

Ampicillin Resistance DH5 α *E. Coli* to Simulate Competition Against Drug-Resistant Gut Infections

Ram Sumedh Besta¹

Received October 6, 2025

Accepted April 18, 2026

Electronic access May 15, 2026

Penicillin Resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* have developed a resistance to a large number of beta-lactam antibiotics, which are regularly used and contain various drugs such as penicillin and amoxicillin. This is due to those bacteria producing extended spectrum Beta-lactamase enzymes, which break down various penicillins. Although it is possible to cure patients of Penicillin Resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* infections, it requires an intensive alternative antibiotic regimen, which is extremely dangerous for individuals who cannot process antibiotics such as seniors and those with kidney complications. More so, every antibiotic that does not work on this disease only clears the environment for it to flourish, sometimes making the outcome worse. The fact there is no reliable way apart from lab testing to discern between regular Penicillin Resistance *Enterobacteriaceae* and its antibiotic-resistant counterpart results in professionals prescribing beta-lactam antibiotics according to procedure, leading to the situation mentioned above. However, there is a novel way to prevent this that can be found in the normal working of the human body. The human body contains trillions of different cells of bacteria. While some are symbiotic, others neither harm nor help the body by simply just taking up space. This act actually prevents other infectious bacteria from having enough space to grow, which is particularly useful in areas in which Penicillin Resistance *Enterobacteriaceae* reside. This paper does this experiment by utilizing a resistance plasmid that encodes for inhibition of an antibiotic similar to penicillin: ampicillin. By using DH5 α strain of *E. Coli*, pBLU, a plasmid that codes for resistance against ampicillin, was introduced into the cells. After transformation, the cells were then transferred to an agar plate containing only ampicillin as well as plates with Ampicillin and other ampicillin Resistant gut bacteria taken from a stool sample. The *E. Coli* grown in a culture with other resistant bacteria exhibited reduced growth compared to cultures with only *E. Coli*. In addition, a restriction digest and gel electrophoresis of the plasmid extracted from transformed *E. Coli* confirmed plasmid identity, although sanger/nanopore sequencing must be performed to increase certainty. The results suggest that inducing resistant competition in a natural environment even with an antibiotic present can inhibit the growth of dangerous drug-resistant bacteria.

Keywords: Penicillin Resistant *Enterobacteriaceae*, Plasmid, Selection Marker, Penicillin-class Antibiotics, Cephalosporins, Beta-Lactam Antibiotics, Beta-Lactamases, Amoxicillin, Penicillin

1 Introduction

2 Context

3 What are *Enterobacteriaceae* and how are they treated?

Bacteria of the *Enterobacteriaceae* family (Figure 1.1) are prevalent, gram-negative, rod-shaped bacteria. Although it is to be noted that these bacteria reside in the body naturally, a rupture in mucosal lining can lead to dangerous infections. It is transmitted via contact with infected feces and poor food controls. *E. Coli* can be found anywhere in the world and can infect anyone. However, preventative measures are best done through proper food safety and hygiene. Fortunately, it is possible to cure nonresistant forms with various drugs. The most used are Beta-Lactam Antibiotics (Figure 1.2), a fam-

ily of drugs derived from Penicillin. Unfortunately, Penicillin Resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* do not respond to these antibiotics.¹

Enterobacteriaceae Statistics

Many species of *Enterobacteriaceae* and the human body have a commensal relationship under normal conditions. In fact, bacteria of the family *Enterobacteriaceae* are found in most human bodies and provide bacterial competition to other more dangerous organisms. The problem arises, however, when a breach is found in the mucosal lining of the colon. This can lead to inflammation, mucus abscesses, and even more severe symptoms such as fevers and diarrhea. In addition, if present in the sinuses, it can cause severe inflammation and risks damage to the lungs.

¹ Heritage High School, Frisco, Texas, USA



Fig. 1.1 Electron micrograph of *Escherichia Coli* undergoing mitosis. This species is the most commonly known species in the *Enterobacteriaceae* family.

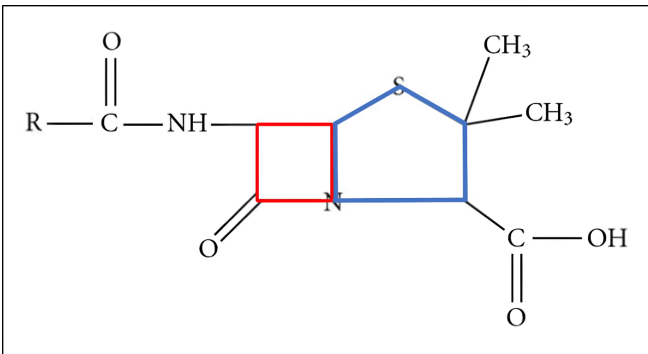


Fig. 1.2 The basic structure of most Beta-Lactam Antibiotics. The defining structure, the Beta-Lactam ring is found around the square structure in red, comprising of a three Carbon and one Nitrogen ring double bonded to Oxygen. As is with normal proteins, the actual identity is determined by the composition of the R- group. Penicillins, while they share the same Beta-Lactam ring, lack an additional R-group and retain the five-ring structure.

28 **What is a Beta-Lactam Antibiotic?**

29 Beta-lactam antibiotics are a class of drugs that contain a four
 30 ringed amide structure. As mentioned before, the most well-
 31 known and first discovered of these is Penicillin. Beta-lactam
 32 antibiotics are used regularly to treat both gram-positive and
 33 gram-negative bacteria.² Recently, due to high use of antibi-
 34 otics such as these, many strains of infectious bacteria are
 35 developing resistance to these drugs. One example of this
 36 is MRSA, or Methicillin Resistance *Staphylococcus Aureus*.³

In this case, the most common beta-lactam antibiotic used to
 treat regular Penicillin Resistance *Enterobacteriaceae* infec-
 tions is Amoxicillin although as mentioned before, there is an
 increased resistance across multiple species to antibiotics in
 the same class as Amoxicillin (Figure 1.3) due to its increased
 use since the emergence of Penicillin Resistant *Enterobacteri-
 aceae*.

37
38
39
40
41
42
43

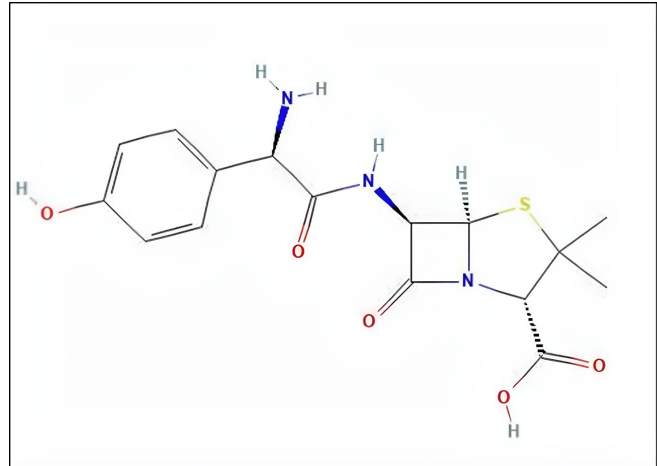


Fig. 1.3 Shown is the commonly used Beta Lactam antibiotic Amoxicillin. The markings of a Beta Lactam antibiotic are clearly visible in the square beta-lactam ring. This antibiotic, along with many others in the family, prevents the bacterial cell from properly synthesizing a cell wall by inhibiting transpeptidation. As a result, the cell lyses due to the lack of a proper barrier.⁴

Enterobacterial Infection Cycle

44

The most common Enterobacterial infection, *E. Coli*, has its
 infection process very well studied and understood. In the ab-
 sence of a protective mucus layer in areas such as the small
 intestine and liver, the bacterium utilize pili to bind with the
 human cell. Once bonded, the pathogen secretes an infectious
 protein known as a Bacterial Translocation Intimin Protein
 (Tir), along with many other such toxins, via a Type III secre-
 tion system, a syringe-like insertion system. Once inside the
 cell, Tir begins to rearrange the cytoskeleton of the host in
 order to create “pedestals”, which are mainly composed of
 actin. These protrusions allow for further anchoring of more
 bacteria to the cell, hastening the infection process.⁵

45
46
47
48
49
50
51
52
53
54
55
56

Bacterial Competition in the Gut

57

As mentioned before, the stomach, small intestine, and large
 intestine have a large and diverse community of bacteria.
 While most of these are species that do not actively help the
 human body, they are noninfectious and take up space and
 resources from other potentially detrimental bacteria. This

58
59
60
61
62

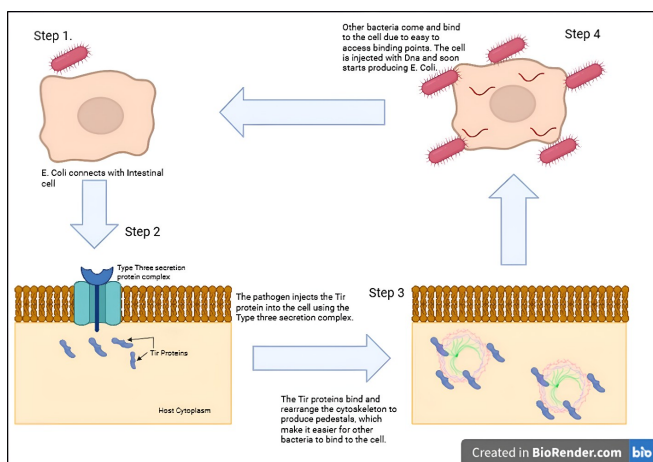


Fig. 1.4 Illustration of the infection cycle of *E. Coli* in gastric or intestinal cells.

creates a check on each bacteria species, as even an excessive number of “good” bacteria can lead to gastrointestinal problems. The problem arises when the gut is exposed to antibiotics. While under normal conditions, these antibiotics affect all bacteria equally, meaning that they usually return to their normal balance after sometime, gastrointestinal tracts with drug-resistance bacteria face a problem. The drug administered kills off surrounding bacteria while the drug-resistant bacteria survive. This results in the resistant bacteria having plenty of resources and very little competition. In fact, it has been proven that using ineffective antibiotics on patients with drug resistant bacteria actually worsens their condition.⁶ In addition, the risk of this happening arises when drug-resistant bacteria cannot be differentiated from their regular counterpart quickly, resulting in professionals administering an ineffective antibiotic and worsening the situation.^{7 8 9}

Problem Statement and Rationale

However, if there was a way to ensure that bacterial diversity was preserved even after an antibiotic dose was delivered it would improve the quality of life and the safety of the person infected. This would be done by administering a sample of non-pathogenic bacteria with the same resistance as the pathogenic bacteria. By ensuring these bacteria are non-pathogenic, it would help maintain some semblance of bacterial gut diversity and provide competition to the drug-resistant bacteria. Then, if the patient reported that they did not get relief from symptoms, it would prove that they had the drug-resistant strain. This would prompt a sample of the bacteria, which then could be successfully identified. Note that a sample would not be initially tested for if the bacteria is a common occurrence, such as Penicillin Resistance *Enterobacteriaceae*. All of this would happen without the infection getting worse,

as the drug resistance bacteria would replace the dying regular bacteria. After that, when it is proven that the drug-resistant bacteria have completely died out, another drug should be administered to kill the resistant antibiotic bacteria along with a probiotic to ensure bacterial growth. This would enable regular bacteria to grow back the gut, rendering it similar to before the infection.

Significance and Purpose

By finding a way to induce gut competition after antibiotic use, it would be possible to safeguard people from exposure to dangerous drug-resistance bacteria. However, the scope of this study entails that actual amoxicillin plasmids are not available to independent buyers, meaning that an alternate must be used. As mentioned before, this alternate will be ampicillin. If possible, this study will further research advancement into various countermeasures to drug resistant bacteria rather than existing protocols which are potentially harmful and extremely expensive. For example, according to the Center of Disease Control, treatment for antibiotic resistant bacteria cost over 4.6 billion USD annually, excluding novel drug-resistant research and development.

Objectives

Creating and Proving Resistance in Certain Bacteria

There are many different ways to induce resistance into a bacterium. This study uses plasmid transformation, a well-known and common technique. In addition, to make this proposed solution more cost-effective, pBLU, a plasmid that encodes for ampicillin resistance, is used. Ampicillin is a beta-lactam antibiotic and is closer to penicillin than other drugs in its class. In addition, the plasmids for ampicillin resistance are low-cost and effective. In fact, the part of the plasmid that codes for ampicillin Resistance is used as a selection marker for other desired genes.

Showing DNA Comparison Between Modified and Unmodified Cells

By using Gel Electrophoresis and Bacterial DNA extraction, DNA samples from both modified and unmodified bacterial cells will be run on a gel electrophoresis machine. This machine is used to compare lengths and similarity of DNA, using the fact that DNA is naturally negatively charged in order to pull it across a gel of agarose submerged in an ionized buffer solution. By doing so, different fragment of the DNA, cut by a restriction enzyme, will get pulled across at different speeds, exhibiting multiple bands.

139 Scope and Limitations

140 The main limitation in this study is the fact that many beta-
141 lactam Antibiotic resistance plasmids are not sold to individ-
142 uals. To circumvent this, as mentioned before, *E. Coli* and
143 ampicillin are used to simulate results as close as possible to
144 a hypothetical experiment done with the actual materials.^{10 11}
145 In addition, although this study can potentially be generalized
146 to many bacterial species, with other species belonging to the
147 family *Enterobacteriaceae* among them, being one of them.
148 However, further study and experimentation must be done in
149 order to confirm this nature.

150 Methodology Overview

151 Overall, this study follows a classic experimentation style of
152 growing a culture, extracting DNA, and running a gel elec-
153 trophoresis. It will start with growing normal bacteria, fol-
154 lowed by transforming it into resistant bacteria. After extract-
155 ing DNA from both kinds of bacteria, a gel electrophoresis
156 will be run in order to prove similarity. This form of exper-
157 iment has been done many times before and was chosen due
158 to its high success rate and clear potential for documentation.
159 The next section will explain these procedures and the purpose
160 behind them further.

161 Methodology

162 This study follows a four-step approach to proving it is possi-
163 ble to instill resistance to certain antibiotics in bacteria while
164 also enabling them to coexist with other species. For the plas-
165 mid, an ampicillin resistance plasmid is of best use due to
166 its ease and ampicillin's exceptional similarity to other beta-
167 lactam antibiotics. In addition, for the bacteria, a DH5 α strain
168 of *E. Coli* will be used. This strain is very easy to be edited
169 and also has a suitable balance of protein production and repli-
170 cation speed. In addition, *E. Coli* is a part of the family *En-*
171 *terobacteriaceae*, rendering it the most genetically similar to
172 other bacteria in the family. As mentioned before, pBLU will
173 be used for the plasmid due to its low base pair number, ren-
174 dering it easier for the bacteria to process.¹² The first step in-
175 volves allowing the plasmid to enter the bacterial cells so they
176 gain ampicillin resistance. The second step is to expose the
177 edited bacteria to a selection marker to ensure that only edited
178 bacteria survive. Then, the third step requires that these edited
179 bacteria be placed in an environment with other microorgan-
180 isms to simulate its coexistence with other species. Finally,
181 the fourth step is just to verify that the plasmid entered into the
182 bacteria is proper so that the resistance cannot be attributed to
183 other factors.

184 The tools used for the experiment are all verified to be avail-
185 able to most labs, allowing this research to be applicable and

not limited to certain regions. In addition, none of the bacteria
used in this experiment are pathogenic to ensure the safety of the
researcher.

Experiment Goals

The most important result of the experiment is the gel elec-
trophoresis as it immediately verifies the difference in DNA
between the edited and regular bacteria. In addition, it can
also prove that the edited bacteria species is actually DH5 α *E.*
Coli and not some other species or strain. That means that to
prove that it is possible to carry out the hypothesis mentioned
before, the bands of DNA of both types of bacteria need to
be either identical or very similar. The reason that they are
allowed to be identical is that the plasmid never becomes part
of the bacteria's genome. Instead, it gets replicated separately
by other parts of the cell. This is a process that will be more
thoroughly explained later. In addition, there will also be a
gel electrophoresis of the plasmid itself, which will conclude
that the plasmid entered into bacteria was actually viable and
that the resistance was not part of a mutation along with a re-
striction digest. This will substantially reduce the chances of
a false positive, increasing the credibility of the experiment.
Furthermore, there will also be a strain of normal nonmutated
bacteria growing on a plate with the selection marker. This
ensures that the selection marker actually filters unedited bac-
teria, ensuring that the edited bacteria culture is pure.

Initial Culture of Bacteria

The DH5 α strain of bacteria is commonly used for genetic
transformation experiments such as this one. This is because
of a mutation it has in its genome: *endA*. The *endA* muta-
tion reduces endonuclease I activity, improving plasmid qual-
ity.^{13 14} This means that the plasmids that the bacteria take in
will increase rapidly, allowing protein production, in this case
resistance to ampicillin, to increase rapidly as well.

After the basic culture was set up it took around 72 hours
for it to reach a suitable size (Figure 2.1). During that time,
it was ensured that the ability of other species of bacteria to
contaminate the agar plate was reduced by heating the agar
multiple times even after it was dissolved in water. In addi-
tion, distilled water was used to prevent any other minerals
except for the ones in agar to remain in the plate. The culture
exhibited a normal but fast growth rate due to the aforemen-
tioned properties of the DH5 α strain. Overall, the benefits of
using the DH5 α strain became obvious even from the begin-
ning through its high rate of replicability.

Another strategy used to prevent contamination was wiping
down moisture from the roof of the plate with a sanitized pa-
per towel. It is unfortunately very common that condensation
from the heated agar dropping back onto the culture results in



Fig. 2.1 Culture of DH5 α *E. Coli* Bacteria after 72 hours of incubation post-transfer. Contamination of the bacteria samples can be seen in the discolored colonies, which are most likely not DH5 α *E. Coli*. Eventually, these bacteria will die off if placed into a plate with an ampicillin selection marker.

234 contamination. By clearing this beforehand, it was seen that
235 the plate had no visible cultures of other bacteria. This en-
236 sures that when edited, no other strains or species of bacteria
237 will take in the DNA and skew results.

238 **Bacterial Transformation**

239 The next step in the process was to introduce the plasmid to
240 the bacteria. The first step was to resuspend the bacteria in
241 distilled water to increase the chances of contact with the plas-
242 mid. The next step was the most important. In order for the
243 bacteria to be able to take in the plasmid, it had to eliminate its
244 natural negative charge on its capsule. This is because DNA
245 is also naturally negatively charged, meaning that the plasmid,
246 which is just a circular piece of DNA, will get repelled by the
247 negatively charged cell capsule. To do this, Calcium Chloride
248 was added to the bacteria. That means that by the time the
249 plasmid was added, the cell was already ready to take it in, al-
250 lowing for a smoother and more successful transformation.¹⁵

251 **Introduction of the Plasmid**

252 Approximately 5 ng of pBLU was added, a suitable amount
253 for a culture of 1.5 mL of bacterial mix. After it was added, it
254 was refrigerated at 40 °F (approximately 4.4 °C).¹⁶ After this,
255 the bacteria were submerged in 42 °C water for 45 seconds,
256 allowing the plasmid to enter.

257 **Bacterial Recovery**

258 The bacterial sample was left to recover for 12 hours, and were
259 eventually transferred to a petri dish containing agar along
260 with a selection marker.

261 **Selection Marker**

262 Selection markers are used to ensure that a certain culture of
263 bacteria only grow whereas others do not. Most do this in the
264 form of an antibiotic. One example is kanamycin. A plasmid
265 is engineered with a portion that codes for kanamycin resis-
266 tance. This means that only bacteria that have the specified
267 plasmid will grow on a plate laced with a kanamycin antibi-
268 otic. The same practice can be applied for ampicillin. Fortu-
269 nately, the selection marker here is the gene itself: ampicillin
270 resistance. Therefore, by growing the bacterial cultures on
271 a plate containing ampicillin, only those with resistance, and
272 therefore the plasmid, will grow and form colonies. In this
273 experiment, a concentration of 100 μ g of ampicillin per 1 μ L
274 agar was used.

275 **Ampicillin Gene**

276 The marker used for the ampicillin Resistance is TEM-1 β -
277 lactamase, a gene that codes for resistance against drugs sim-
278 ilar to Penicillin.^{17 18} It does so by enabling the bacteria to
279 produce beta-lactamases, enzymes that inhibit many antibi-
280 otics such as cephalosporins, penicillins, and other drugs with
281 a beta-lactam ring.¹⁹ In fact, these genes are quite common in
282 the *Enterobacteriaceae* family, which explains why bacteria
283 such as *E. Coli* very easily accept and express them. In the
284 pBLU plasmid, the TEM-1 β -lactamase Marker is accompa-
285 nied with a *LacZ* gene, which codes for β -galactosidase, an
286 enzyme involved in the *lac* operon.^{20 21}

287 **Growth of Edited Bacteria**

288 The overall growth of the bacteria remained exceptionally sta-
289 ble, exhibiting growth as it would on a normal non-antibiotic
290 plate. This inherently proves that the plasmid worked as
291 intended, granting the bacteria resistance against ampicillin.
292 This topic will be further explained in the results section.

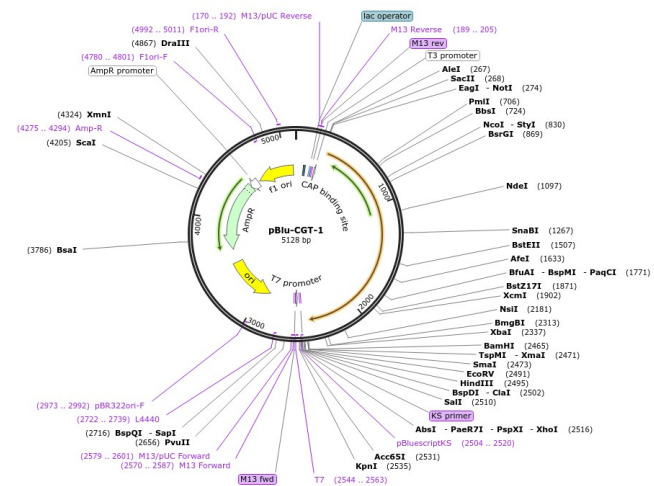


Fig. 2.2 Gene breakdown of pBLU plasmid. The AmpR Gene can be seen towards the top-right. The relatively low base pair number of this plasmid makes it easier for the bacteria to adjust and read the genetic material. In addition, the origin points, which signal the bacteria on where to start reading the DNA, are specifically made for DH5 α , which increases the probability that the bacteria will read the plasmid.

Results

Experiment Status

Fortunately, due to the evidence of the ampicillin selection marker, no other microorganism would have been able to grow on the plate, marking it as a success. This also extends to the plasmid itself. The calculated transformation efficiency of the transformed bacteria was 6.3×10^4 CFU/mL. The original plasmid, the plasmid extracted from the bacteria, and a restriction digest of the extracted plasmid were run on 1% agarose with a voltage of 100 V for 40 minutes submerged in a TBE buffer. The expected fragment sizes were 1384 bp and 3744 bp, which was achieved with the restriction digest confirming plasmid identity. However, further certainty should be obtained through dedicated sequencing. The p -value for the 5 replicates was 0.00202, where the null hypothesis was that there would be an equal amount of ampicillin resistant *E. Coli* in the culture with other bacteria to the culture without (Figure 3.2). In addition, the growth rates for the various groups and their equations are also presented (Figures 3.3 and 3.4).

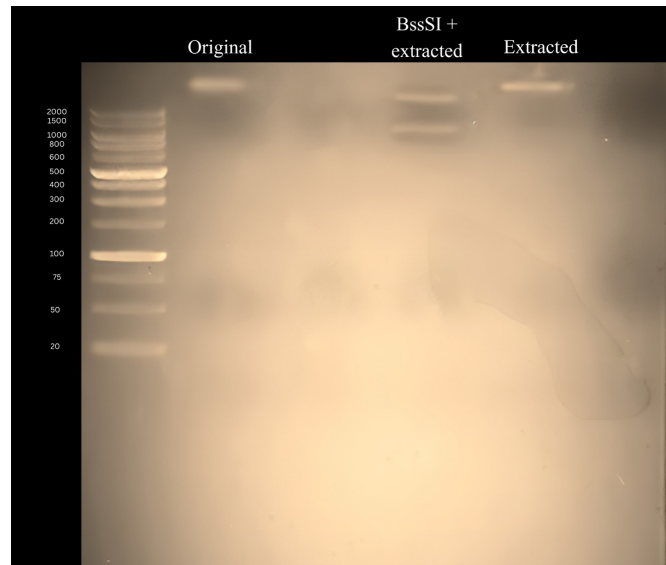


Fig. 3.1 Gel electrophoresis bands of DNA.

293 Isolation of DNA

294 The isolation of the bacterial DNA proves that the colonies
 295 grown on the plate were in fact of the same species. This DNA
 296 could then be stored for further analysis and use. The isolation
 297 process was relatively time and cost effective, yielding 1 μ L of
 298 DNA for a sample of 0.5 mL of suspended bacteria. This was
 299 then stored at suitable temperatures for further use and analy-
 300 sis. Note that this study will not be doing a gel electrophoresis
 301 of these samples due to previous checks that the sample DNA
 302 was in fact due to *E. Coli*. This is because the plasmid itself
 303 was only made for DH5 α *E. Coli* and that the kit used to iso-
 304 late this DNA only works on bacteria. This gives sufficient
 305 evidence that the transformation worked as intended.

306 Gel Electrophoresis of the DNA

307 The isolated DNA was then mixed with a loading dye with
 308 a 1:5 ratio. Then, the gels were loaded onto the Gel Elec-
 309 trophoresis machine and then run for a total of 20 minutes.
 310 This step serves to indicate whether or not the DNA of both
 311 the unmodified bacteria and the DNA of the modified Bacteria
 312 are similar. In reality, they should be the exact same, as the
 313 plasmid induced into the modified bacteria has no effect on
 314 the DNA.

Confirmation of Hypothesis

334 These results confirm that it is indeed possible to induce beta-
 335 lactam Antibiotic resistance in bacteria of the *Enterobacteri-*
 336 *aceae* family without severely changing their base DNA. This
 337 means that the growth of antibiotic-resistant bacteria such as
 338 *E. Coli* can be inhibited through competition by other non-
 339 pathogenic bacteria. In addition, the gel electrophoresis im-
 340 plies that the DNA of the modified *E. Coli* was unchanged,
 341 showing a mere change in resistance and not one in pathogeny.
 342

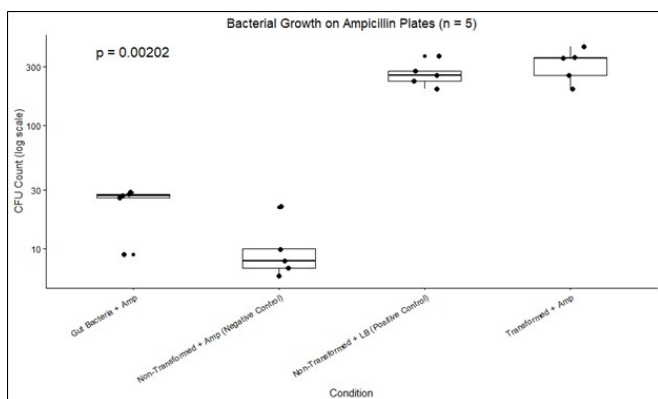


Fig. 3.2 The CFU counts for the five replicates across the four different samples.

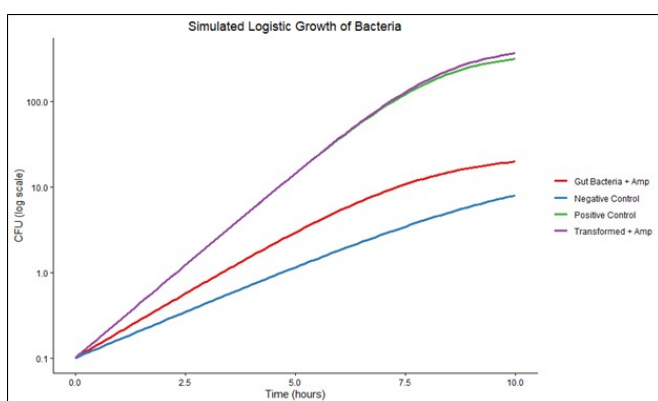


Fig. 3.3 The average logistic growth of the four groups of bacteria.

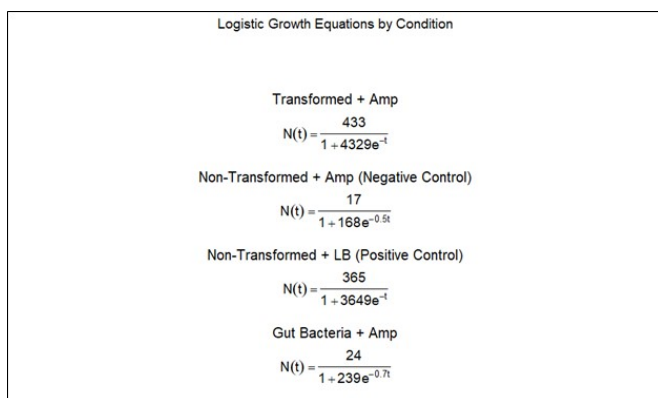


Fig. 3.4 The equations for the growth of the bacteria as a function of time. The *E. Coli* combined with the gut bacteria express much lower growth rates than the other groups.

343 This study provides additional data to support the fact that inducing gut competition can be a procedure that can improve
 344 the quality of life of many persons with drug-resistant *Enterobacteriaceae* infections, and in some cases can potentially
 345 prevent fatalities.²²
 346
 347

All Objectives Met

348

349 Both the objectives of suitable bacterial transformation along
 350 with growth on antibiotic laced plates and a similarity of DNA
 351 between modified and unmodified bacteria have been met and
 352 proven, as mentioned before.

Discussion

353

Recommendation

354

355 In order to further develop treatments, there must be extensive
 356 trials on various drugs and bacteria. I would recommend that
 357 in vivo trials be done to actually test the proposition posited
 358 in order to see the results of the study in a relatively less controlled
 359 environment.

Limitations

360

361 Unfortunately, the main limitation imposed on this study was
 362 the lack of access to more prevalent antibiotic resistance plas-
 363 mids. Many of them such as Methicillin and Penicillin resis-
 364 tance are not sold to individual buyers to ensure safety and
 365 ethical practice. In addition, the access to in vivo testing was
 366 absent, meaning that this study cannot be safely generalized
 367 to most populations until further trials are conducted. Further-
 368 more, introducing antibiotic resistant bacteria to an environ-
 369 ment carries the risk of the resistance spreading horizontally
 370 to other bacteria, which can cause dangerous infections.^{23 24 25}
 371 One solution could be to utilize conjugation inhibitors, which
 372 can reduce the rate of horizontal gene transfer in subjects.²⁶
 373 Another solution could be to use CRISPR interference, which
 374 targets the DNA being transferred.^{27 28}

Conclusion

375

376 The world has recently come under threat of drug-resistant
 377 bacteria. There is a danger that the diseases we once thought
 378 were vanquished decades ago could return. Although there are
 379 treatments, they are not much better if they induce symptoms
 380 as detrimental as the disease they fight against. With a rapidly
 381 aging population, it has become imperative that treatments be
 382 found that do not produce severe side effects. In this, however,
 383 recent technologies such as genetic transformation offer a cost
 384 effective and scalable alternative to traditional medicine. If
 385 more were to accept this, it is possible that we would be able
 386 to further both our understanding and defense against many
 387 afflictions.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank Carolina Biological, The Odín, and Edvotek for allowing the purchase of the instruments and materials used in the experiment.

References

- 1 J. Iredell *et al.*, *Antibiotic resistance in Enterobacteriaceae: mechanisms and clinical implications*, 2016, 10.1136/bmj.h6420.
- 2 L. M. Lima *et al.*, *β -lactam antibiotics: An overview from a medicinal chemistry perspective*, 2020, 10.1016/j.ejmech.2020.112829.
- 3 A. M. Algammal *et al.*, *Methicillin-Resistant Staphylococcus aureus (MRSA): One Health Perspective Approach to the Bacterium Epidemiology, Virulence Factors, Antibiotic-Resistance, and Zoonotic Impact*, 2020, 10.2147/IDR.S272733.
- 4 H. H. Handsfield *et al.*, *Amoxicillin, a new penicillin antibiotic*, 1973, 10.1128/AAC.3.2.262.
- 5 C. L. Ventola, *The antibiotic resistance crisis: part 1: causes and threats*, 2015.
- 6 M. A. Mulvey, *Adhesion and entry of uropathogenic Escherichia coli*, 2002, 10.1046/j.1462-5822.2002.00193.x.
- 7 S. Kim *et al.*, *The intestinal microbiota: Antibiotics, colonization resistance, and enteric pathogens*, 2017, 10.1111/imr.12563.
- 8 L. Maier *et al.*, *Extensive impact of non-antibiotic drugs on human gut bacteria*, 2018, 10.1038/nature25979.
- 9 J. Ramirez *et al.*, *Antibiotics as Major Disruptors of Gut Microbiota*, 2020, 10.3389/fcimb.2020.572912.
- 10 N. Conceição *et al.*, *Ampicillin susceptibility can predict in vitro susceptibility of penicillin-resistant, ampicillin-susceptible Enterococcus faecalis Isolates to amoxicillin but not to imipenem and piperacillin*, 2012, 10.1128/JCM.01246-12.
- 11 H. Westh *et al.*, *Bactericidal effect of penicillin, ampicillin, and amoxicillin alone and in combination with tobramycin against Enterococcus faecalis as determined by kill-kinetic studies*, 1991, 10.1007/BF01643244.
- 12 K. L. Jones *et al.*, *Low-copy plasmids can perform as well as or better than high-copy plasmids for metabolic engineering of bacteria*, 2000, 10.1006/mben.2000.0161.
- 13 J. J. Lin, *Endonuclease A degrades chromosomal and plasmid DNA of Escherichia coli present in most preparations of single stranded DNA from phagemids*, 1992.
- 14 K. Matsubara *et al.*, *Structure-specific DNA endonuclease T7 endonuclease I cleaves DNA containing UV-induced DNA lesions*, 2024, 10.1093/jb/mvae024.
- 15 J. Sambrook and D. W. Russell, *Preparation and Transformation of Competent E. Coli Using Calcium Chloride*, 2006, 10.1101/pdb.prot3932.
- 16 A. Froger and J. E. Hall, *Transformation of plasmid DNA into E. Coli using the heat shock method*, 2007, 10.3791/253.
- 17 C. L. Tooke *et al.*, *β -Lactamases and β -Lactamase Inhibitors in the 21st Century*, 2019, 10.1016/j.jmb.2019.04.002.
- 18 X. Wang *et al.*, *Noncovalent interaction energies in covalent complexes: TEM-1 beta-lactamase and beta-lactams*, 2002.
- 19 W. Matlock *et al.*, *Escherichia coli phylogeny drives co-amoxiclav resistance through variable expression of TEM-1 beta-lactamase*, 2025, 10.1038/s41467-025-63714-6.
- 20 M. A. Beal *et al.*, *The functional mutational landscape of the lacZ gene*, 2023, 10.1016/j.isci.2023.108407.
- 21 L. Zhu *et al.*, *Competence-independent activity of pneumococcal EndA [corrected] mediates degradation of extracellular dna and nets and is important for virulence*, 2013, 10.1371/journal.pone.0070363.

- 22 F. Spragge *et al.*, *Microbiome diversity protects against pathogens by nutrient blocking*, 2023, 10.1126/science.adj3502.
- 23 B. J. Arnold *et al.*, *Horizontal gene transfer and adaptive evolution in bacteria*, 2022, 10.1038/s41579-021-00650-4.
- 24 L. C. Ott and M. Mellata, *Models for Gut-Mediated Horizontal Gene Transfer by Bacterial Plasmid Conjugation*, 2022, 10.3389/fmicb.2022.891548.
- 25 N. Shterzer and I. Mizrahi, *The animal gut as a melting pot for horizontal gene transfer*, 2015, 10.1139/cjm-2015-0049.
- 26 E. Cabezón *et al.*, *Conjugation Inhibitors and Their Potential Use to Prevent Dissemination of Antibiotic Resistance Genes in Bacteria*, 2017, 10.3389/fmicb.2017.02329.
- 27 A. Cubillos-Ruiz *et al.*, *An engineered live biotherapeutic for the prevention of antibiotic-induced dysbiosis*, 2022, 10.1038/s41551-022-00871-9.
- 28 L. A. Marraffini and E. J. Sontheimer, *CRISPR interference limits horizontal gene transfer in staphylococci by targeting DNA*, 2008, 10.1126/science.1165771.