

1 **A Review on**

2 **In vitro and In vivo model advancements for the study of Escherichia coli-** 3 **induced Urinary tract infections**

4 **1. Abstract**

5 Urinary tract infections (UTIs) are bacterial infections that affect public health and are caused more
6 frequently due to Uropathogenic Escherichia (UPEC). UPEC uses a wide range of virulence factors like
7 adhesins, biofilm formation, fimbriae, and immune evasion techniques for persistent, recurrent infection and
8 antimicrobial resistance. The need for improved diagnostic methods, treatments, and protective actions is
9 raised due to the emergence of Multidrug-resistant UPEC strain which has complicated the present treatment
10 plans. Traditional methods like Invitro & Invivo models helped in studying the UTI host-pathogen
11 interaction & pathogenesis but have constraints in studying long-term infections and also in recreating
12 human urinary tract conditions. The latest innovations in experimental models such as bladder organoids,
13 dynamic microfluidic systems, and murine & zebrafish models improved physiological relevance and
14 understanding of UPEC behaviour and newer treatment methods. These models helped us deepen our
15 knowledge of antibiotic resistance, biofilm dynamics, and host immune responses which enabled us to
16 develop novel therapeutic approaches. UTI research has fastened after technological innovations in genome
17 & transcriptomic analyses, imaging techniques, and high-throughput screening. To deal with MDR UPEC,
18 newer treatment methods like vaccines, phage therapy and anti-virulence agents are being delved into along
19 with antibiotics. In addition, improved invitro and invivo models are used to develop vaccines specific to
20 UPEC. This review focuses on the developments in experimental models and methods to study E.coli-
21 induced UTIs, mainly focusing on its purpose in studying pathogenesis, improving preventive measures, and
22 overcoming treatment challenges. These integrated innovations are critical to tackling the rising MDR
23 UPEC and the need for personalized treatment to decrease the worldwide burden of UTIs.

24 **2. Introduction**

25 **Overview of urinary tract infections (UTIs)**

26 Urinary tract infections are a type of bacterial infection that affects the bladder, urethra, and kidney which
27 are the parts of the urinary system. Urinary tract infections are classified into complicated UTIs, mostly
28 observed in healthy women, and uncomplicated UTIs, mostly caused by structural or functional
29 abnormalities. [1]. For 75% of acquired UTIs, E.coli is responsible, and other microbes like Klebsiella
30 pneumoniae & Staphylococcus saprophyticus are responsible for UTIs in some people. The recurrent
31 infections caused by uropathogenic E.coli (UPEC) are due to the fimbriae which are important for
32 attachment and biofilm formation which is important for persistence [2].

33 Age, diabetes, and catheterization increase the susceptibility and severity of infection. The symptoms of
34 pyelonephritis which is a type of upper UTI are mostly fever, flank pain, and nausea while symptoms of
35 lower UTIs are dysuria & suprapubic pain. The prognosis for detection of causative pathogen is mostly
36 urinalysis and urine culture while the medication used mostly are antibiotics such as nitrofurantoin or
37 trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole [3]. Nevertheless, in the case of UPEC due to its increased anti-microbial
38 resistance, the treatment methodologies have become difficult. As UTI is the major reason for Gram-
39 negative sepsis, it significantly impacts public health and is one reason for the high healthcare costs [4].

40 **Importance of Escherichia coli as a primary pathogen in UTIs**

41 80-90% of community-acquired UTIs are caused by Escherichia coli (E. coli). These are also known as
42 Uropathogenic E.coli. These strains have diverse pathogenicity factors such as fimbriae and adhesins,
43 enabling E.coli to attach and colonize the urinary tract [5]. Its ability to form biofilm is the major reason for
44 its persistence, recurrence (majorly in women having recurrent UTIs), and antibiotic resistance. Some
45 studies like Phylogenic studies show the relation between UPEC strains (for example those in group B2) and
46 increased pathogenicity and antimicrobial susceptibility [6].

47 Besides, the adaptive mechanisms of E.coli help it to grow in nutrient-dense environments such as urine.
48 Factors like age, diabetes, and catheterization also affect the rate of susceptibility and severity of infection.
49 Due to these traits of UPEC, there is a need for newer treatment and prevention methods and these traits
50 make UPEC one of the major challenges for public health [7], [8], [9].

51 **Challenges in understanding pathogenesis and treatment strategies**

52 Due to the complex host-pathogen relationship and increasing antibiotic resistance, studying and developing
53 treatment plans for UPEC-induced UTIs is becoming difficult [10]. UPEC utilizes pathogenicity factors such
54 as Intracellular bacterial communities (IBCs) and quiescent reservoirs to escape immune responses and
55 initiate infections. The identification of universal therapeutic agents is difficult due to the genetic diversity
56 among the UPEC strains which is due to the mobile genetic elements [11].

57 Alternative therapies such as anti-virulence agents, vaccines, and immunomodulators are needed due to the
58 emerging multi-drug-resistant strains mainly those with extended-spectrum beta-lactamases (ESBLs) which
59 are limiting the treatment options [12]. Some non-pathogenic strains protect virulent bacteria, and because of
60 this asymptomatic bacteriuria showcases diagnostic and therapeutic predicament. To combat these
61 predicaments, a deeper study is required to understand the UPEC's adaptive methods, and innovative
62 diagnostic & personalized therapeutic approaches are needed [13], [14], [15].

63 **Role of experimental models in advancing UTI research**

64 In studying the host responses, pathogenesis, and potential treatment methods of E.coli as a part of UTI
65 research, the experimental models have been a significant help. One of the major used models in UTI

66 research are Murine model which simplifies various mechanisms of E.coli such as biofilm formation,
67 intracellular colonization, and immune evasion [16]. Some of the models help in understanding the
68 relationship between genetic factors and susceptibility which helps us to find the innate immunity and
69 specific cytokine's role in disease effects [17].

70 The advanced germ-free and humanized mice model systems helped us to understand the role of microbiota
71 in influencing UTI susceptibility. The innovative Invitro models such as 3D bladder organoids present a
72 human-relevant platform for understanding UPEC-host relations and also contribute to innovating novel
73 therapeutics [18]. The experimental models are essential in identifying biomarkers, studying recurrent
74 mechanisms, and also innovating targeted treatments regardless of their inability to replicate the human UTI
75 complexity [19], [20], [21].

76 **3. Historical Perspective**

77 **Early approaches to study E. coli-induced UTIs**

78 Historically the major focus of UPEC research was on its pathogenicity, mechanism, and genetic diversity.
79 MALDI-TOF bio typing which is used to analyse protein signatures, profiles the bacterial isolates due to
80 which bacteria is identified in clinical samples. Some proteomic techniques such as 2D gel electrophoresis
81 were also used for diagnosing UTIs by their biomarker identification [22]. Molecular cloning techniques
82 isolated and characterized various essential factors such as fimbriae adhesins, iron acquisition systems, and
83 toxins while genomics studies looked over the virulence genes. Methods based on PCR gave quick UPEC
84 strain identification surpassing other usual methods in terms of efficiency [23]. Epidemiological studies
85 showed the impact of UPEC strains on various populations also showcasing their relationship with recurrent
86 UTIs. In addition to this, many in-vitro models also tested UPEC's ability in case of adherence, host cell
87 invasion, and immune response evasion which helped us to study the infection mechanism. All these formed
88 a strong foundation for the innovation of diagnostic methods and treatments [24], [25], [26].

89 **Limitations of traditional models**

90 In traditional models, many limitations caused various problems in studying the infection mechanisms and
91 treatment methods. The use of animal models like porcine and murine systems was also restricted due to
92 their limited ability to be manipulated genetically, greater cost, and ethical restrictions. One of the major
93 limitations of animal models is their inability to replicate human urinary tract physiology inclusive of urine
94 composition, host immune responses, and interaction of microbial flora [27]. These models were further
95 restricted due to their inability to study biofilm formation which is the major factor for persistent UPEC
96 resistance. Also, the focused study on specific UPEC strains often failed to observe the diversity of
97 pathogens causing UTIs. Many models worked on simplistic experimental conditions and they poorly
98 stimulated factors such as urine flow, susceptibility, and nutrient availability [28]. In addition to this, most

99 studies are conducted for very little time and this averts the observation of recurrent and long-time
100 infections. All these limitations demanded newer innovations that could study complex human UTIs and
101 come up with accurate diagnoses and effective treatment methods [29], [30], [31].

102 **Transition to advanced in vitro and in vivo techniques**

103 Understanding urinary tract infections has advanced remarkably with the highly developed Invitro and in
104 vivo models. Invitro techniques, including human bladder epithelial cell models & flow chamber systems,
105 permitted a comprehensive study of UPEC attachment, invasion, and the uropathogenic cascade. Introducing
106 the hydrodynamic conditions in these models has shown important processes such as secondary colonization
107 and changes in bacterial shape which significantly improved the infection dynamic studies [32]. In addition
108 to this, the incorporation of T24 epithelial cell lines into these models has significantly shown cranberry
109 proanthocyanidin dose-dependent effects which reduces UPEC attachment. This showed evidence that
110 dietary interference can prevent UTIs. Harmonizing with these discoveries, *Caenorhabditis elegans*
111 utilization authenticated that cranberry consumers have seen decreased virulence of *E.coli* strains cultured in
112 their urine. This showed that the synergism of in vitro and in vivo has significantly helped in understanding
113 the *e.coli*'s bacterial mechanism, pathogenesis, and potential prophylactic treatments. [33].

114 In Invivo developments, the breach between real-world infections and laboratory findings has been bridged
115 by models such as murine models and the use of multi-drug-resistant *E.Coli* clinical isolates. Detailed
116 estimation of therapeutic efficacy, infection progression, and also treatment evaluation such as intravenous
117 colistimethate sodium (CMS) is permitted using these models [34]. The studies have shown that CMS has
118 the potential to reduce bacterial load, and inflammation, and also reach good concentrations in urine to
119 support their ability to treat multidrug-resistant *e.coli*-induced UTIs. Altogether, these techniques improve
120 the understanding, prevention, and treatment of *E.coli*-induced UTIs highlighting their advancements [35],
121 [36], [37].

122 **4. In Vitro Models**

123 **Static and Dynamic Culture Models**

124 The study of urinary tract infections caused by *E.coli* is significantly enhanced by the recent advancements
125 in static and dynamic in-vitro models. These in-vitro models resemble urinary tract shear stress and mimic
126 human bladder conditions which provides a much more realistic model for studying bacterial behaviour and
127 biofilm formation[38]. These biofilms play a very significant role in the persistence of infection and provide
128 resistance to treatments. These dynamic models are advantageous for studying phenomena like “rolling-
129 shedding-refilling” colonization which is important for understanding *E.coli* behavior and developing UTI
130 treatments [39]. Dynamic models, like microfluidic-based systems, allow real-time monitoring of the
131 progression of an infection, including bacterial filamentation and dispersal. Dynamic systems highlight the

132 significance of urine-induced morphological variability that is essential for studying E.coli behavior under
133 physiological conditions. Unlike nonstandardized models, these dynamic models evolve that enhance our
134 understanding of bacterial infections, and contribute to much more effective treatments [40].

135 E.coli colonization on catheters is found to be accurately similar in a dynamic catheterized bladder model
136 that mimics human infection conditions. This research highlights the role of type 1 fimbriae in catheter
137 colonization and found that E.coli cells lacking these fimbriae were outcompeted by wild-type strains. This
138 emphasizes the importance of type 1 fimbriae in the persistence of infection [41]. To gain a comprehensive
139 understanding of CAUTI pathogenesis this study emphasizes combining in vitro findings along with in vivo
140 expression analysis. To develop prevention and treatment strategies, identifying specific virulence factors
141 were necessary [42]. In addition to that understanding the overlap of virulence factors in these dynamic
142 models in UTIs is very crucial for vaccine development. This is feasible by identifying unique factors for
143 catheter colonization, which could accelerate the effectiveness of developing prevention and
144 treatment strategies [43].

145 **Organoid Models**

146 The development of the human urothelial organoid model represents a significant advancement in studying
147 UTIs induced by E.coli. These organoid models mimic the bladder epithelium, allowing the study of
148 pathogenic interaction in the physiological environment [44]. Organoid models support long-term culture
149 enabling us to study chronic infections and bacterial colonization dynamics. This model provides insights
150 into host-pathogen interaction that includes the study of E.coli adherence and invasion, which are necessary
151 for the study of infection mechanisms [45]. Organoid models offer a controlled environment for dissecting
152 molecular responses without any complexities of whole animal systems when compared to traditional
153 animal models. Organoids derived from individual patients pave the way for understanding variations in
154 susceptibility and responses to treatment and designing much more personalized medicine approaches in
155 UTI management [46]. Advanced organoid systems incorporate elements in the urinary tract
156 microenvironment, that offer a more accurate representation of infection conditions [47]. The development
157 of a bladder organoid that resembles the stratified structure of the epithelium in the human bladder, provides
158 high-resolution live cell imaging of UPEC (Uro-Pathogenic Escherichia coli) infection dynamics. UPEC
159 rapidly invades the superficial umbrella-like cells in the organoid lumen and proliferates to form
160 intracellular bacterial communities (IBCs) that cause infection. Individual bacteria penetrate deeper into
161 bladder wall layers and exhibit distinct morphology that protects against neutrophil and antibiotic attacks
162 that cause the persistence of bacterial infection and potential recurrence of the infection. This study
163 highlights the utility of organoid models for studying the UPEC infection mechanism and emphasizes the
164 need for novel therapeutic strategies targeting superficial and deep-seated bacterial colonies to prevent
165 recurrent infections in the urinary tract [48].

166 **Microfluidic and Organ-on-a-Chip Systems**

167 Microfluidic chips serve as a crucial tool for studying E.coli-induced UTIs. These devices resemble the
168 urinary tract environment, including fluid flow and cellular interactions. This provides controlled settings for
169 examining E.coli behavior [49]. They enable high-output screening of multiple antibiotics and tailor
170 personalized models according to individual patient profiles for testing antibiotic efficiency. Integrating
171 sensors into these microfluidic chips allows real-time monitoring of infection progression and treatment
172 efficiency, which enhances our understanding pathogenesis of E.coli [50]. Organ-on-chips models provide a
173 platform to study the host-pathogen interaction which enhances our understating of infection dynamics. It
174 can recreate human UTI conditions that allow details studies of E.coli colonization and antibiotic testing
175 under controlled conditions [51]. Microfluidic organ-on chips replicate the urinary tract microenvironment
176 to study the colonization of E.coli, biofilm formation, and antibiotic resistance mechanisms. They facilitate
177 the detailed exploration of immune responses, bacterial evasion strategies, and real-time assessment of
178 antibiotic susceptibility efficacy. Tailoring of patient-specific personalized therapies can be aided by the
179 integration of patient-derived cells into individual infection models [52]. The Brimor chip model enables
180 continuous observation of E.coli biofilm development and antibiotic-resistant dynamics using confocal
181 microscopy. This is a user-friendly model that supports the study of the emergence and proliferation of
182 antibiotic-resistant bacteria within the biofilm, which provides insights into the mechanism that drives
183 resistance and supports basic research in this critical area[53].

184 **3D printed Models**

185 The current advancement in 3D printing technology has led to the development of novel tools for studying
186 E. coli-induced urinary tract infections. To measure impedance based on the antibiotic susceptibility of
187 bacteria, a fully 3D-printed impedance-based biosensor has been designed. This is one of the rapid, non-
188 invasive, and quick methods used to detect bacterial infections. This method is adopted for monitoring E.
189 coli-induced UTIs by assessing the real-time activity and antibiotic resistance mechanisms adopted by the
190 bacteria in the bladder environment [54]. To provide an efficient study on UTIs, A modular 3D Printed peg
191 Biofilm device provides a flexible platform. This device features customizable pegs that mimic natural
192 environments like bladder walls in medical devices. This facilitates antibiotic susceptibility testing and
193 E.coli biofilm resistance. It allows precise handling of individual biofilms and simulates bladder conditions,
194 which paves ways to better study in biofilm behavior and improves treatment efficiency[55]. 3D Printing of
195 antimicrobial materials provides better solutions for combating antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in UTIs. The
196 bladder conditions are replicated in the form of antimicrobial polymers and biodegradable scaffolds, which
197 provides a better platform for studying E.coli formation and resistance mechanisms when compared to
198 traditional methods. These materials are designed to provide improved efficacy of treatments, localized drug
199 delivery, and reduce systemic side effects. Personalized 3D printed models tailor advanced research in, novel
200 approaches for UTI management and addressing AMR. [56].

201 **5. In Vivo Models**

202 **Murine Models**

203 E.coli exhibits much higher rates of active cell division in kidneys and urine when compared to bladder
204 during urinary tract infection. Bacteria that can survive and trespass the effects of antibiotics are majorly
205 non-dividing cells across the infection sites. This indicates that the non-dividing cells are resistant to
206 antibiotics. The infection of E.coli and the response of bacteria to antibiotics is significantly affected by the
207 strain of bacteria and the local microenvironment [57]. Human cystitis and pyelonephritis caused by E.coli
208 can be effectively studied using a Murine model. It provides an excellent system for studying the
209 pathogenesis of bacteria causing UTIs that ultimately leads to the development of better treatment strategies.
210 The critical aspects of E.coli infections studied using murine models include the formation of intracellular
211 bacterial communities within the epithelial cells in the bladder lining which contributes to infection and
212 resistance of bacteria against treatments. Murine models also allow the assessment of host-pathogen
213 interaction like studying immune response and facilitate the testing of therapeutic inventions aimed to
214 treat UTIs.[58].

215 **Non-Murine Mammalian Models**

216 Non-murine models have an important role in filling the gap between the in-vivo and in-vitro investigations
217 which gives an insightful awareness about E.coli-induced urinary tract infections (UTIs). These models are
218 crucial for the accurate investigation of the mechanism of infection and the development of effective
219 treatments [57]. The progress from the generalized in-vitro models to more advanced systems, plays an
220 important role in the study of E.coli infection, by replicating the human bladder environment. The
221 combination of in-vitro and in-vivo approaches offers to create the models that address the gap in UTI
222 research [59]. In terms of both complicated and uncomplicated UTIs, the initial cause of infection is
223 uropathogenic E.coli. Considering the pathogenic mechanisms of E.coli, includes observation and
224 understanding of bladder epithelium, seizing and forming bacterial colonies which is crucial for developing
225 therapeutic strategies [60].

226 **Zebrafish Models**

227 For the Study of E.coli-induced UTIs, zebrafish is an important tool. These models illustrate the bacterial
228 virulence, and host-pathogen interactions and study the mechanisms of infection. The embryos of zebrafish
229 were used for the calculation of different strains of extraintestinal pathogenic E.coli-like (ExPEC) Strains,
230 which successfully replicate the bacterial distribution and host immune responses. The research aimed
231 towards the specific difference between strains in ExPEC virulence and contributes towards the study of
232 host-pathogen interaction in real-time [61].

233 During the study of zebrafish embryos that were infected by uropathogenic E.coli (UPEC), the results tell
234 about the immune responses activated during infection. The dynamic investigation of UPEC infections on a
235 cellular level, comprising inflammatory and defense responses, informs about the specific genes and
236 pathways included in host-pathogen interactions [61], [62].

237 When zebrafish larvae are infected by E.coli exhibit a state where bacteria lose their cells to seize the
238 immune responses and antibiotics also known as L-form switching of bacteria. The L-form bacteria
239 continues within the host tissues, continuing the repetitive occurrence of UTIs. This centered on the
240 usefulness of zebrafish in the study of bacterial adaptations and determining the mechanisms during UTIs
241 [63].

242 **6. Technological and Methodological Advances**

243 **Genomic and transcriptomic analyses in experimental models**

244 For the genomic and transcriptomic study of Escherichia coli-induced UTI, where primarily antibiotics are
245 used as treatment. Particularly for another way of solution, the receptors of host cells and pathways are
246 focused on insisting on overcoming the new challenges of antibiotic resistance. Some bioinformatical
247 approaches came into light as the methodology of these issues, such as gene ontology (GO)analysis, Kyoto
248 encyclopaedia of gene and genome (KEGG) analysis, and protein-protein interaction (PPI) network analysis
249 are used to identify the biomarkers and pathways which are involved in the UTI pathogenesis. [64]. The
250 methodologies resulting in certain specifications as the key involvement of the TNF- α pathway in the
251 identification of UTI as it shows crucial roles in immune response and inflammation, and it is shown by
252 KEGG analysis. By this, the novel treatment of UTI can be targeted by the identification of signalling
253 pathways and certain genes. For the identification of pathways biomarkers can be used by the identification
254 of hub genes and therapeutics can be targeted. The development of new therapeutic sources and diagnostic
255 tools in the focus of UTI, the GEO database can be used. [65].

256 **Imaging techniques for real-time tracking of infection**

257 For the bacterial infection, the rapid and accurate diagnostic methods are focused. Rapid diagnostics help to
258 initiate a proper antimicrobial therapy, especially in the case of UTI quick and efficient diagnostics and
259 therapy are needed. Methods like large volume solution scattering imaging (LVS_i) system are used for quick
260 analysis rather than the traditional methodology which was time-consuming. [66]. The system records the
261 phenotypic features like shape, size, and movement of bacteria present in the solution, helping fast analysis
262 of the sample. After the identification approach, the data processing and analysis takes place comprising
263 quick analysis of similarly shaped bacteria and distinguishing between other shapes of bacteria and the
264 presence of urine particles in them, allowing quick and accurate clinical diagnostics. [67]. The process gives
265 a broad spectrum of identification by short video capturing through LVS_i. The accuracy rate in the detection

of UTI was 92.3% by this method. This technology plays a crucial role in the enhancement of clinical diagnostics and therapy by reducing testing period and analysis accuracy. [68].

Advances in co-culture systems (host-pathogen interactions)

Urinary tract infections are common and for women, it is a big concern, as half of them experience it once in their life. UTI gets complicated by certain species like proteus mirabilis in patients with certain conditions. The current scenario of research centralizes the idea of identification of additional virulence factors and improving UTI prevention and treatment by developing vaccines against E.coli. And p. mirabilis. In this, the increasing antibiotic resistance implies a negative impact on the microbiota, which limits the strategies of treatment. [69]. The host-pathogen interaction comprises the structural, genetic, immunological, and microbiological aspects of interaction during UTI infection. A shift in the treatment approach by targeting more pathogen-specific therapies of bacterial replications rather than depending on broad-spectrum antibiotics. Determination of bacterial virulence at the host-pathogen interaction as the focus in the process offers the potential for more effective and sustainable UTI treatment [70], [71].

High-throughput screening for therapeutic interventions

The study of UTI developed the strategies of promoting a high-throughput assay to interpret the effect of compounds while biofilm formation by uropathogenic Escherichia coli. (UPEC)UMN026, which is known for causing primary infections. In the assay, the resazurin and crystal violet staining in a 384-well microplate format with optimum conditions like specific time and incubation period. [72]. Certain approaches like the Z'- factor, signal-to-noise effect, and edge well effects are used for the validation of quality parameters. The antibiofilm at sub-inhibitory concentrations of known bacterial compounds was successfully detected in the assay, this provides a tool for the potential screening of antibiofilm therapies aimed at UPEC. [73].

The recent studies imply enhancement of strategies by making a cost-effective and rapid process of antibiotic resistance testing by using sugar-induced bacterial release i.e., 13-Dococenamamide for filling fluorescein. This method is standardized for CLSI specialized for 12-well microdilution strip, which captures fluorescence signals in the optoelectric device, and allows the accurate identification of antibiotics within 8 hours of sample collection. [74]. Clinical tests show 94.3% of UTI-infected patients matched with the standard disk diffusion results, as the new approach results in quicker and more accurate results rather than the traditional one, and being affordable makes it one of the best options for alternatives. [75].

7. Applications in Drug Discovery and Therapeutics

Testing novel antibiotics and alternative therapies

In the exploration of new therapeutics, such as new antibiotics and vaccines for Escherichia coli. Infected UTI, and many other types includes many complex processes including different steps of drug inventions

299 like research and development in the laboratory, pre-clinical trials in different stages, and clinical trials on
300 animals, volunteers, and patients. [76]. The process starts with the bacterial processes specifically targeted
301 by designed novel antibiotics i.e. synthesis of the bacterial cell wall and protein, DNA replication, and efflux
302 pump used by bacteria to conquer resistance mechanisms. The tests of the laboratory check out the
303 efficiency and resistance against MDR strains or multi-drug resistance strains, by practicing MIC or
304 minimum inhibitory concentration testing and synergy studies. [77]. Later animal tests exert the efficiency
305 of antibiotics by clarifying the infections in the models that are stimulating UTIs or system of infections,
306 parallelly pharmacokinetics and safety will be considered. Once the results of preclinical tests are favorable,
307 the processes of clinical trials will proceed by getting measures of safety, efficiency, and long-term
308 performance. The trials of phase 1 ensure tolerance in healthy individuals, while phases 2 and 3 show the
309 effect of E. coli. Infection in patents and filter the treatment method or pattern. [78]. The development of
310 resistance and making sure the sustained efficacy is tracked down by post-market surveillance. Even after
311 these efforts, some challenges also become evident as evolving resistance, high development costs, and
312 safety concerns keep on, bringing out the complexity of introducing effective antibiotics for E. coli.
313 Infections. Supervisory approval by bodies like the FDA and EMA marks the final landmark, enabling the
314 introduction of the antibiotics market and real-world applications. [79], [80], [81].

315 **Role of in vitro and in vivo models in vaccine development**

316 In the way of developing vaccines for e.coli. Induced UTI research and testing plays an important role by
317 introducing in-vitro and in-vivo models. By these models, scientists understand the biology of pathogens
318 against the vaccines, the efficiency of host and pathogen immune systems and responses towards potential
319 vaccine candidates, and their efficacy in human trials [63], [82].

320 The in-vitro model needs a controlled experimental laboratory and techniques like bacterial culture, cell line,
321 etc. can be used. These experiments play a crucial role in the early stage of vaccine development by analysis
322 of the combination of immune responses and bacterial processes. Researchers isolate and characterize the
323 culture of uropathogenic Escherichia coli. (UPEC), which is known as the primary cause of UTIs, for the
324 recognition of virulence factors and biofilm formation [83]. In the process of vaccine development, these
325 process helps to analyze bacterial factors like proteins, toxins, and other factors as potential antigens.
326 Besides that, the analysis of cell-based immune responses helps researchers explore how immune cells like
327 macrophages or dendritic cells show response against these antigens, which will provide direction on how
328 cytokines are released and antibodies are produced. Mostly in-vitro models are used for testing the
329 antibodies that are released by the anticipation of vaccine candidates to stop bacterial growth and imitate
330 urinary tract conditions. Additionally, these models confirm the vaccine safety by going through a
331 cytotoxicity test which acknowledges the potential negative or undesirable changes in the human cell line
332 [84]

333 On the contrary, The in-vivo model includes animals like mice for catalyzing real-world conditions, and for
334 the evaluation of the safety, efficacy, and immunogenicity of vaccines. These models duplicate the human
335 UTIs to estimate the efficiency of the vaccine in reducing the bacterial load of the urinary tract and
336 preventing colonies in it [85]. The research frequently focuses on different types of infection such as cystitis(
337 bladder infection) or pyelonephritis (kidney infection) which ensures the wide potential for protection and
338 prevention. In-vivo models compress into the vaccine-induced immune responses, which include activation
339 of T-cells, production of antibodies, and generation of memory immune cells for long-term protection.
340 Besides this, it helps in the optimization of different vaccine delivery methods such as oral and
341 intramuscular routes, which calculates the immunity of durability [86].

342 Both the models (in-vitro and in-vivo) are crucial in the development of vaccines for ecoli. Induced UTIs by
343 providing an understandable insight into the biology of pathogens, immune responses, and vaccine efficacy.
344 Together they fill the gaps between initial research and clinical trials, which ensures the efficacy and safety
345 of vaccine candidates before they reach human trials [87].

346 **Insights into resistance mechanisms of Uropathogenic E. coli (UPEC)**

347 The leading cause of urinary tract infection is uropathogenic ecoli. (UPEC) and unfolded the advanced
348 mechanism to avoid the host immune responses and resist the antibiotic treatment. These mechanisms make
349 the UPEC infection risky and challenging to treat, mainly with the increase in commonness of multi-drug-
350 resistant strains. UPEC secretes certain enzymes such as β -lactamases, together with extended-spectrum β -
351 lactamases (ESBLs) and carbapenemases, which degrades β -lactam antibiotics, showing them ineffective
352 [88]. Besides, UPEC can modify their targeted sites, such as penicillin-binding protein and DNA gyrase by
353 decreasing the efficacy and binding potential of antibiotics. The efflux pump actively throws out antibiotics
354 from the bacterial cell, reducing the concentration of intracellular drugs, while creating certain changes in
355 the porin and outer membrane i.e. lipid bilayer, and then decreasing the permeability of the drug [89].

356 Expect antibiotic resistance, UPEC infection uses virulence factors to set up the infection and escape host
357 defenses. Facilitation of union of uroepithelial cells and fimbriae (including type 1 and P fimbriae),
358 permitting colonization and biofilm formation, which guards UPEC from antibiotics and immune responses.
359 Biofilms and cytoplasmic pools permit bacteria to continue in the urinary tract, leading to repetitive
360 infections [88], [90]. UPEC also secures immune detection by altering the lipopolysaccharides creating a
361 protective capsule and overpowering the immune cell activation, such as neutrophil responses. Additionally,
362 it involves host cells for nutrients like iron, by constructing siderophores which collect iron from host
363 protein garnering bacterial growth and survival [91].

364 The contributing combination of these virulence and resistance mechanisms makes it progressively more
365 difficult to treat UPEC infection, especially in the involvement of multi-drug resistant strains. Commonly,

366 the antibiotics are not effective against these strains, where carbapenem-resistant UPEC, poses a remarkable
367 threat in the healthcare background [90], [92], [93].

368 8. Conclusion

369 The advancements in experimental models have significantly revolutionized the study of Escherichia coli-
370 induced urinary tract infections (UTIs), providing a deeper understanding of the pathogenesis, host-pathogen
371 interactions, and potential therapeutic interventions. From the development of dynamic in vitro systems like
372 microfluidics and bladder organoids to in vivo models like murine and zebrafish systems, each model has
373 contributed unique insights into the molecular mechanisms of UTI progression and persistence. These
374 innovations have bridged the gap between traditional methodologies and the complexities of human UTI
375 conditions, enabling the identification of critical virulence factors, biomarkers, and resistance mechanisms.

376 Furthermore, technological advances in imaging, genomic analyses, and co-culture systems have facilitated
377 real-time tracking of infections and high-throughput screening for therapeutic interventions. Such progress
378 has not only enhanced our understanding of antibiotic resistance in uropathogenic E. coli (UPEC) but also
379 opened avenues for developing personalized medicine, alternative therapies, and vaccines. Despite these
380 achievements, challenges like replicating human urinary tract physiology and addressing the genetic
381 diversity of UPEC strains persist, demanding continued innovation and interdisciplinary collaboration.

382 In conclusion, the integration of advanced in vitro and in vivo models with cutting-edge technological tools
383 represents a pivotal step toward addressing the global burden of E. coli-induced UTIs. This multifaceted
384 approach holds promise for improving diagnostics, innovating treatment strategies, and ultimately reducing
385 the prevalence and recurrence of these infections. Continued efforts in refining these models and expanding
386 their applications will be instrumental in advancing UTI research and achieving meaningful clinical
387 outcomes.

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