptors and
711　markers were expressed, the selected genes were analyzed for their relative
712　enrichment within the single cell RNA-seq data from E18.5 kidneys (Combes et al.,

2019). Heatmaps were generated in R (R Core Team, 2021) using the ggplot2 package (Wickham, 2009) and ComplexHeatmap (Gu et al. 2016). Log fold change values were obtained from Combes et al., 2019 Table S1 "lookup" tab.

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Conflict of Interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest

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Authors Contributions

L.L.O. conceptualized the study, supervised research, guided experiments, interpreted data, and revised the manuscript. P-E.Y.N. performed experiments, data analysis, interpreted data, and wrote the manuscript. S.R.M. performed mouse surgery

required for retrograde tracing and helped with Piezo2 analysis. P-E.Y.N. and A.T. injected mice for retrograde tracing experiment. A.T. and M.G. dissected, imaged and analyzed DRGs data. All authors contributed to the manuscript text. G.S. interpreted retrograde tracing data and supervised A.T. and M.G. research.

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Figure 1. Kidney innervation commences at E13.5 as axons follow the differentiating arteries and continue to branch throughout development. (A) Pan-neuronal labeling (Tubb3, green) of an E12.5 urogenital system (UGS) shows that renal nerves are absent in the kidney at E12.5 as shown by immunostaining of the branching ureteric bud (cytokeratin, yellow). Ganglion and some postganglionic nerve fibers track along the descending aorta shown by smooth muscle actin (SMA, magenta). **(B)** Pan-neuronal labeling (Tubb3, green) of an E13.5 UGS shows that axons begin to innervate the kidney following the SMA+ vascular mural cells (magenta) of the developing arteries (white arrowhead, zoomed image). CD31 (yellow) highlights the extensive endothelial network that has formed but is yet to be coated with mural cells. **(C)** Axonal projections (Tubb3, green) continue to grow and branch following the developing arterial tree (SMA, magenta) at E16.5. Cytokeratin (yellow) marks the collecting duct system. Multiple axon bundles can be observed on an artery (white arrowhead, zoomed image). **(D)** By E18.5, axons (Tubb3, green) have undergone extensive growth with the arterial tree (SMA, magenta) and additional interstitial branching as the nerves navigate towards and

around kidney structures such as glomeruli (Nphs2, yellow; white arrowhead, zoomed image) A minimum of n=3 kidneys were analyzed for each stage.

Figure 2: Axons associate with kidney structures during embryonic development. (**A**) Image of an E18.5 kidney section immunostained for vasculature (SMA, magenta) and nerves (Tubb3, green). Axons are tightly associated with the SMA+ vasculature. **(B)** Image of an E18.5 kidney section immunostained for nerves (Tubb3, green) and glomeruli (Nphs2, magenta). Axons approach the glomeruli and associate with the Bowman's capsule as they navigate through the kidney. **(C)** Image of an E18.5 kidney section immunostained for nerves (Tubb3, green) and tubule epithelium (Ecad, magenta). Axons are observed closely associating with Ecad$^+$ tubules. A minimum of n=3 kidneys were analyzed for each stage.

Figure 3: Nociceptive sensory afferent nerves innervate the developing kidney. **(A)** Wholemount immunostain of an E16.5 *Trpv1$^{Cre/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/+}$* kidney showing tdTomato+ (magenta) axons colocalizing with the pan-neuronal marker Tubb3 (green). A magnified inset from the merged shows tdTomato$^+$ axons overlapping with Tubb3. **(B)** *Trpv1$^{Cre/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/+}$* P1 kidney section showing native tdTomato signal (magenta) with immunostained proximal tubules (Lrp2, green) and epithelium (Ecad, yellow). TdTomato+ axons navigate around and closely associate with these structures (white arrowheads). **(C)** *Trpv1$^{Cre/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/+}$* P1 kidney section showing native tdTomato signal (magenta) with immunostained podocytes (to mark glomeruli, Nphs2, green) and endothelium (CD31, yellow). TdTomato+ axons extend along the vasculature and associate with glomeruli (white arrowhead). A minimum of n=3 kidneys were analyzed for each stage.

Figure 4: Peptidergic and mechanosensory afferent nerves are present in the developing kidney. (A) E15.5 kidney section immunostained for the neuropeptide CGRP$^+$ (magenta) and pan-neuronal marker Tubb3 (green). CGRP$^+$ nerves mainly associate with the kidney vasculature (CD31, yellow; white arrowhead) at this stage. **(B)** Sections of *Pod-Cre$^{tg/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/tdTomato}$* P0 kidneys immunostained for CGRP$^+$

(magenta). CGRP+ axons are found near (white arrowhead) glomeruli (tdTomato,
green) and close to proximal tubules (Lrp2, yellow). **(C)** Adult kidney section
immunostained for CGRP (magenta) and colocalized with Tubb3 (green) shows CGRP$^+$
axons closely associating with the vasculature (CD31, yellow) and in close proximity to
glomeruli (white arrowhead). **(D)** E18.5 kidney section immunostained for substance P
(SubP, magenta) shows overlap with Tubb3 (green). SubP$^+$ nerves were found
associated with the vasculature (CD31, yellow, white arrowhead). **(E)** Adult kidney
section immunostained for SubP$^+$ (magenta) and Tubb3 (green) shows SubP+ nerves
along the vasculature (CD31, yellow) and in close proximity to glomeruli (white
arrowhead). **(F)** E15.5 kidney section immunostained for Piezo2 (magenta) and Tubb3
(green) show Piezo2+ nerves associating with the vasculature (CD31, yellow; white
arrowhead). **(G)** Sections of *Pod-Cre$^{tg/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/tdTomato}$* P0 kidneys immunostained
for Piezo2 (magenta) show Piezo2+ nerves closely associating (white arrowheads) with
glomeruli (tdTomato, green) and proximal tubules (Lrp2, yellow). A minimum of n=3
kidneys were analyzed for each stage.

1032

Figure 5: CTB retrograde tracing shows axon trajectories and labeling of thoracic,
lumbar, and sacral DRGs. (A) Schematic of retrograde tracing injection and timeline.
CTB-555 was injected into the right kidney of adult mice. Three days following the
injection both kidneys were dissected as well as the ipsilateral DRGs (injected side) and
contralateral DRGs (non-injected side). **(B)** Sensory innervation primarily traces in the
ipsilateral DRGs to the lower thoracic region (T10-T13), lumbar region (L1-L6), and
sacral region (S1-S2). Tracing to the contralateral DRGs was observed in the upper
lumbar region of L1 and L2. n=4 males and n=4 females, Scale bar =50µm. **(C)**
Ipsilateral and contralateral kidney sections of CTB-injected kidneys. Immunostaining of
the ipsilateral kidney section showed CTB$^+$ staining (magenta) colocalizing with Tubb3
(green) near glomeruli (CD31, yellow, arrowhead) and vasculature (CD31, yellow).
CTB$^+$ staining (magenta, arrowhead) colocalized with Tubb3 (green) near vasculature
(CD31, yellow) in the contralateral (non-injected) kidney. **(D)** Schematic representation
of the spinal level and DRG origin of kidney sensory afferent innervation.

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Figure 6: Noradrenergic sympathetic nerves innervate the developing kidney. (A) E14.5 wholemount immunostained kidney labeled with tyrosine hydroxylase (TH, magenta) shows that the first innervating axons (Tubb3, green) are TH+. Cytokeratin (yellow) marks the developing collecting duct system. **(B)** P0 wholemount immunostained kidney labeled with TH (magenta) shows that the TH+ nerves have branched extensively alongside the arterial tree (SMA, green). Lrp2 marks the proximal tubules (yellow) and the magnified inset shows TH$^+$ nerves (magenta) navigating around and in close proximity to proximal tubules (white arrowheads). **(C)** E15.5 kidney section immunostained for TH (magenta) and Tubb3 (green) shows TH+ axons around the vasculature (CD31, yellow; white arrowhead). **(D)** Sections of *Pod-Cre$^{tg/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/tdTomato}$* P0 kidneys immunostained for TH (magenta) show TH$^+$ axons near glomeruli (tdTomato, green; white arrowhead) and proximal tubules (Lrp2, yellow)**.** A minimum of n=3 kidneys were analyzed for each stage.

Figure 7: Nerves form putative neuroeffector-junctions with kidney targets during development. (A) Immunostaining of E14.5 kidney sections for synapsin I (Syn1, magenta) shows overlap with Tubb3 (green) and association of axons with the main artery (CD31, yellow; white arrowhead). **(B)** E15.5 kidney sections immunostained for Syn1 (magenta) and Tubb3 (green) similarly show Syn1$^+$ nerves positive around the vasculature (CD31, yellow). **(C)** Sections of *Pod-Cre$^{tg/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/tdTomato}$* P0 kidneys immunostained for Syn1 (magenta) show Syn1+ axons (Tubb3, green) near glomeruli (tdTomato, green; white arrowheads, top panel) and proximal tubules (Lrp2, yellow; White arrowhead, bottom panel). **(D)** Sections of *Pod-Cre$^{tg/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/tdTomato}$* adult kidneys immunostained for Syn1 (magenta) show Syn1+ axons (Tubb3, green) along the arterioles near glomeruli (tdTomato, green; white arrowhead). A minimum of n=3 kidneys were analyzed for each stage.

Figure 8: Sympathetic and sensory nerves show similar structural associations in the adult human kidney. (A) Adult human kidney sections immunostained for TH$^+$ sympathetic nerves (green) can be observed associating with glomeruli shown by Podocalyxin (magenta; top panel, white arrowhead) and in close proximity to epithelial

structures (ECAD, yellow; bottom panel, white arrowhead). **(B)** Adult human kidney sections immunostained for PIEZO2 (magenta) show PIEZO2$^+$ overlapping with TUBB3 (green) associating with glomeruli (Podocalyxin, yellow; white arrowhead, top panel) and the vasculature (Podocalyxin, yellow; white arrowhead, middle panel). PIEZO2+ sensory nerves were also observed near epithelial structures (LRP, green; ECAD, yellow; white arrowhead, bottom panel). **(C)** Adult human kidney sections immunostained for SYN1 (green) show SYN1+ axons near glomeruli (Podocalyxin, magenta; white arrowhead, top panel) and epithelial structures (ECAD, yellow; white arrowhead, bottom panel).

Figure S1: Innervation of the embryonic and postnatal kidney. (A) Wholemount immunostain of an E14.5 kidney for Tubb3 (green), SMA (red), and CD31 (grey). Axons track closely with the developing arteries despite the presence of an extensive CD31+ endothelial network. (**B)** Wholemount immunostain of a P0 kidney for Tubb3 (green), Nphs2 (podocytes, magenta), and Lrp2 (proximal tubules, yellow). The neuronal network continues to expand and navigate towards and around kidney structures. **(C)** Wholemount immunostain of a P0 kidney for Tubb3 (green), SMA (red), and Nphs2 (podocytes, grey). The neuronal network has continued to grow as the vasculature expands and the last wave of nephrons differentiate.

Figure S2: Delay in renal peptidergic sensory innervation and innervation timeline of mechanosensitive axons in the metanephric kidney. (A) E14.5 kidney sections immunostained for CGRP (magenta) shows that axons at this stage (Tubb3, green) that primarily associate with the vasculature (CD31, yellow) are not yet CGRP+. **(B)** E14.5 kidney sections immunostained for substance P (SubP, magenta) shows that axons at this stage (Tubb3, green) that primarily associate with the vasculature (CD31, yellow) are not yet SubP+.

Figure S3: pAAV-Flex retrograde tracing of Piezo2$^+$ sensory nerves show labeling of lower thoracic and upper lumbar DRGs. (A) Schematic of retrograde tracing injections and timeline. pAAV-Flex-tdTomato was injected into the right kidney of

1110   *Piezo2$^{GFPCre/+}$* mice. Three weeks following ipsilateral (injected side) and contralateral

1111   (non-injected side) DRGs were collected for analysis. **(B)** Piezo2$^+$ renal sensory

1112   innervation primarily traces in the ipsilateral DRG in the lower thoracic region (T10-T13)

1113   and the upper lumbar region (L1-L2). Scale = 50μm. **(C)** Schematic representation of

1114   the spinal level and DRG origin of kidney Piezo2+ sensory afferent innervation

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Figure S4: The cholinergic marker VAChT labels axons in the developing kidney.

(A) E14.5 kidney sections immunostained for VAChT (magenta), Tubb3 (green), and

CD31 (endothelium) show that axons (white arrowhead) are not positive for VAChT at

this stage. VAChT signal is primarily background, non-specific signal. **(B)** E15.5 kidney

sections immunostained for VAChT (magenta), Tubb3 (green), and CD31 (endothelium)

show that VAChT signal (white arrowhead) is similar to Tubb3 axonal signal (green). **(C)**

Sections of *Pod-Cre$^{tg/+}$;R26$^{tdTomato/tdTomato}$* P0 kidneys immunostained for VAChT

(magenta) show VAChT+ axons near glomeruli (tdTomato, green; white arrowheads,

top panel) and proximal tubules (Lrp2, yellow; White arrowhead, bottom panel). **(D)**

Adult kidney sections immunostained for VAChT (magenta), Tubb3 (green), and CD31

(endothelium) show that VAChT signal overlaps with Tubb3 and closely associates with

the vasculature.

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Figure S5: Differential enrichment of adrenergic, purinergic, and post-synaptic

markers within the different cell clusters of the E18.5 kidney (A) Heatmaps showing

relative enrichment of adrenergic receptors in the different kidney cell types (clusters)

from E18.5 whole kidney scRNA-seq data (Combes et al., 2019). **(B)** Heatmaps

showing relative enrichment of purinergic receptors in the different kidney cell types

(clusters) at E18.5. **(C)** Heatmaps showing relative enrichment of post-synaptic markers

in the different kidney cell types (clusters) at E18.5. The scale indicates log fold change

relative to the other cell clusters. NP=nephron progenitor, NP (STR) = nephron

progenitor and stroma related, PTA = pretubular aggregate, RV = renal vesicle, SSB =

S-shaped body, DT = distal tubule, EPT = early proximal tubule, PT = proximal tubule,

Pod = podocytes, UE = ureteric epithelium, Str-CS = cortical stroma, Str-MS =

medullary stroma, Str-CD = collecting duct stroma, Str-Ur = ureteric stroma, Imm =

immune cells, Endo = endothelium. LogFC DE = log fold change differential expression.

1142

1143   **Suppl. Table 1: Wholemount tissue processing steps for iDISCO$^+$ and light-sheet**

1144   **microscopy**

1145   **Suppl. Table 2: Imaging parameters utilized in this study**

1146   **Suppl. Table 3: List of primary antibodies used in this study**

Figure 1

Figure 2

Figure 3

Figure 4

Figure 5

A.

B.

C.

D.

Figure 6

Figure 7

Figure 8

A.

| TH | Podocalyxin | Merge |

Adult Human Cortex

70 µm

| TH | ECAD | Merge |

20 µm

B.

| PIEZO2 | TUBB3 | Podocalyxin | Merge |

Adult Human Cortex

50 µm

50 µm

| PIEZO2 | LRP2 | ECAD | Merge |

50 µm

C.

| SYN1 | Podocalyxin | Merge |

Adult Human Cortex

60 µm

| SYN1 | ECAD | Merge |

50 µm

Figure S1

A. E14.5 | Tubb3 | SMA | CD31 | Merge

B. P0 | Tubb3 | Nphs2 | Lrp2 | Merge

C. P7 | Tubb3 | SMA | Nphs2 | Merge

Figure S2

Figure S3

A.

pAAV-Flex-tdTom Injection into Kidney

DRGs Dissection

Day 1 — Wk-1 — Wk-2 — Wk-3 — **Wk-4**

Retrograde Tracing

B.

Piezo2^GFPCre/+
pAAV-Flex-tdTomato DAPI

Ipsilateral

T10 | T13 | L1 | L2
T12 | T13 | L1 | L2

C.

Contralateral DRG   Ipsilateral DRG

T10
T11
T12
T13
L1
L2
L3
L4
L5
L6
S1
S2

Non-Injected Kidney

Injected Kidney

Piezo2⁺ DRGs
No innervation

Figure S4

Supplementary Table 1

	Steps	Modality	Time	Temperature	Volume (mL)
1	Blocking: PBS, 10% (v/v) HISS, 0.5% (v/v) Triton-x 100	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	1hr	RT	1mL/Kidney pair
2	Primary Antibody Solution: PBS, 10% (v/v) HISS, 0.5% (v/v) Triton-x 100, Primary antibody	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	7 days	4℃	1mL/Kidney pair
3	Wash Solution: PBS, 0.25% (v/v) Triton-x 100	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	1 days	RT	1mL/Kidney pair
4	Secondary Antibody Solution: PBS, 10% (v/v) HISS, 0.5% (v/v) Triton-x 100, Secondary antibody	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	3.5 days	4℃	1mL/Kidney pair
5	Wash Solution: PBS, 0.25% (v/v) Triton-x 100	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	1 days	RT	1mL/Kidney pair
6	Embed kidneys in 1% Agarose gel to a 5x5mm block	n/a			
7	Methanol Dehydration: 25% (v/v) Methanol in water	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	1hr	RT	5mL/Kidney pair
8	Methanol Dehydration: 50% (v/v) Methanol in water	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	1hr	RT	5mL/Kidney pair
9	Methanol Dehydration: 75% (v/v) Methanol in water	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	1hr	RT	5mL/Kidney pair
10	Methanol Dehydration: 100% (v/v) Methanol	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	1hr	RT	5mL/Kidney pair
11	DCM Dehydration: 66% (v/v) DCM/33% (v/v) Methanol	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	3hrs	RT	5mL/Kidney pair
12	DCM Dehydration: 100% (v/v) DCM	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	15min	RT	5mL/Kidney pair
13	DCM Dehydration: 100% (v/v) DCM	passive perfusion on rocker cover from light	15min	RT	5mL/Kidney pair
14	100% (v/v) DBE Incubation	cover from light	Indefinitly	RT	5mL/Kidney pair

Supplementary Table 2

Figures			System	Magnification	NA	RI	WD	Zoom	Total Magnifdication	Image pixel size	Z-step	Note	Data size
Figures													
1	A		UM II	2x; corr.-3.5	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	3.2x	6.4	0.95 µm/pixel	1.4µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	47.8 GB
	B		UM II	2x; corr.-3.5	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	2.5x	5.0	1.22 µm/pixel	1.4µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	38.8 GB
	C		UM II	2x; corr.-3.5	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	4x	8.0	0.75 µm/pixel	1.4µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	40.0 GB
	D		UM II	2x; corr.-3.5	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	2.5x	5.0	1.22 µm/pixel	1.4µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	59.8 GB
2	A		A.D. SDC	25x	0.95	1.33	2.4mm	n.a	25x			3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	4.82 GB
	B		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	26.29 MB
	C		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.42 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D single slice	8.2 MB
3	A		UM II	2x; corr.-3.5	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	4x	8.0	0.75 µm/pixel	1.4µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	55.9 GB
	B		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.12 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	40.28 MB
	C		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.12 µm/pixel	7.9µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	360.88 MB
4	A		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.12 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D single slice	160.53 MB
	B		LSM 900	40x oil	1.4	1.51	0.13mm	n.a	40	0.07 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 3x3; 2D single slice	454.14 MB
	C		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	59.81 MB
	D		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	26.68 MB
	E		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D single slice	106.24 MB
	F		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D single slice	106.23 MB
	G		LSM 900	40x oil	1.4	1.51	0.13mm	n.a	40	0.07 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	40.17 MB
5	B		LSM 780	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	0.6	20x	0.69 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	4226 KB
	C		DMi8	20x DMi8	0.4	1.0	6.2-7.5 mm	n.a	20x	0.32 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice, Ipsilateral kidney image	38.1 MB
			DMi8	20x DMi8	0.4	1.0	6.2-7.5 mm	n.a	20x	0.32 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice, Cintralateral kidney image	36.6 MB
6	A												
	B		UM II	2x; corr.-3.5	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	2x	4	1.54 µm/pixel	2.0µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	49.2 GB
	C		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	26.68 MB
	D		LSM 900	40x oil	1.4	1.51	0.13mm	n.a	40	0.07 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	40.17 MB
	E		LSM 900	40x oil	1.4	1.51	0.13mm	n.a	40	0.07 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D single slice	203.39 MB
7	A		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.12 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	144.91 MB
			LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	26.68 MB
	B		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.12 µm/pixel	0.90µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	361.31 MB
			LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	0.50µm	Tile Scan 2x2; 3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	3.11 GB
	C		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.12 µm/pixel	0.90µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	920.56 MB
8	A		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	1.8µm	Tile Scan 3x3; 3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	3.96 GB
	B		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D Single slice	106.23 MB
			LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 3x2; 2D Single slice	159.22 MB
			LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	0.54µm	Tile Scan 2x2; 3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	2.9 GB
	C		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	1.8µm	Tile Scan 3x3; 3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	3.73 GB
			LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	0.95µm	Tile Scan 2x2; 3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	2.17 GB
Sup. Figures													
S1	A		UM II	2x; corr.-3.5	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	3.2x	6.4	0.95 µm/pixel	1.4µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	38.2 GB
	B		UM II	2x; corr.-3.5	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	1.6x	3.2	1.95 µm/pixel	2.0µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	56.5 GB
	C		UM II	2x; corr.-3.6	0.016	1.56	5.7mm	2x	4	1.54 µm/pixel	2.0µm	3D recontruction; Maximum intensity projection	54.2 GB
S2	A		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.12 µm/pixel		Tile Scan 4x4; 2D single slice	641.4 MB
	B		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.12 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D single slice	160.51 MB
S3	B		LSM 780	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	0.6	20x	0.69 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	4226 KB
S4	A		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.83 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 3x3; 2D single slice	18.22 MB
	B		LSM 880	20x	0.8	1.0	0.55mm	n.a	20	0.83 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 3x3; 2D single slice	18 MB
	C		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	2D single slice	26.7 MB
			LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D single slice	106.23 MB
	D		LSM 880	40x oil	1.3	1.51	0.21mm	n.a	40	0.08 µm/pixel	n.a	Tile Scan 2x2; 2D single slice	100 MB

Legend of abbreviations

Imaging Systems

UM II	LaVision BioTec - UltraMicroscope II
LSM 880	Zeiss confocal LSM880 with Airyscan
LSM 900	Zeiss confocal LSM900
A.D. SDC	Andor Dragonfly Spinning Disk Confocal
DMi8	Leica DMi8 Inverted Fluorescent Microscope
LSM 780	Zeis confocal LSM 780
NA	Numerical aperture
RI	Refractive index
WD	Working distance
n.a.	not applicable

Objectives

	Olympus MVPLAPO 2X/0.5; correction
2x corr.	colar 3.5
20x	Plan-Apo 20x/0.8WD 0.55mm
20x	
DMi8	HC PL Fluotar L M25
40x	Plan-Neofluar 40x/1.3 oil WD0.21
40x	40X/0.6 LD Plan Neo

Supplementary Table 3

Antibody	Vendor	Cat #	Host	Dilution IF	Dilution WM	Stains
CD31	BD Pharmingen	550274	Rat	1/100	1/50	Pecam1, Endothelial cell
CGRP	Immunostar	24112	Rabbit	1/250	n/a	Calcitonin Gene-Related Peptide, Peptidergic sensory nerve
CytoK	Sigma-Aldrich	C2931-.2ML	Mouse IgG1	1/500	1/250	Cytokeratin, Ureteric tree
Ecad	Invitrogen	131900	Rat	1/500	1/250	E-cadherin, Tubule epithelium
Lrp2	MyBiosource	MBS690201	Mouse IgG1	1/500	1/250	Megalin, Proximal tubule
Nphs2	Invitrogen	PA579757	Rabbit	1/500	1/250	Podocin, Podocytes, Glomeruli
SMA-488	Invitrogen	53-9760-82	Mouse IgG2a	1/500	1/250	Smooth muscle actin, Arterial tree
SubP	Immunostar	20064	Rabbit	1/100	n/a	Substance P Peptidergic sensory nerve
Syn1	Invitrogen	51-5200	Rabbit	1/1000	n/a	Synapsin I, Synaptic vesicle marker
TH	Milipore Sigma	AB152	Rabbit	1/500	1/250	Tyrosine Hydroxylase Noradrenergic sympathetic nerve
Tubb3	BioLegend	801202	Mouse IgG2a	1/500	1/250	Class 3 Tubulin Pan-neuronal marker
Tubb3-594	BioLegend	801208	Mouse IgG2a	1/500	1/250	Class 3 Tubulin Pan-neuronal Marker
VAChT	SySy	139105	Guinea-Pig	1/100	n/a	Vesicular acetylcholine transporter, Parasympathetic (Cholinergic) nerve
RFP	Rockland	600901379	Chicken	1/500	1/250	Recombinant RFP (tdTomato)
Piezo2	Novus	NBP1-78624	Rabbit	1/250	n/a	Mechanosensitive sensory nerve
Piezo2	Novus	NBP1-78538	Rabbit	1/250	n/a	Mechanosensitive sensory nerve
Podxl	R&D systems	AF1658	Goat	1/500	1/250	Podocalyxin, glomeruli, endothelium