

1 Lineage-Linked Biofilm Formation and Widespread Multidrug Resistance among Indian
2 *Acinetobacter baumannii* Clinical Isolates

3 Vaishnavi Margoli Subbaraya¹, Varun Shamanna^{1,2}, Kavitha Arakalgud Kumar¹, Geetha
4 Nagaraj¹, Harshitha Gangaiah Krishnappa¹, Madhushree Ravi¹, David Aanensen^{3,4},
5 Ravikumar Kadahalli Lingegowda¹ and NIHR Global Health Research Unit on genomic
6 surveillance - India consortium

7
8 ¹Central Research Laboratory, Kempegowda Institute of Medical Sciences, Bengaluru, India

9 ²Department of Biotechnology, NMAM Institute of Technology, Nitte University, Nitte,
10 Udupi, India

11 ³Centre for Genomic Pathogen Surveillance, Pandemic Sciences Institute, University of
12 Oxford, Oxford, United Kingdom

13 ⁴WHO Collaborating Center

14
15 Corresponding Author:

16 Ravikumar Kadahalli Lingegowda: klravikumar@gmail.com

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 **Aims:** This study aimed to investigate the diversity and determinants of biofilm formation
21 among clinical *Acinetobacter baumannii* Indian isolates and assess their relationship with
22 antimicrobial resistance profiles, biofilm-associated genes, and genetic lineages revealed
23 through whole-genome analysis.

24 **Methods and Results:** 230 *A. baumannii* clinical isolates across India (2015–2022) were tested
25 for antibiotic susceptibility using the VITEK 2 system. Biofilm formation was quantified via
26 the Tissue Culture Plate method. Whole genome sequencing (Illumina MiSeq) and
27 bioinformatic analysis were performed to identify biofilm-associated genes, antimicrobial
28 resistance genes and sequence types. Statistical associations were assessed using Kruskal-
29 Wallis, Spearman's, and Fisher's tests. 85.22% of isolates were multidrug-resistant (MDR), and
30 100% exhibited biofilm formation, with 52.17% strong, 39.57% moderate, and 8.26% weak
31 biofilm producers. Genes including *ompA*, *bfmR*, *pgaA*, *pgaB*, and *pgaD* were universally
32 present. No significant association was observed between biofilm formation and antibiotic
33 resistance ($P = 0.55$), specimen type ($P = 0.54$), or the presence of specific biofilm-related genes
34 ($P > 0.05$). 21 sequence types (STs) were identified, with ST2 being the most prevalent
35 (51.73%). Strong biofilm formation was more common in ST164, ST1, and ST575.

36 **Conclusions:** This study demonstrates a high prevalence of MDR and strong biofilm-forming
37 *A. baumannii* isolates in India. Biofilm formation appeared independent of resistance or gene
38 carriage but showed lineage-linked variation across sequence types.

39 **Impact Statement:** These findings underscore the need for enhanced surveillance and targeted
40 strategies against infections caused by strong biofilm-forming *A. baumannii*, which may exhibit
41 lineage-linked persistence and resistance.

42 **Keywords:** *Acinetobacter baumannii*, Biofilm formation, Antibiotic resistance, Whole genome
43 sequencing, Biofilm-associated genes

44

45 **Introduction**

46 *Acinetobacter baumannii* is a significant opportunistic pathogen in humans, capable of causing
47 various infections, including ventilator-associated pneumonia, meningitis, bacteremia, wound
48 and soft-tissue infections, peritonitis, and urinary tract infections (Zeighami et al. 2019). In
49 recent years, there has been a notable increase in multidrug resistance (MDR) and extensive
50 drug resistance (XDR) among *A. baumannii*, contributing significantly to nosocomial infections
51 (Gharaibeh et al. 2024). In India, national genomic surveillance and in-silico analyses have
52 reported similarly high MDR/XDR rates, with broad diversity in resistance determinants and
53 mobile genetic elements among clinical isolates (Kumkar et al. 2022). The bacterium exhibits
54 broad-spectrum antibiotic resistance to cephalosporins, penicillins, carbapenems,
55 fluoroquinolones, and aminoglycosides (Babapour et al. 2016). Carbapenem-resistant *A.*
56 *baumannii* is ranked as a critical priority pathogen on the World Health Organization's priority
57 list. Designated as a critical concern, it demands urgent management, continual public health
58 surveillance, and proactive preventive measures (Piperaki et al. 2019). Furthermore, there are
59 reports of several *A. baumannii* nosocomial isolates that display resistance to colistin and
60 tigecycline, which are considered last-resort antibiotics prescribed in treatment guidelines,
61 including those set forth by the Clinical and Laboratory Standards Institute (CLSI) (Asaad et
62 al. 2021). A key factor contributing to the chronicity, persistence of infections, and antibiotic
63 resistance in *A. baumannii* is its ability to colonize and form biofilms on both biotic and abiotic
64 surfaces (Thummeepak et al. 2016). The rate of biofilm formation in *A. baumannii* is reported
65 to be between 80% and 91%, surpassing that of other species, which typically range from 5%

66 to 24% (Zeighami et al. 2019). However, despite multiple reports of MDR/XDR *A. baumannii*
67 from India, comprehensive studies that integrate phenotypic biofilm assessment with whole-
68 genome sequencing remain relatively scarce in the Indian setting (Gedefie et al. 2023).

69 Biofilm formation in *A. baumannii* involves several virulence factors. For instance, the biofilm-
70 associated protein (Bap) is crucial for biofilm attachment, maturation, and maintenance (Amin
71 et al. 2019). The *csuABCDE* gene cluster synthesizes pili, essential for biofilm adhesion (Luo
72 et al. 2015). The BfmR-BfmS system regulates pili synthesis and secretion, affecting biofilm
73 formation via the *csuABCDE* cluster (Tomaras et al. 2008). The *pgaABCD* locus produces
74 PNAG, vital for biofilm formation (Choi Alexis H. K. et al. 2009). The *abaI* and *abaR* genes
75 are key in quorum sensing, crucial for biofilm maturation (Niu et al. 2008). Outer Membrane
76 Protein A (OmpA) plays a crucial role in *A. baumannii* by facilitating adhesion, invasion, and
77 biofilm formation (Nie et al. 2020). The biofilm growth-associated repressor (BigR) regulates
78 genes related to cell adhesion and biofilm formation (Walsh et al. 2020). The beta-lactamase
79 *blaPER-1* gene enhances biofilm formation and attachment to respiratory cells (Thummeepak
80 et al. 2016).

81 The Tissue Culture Plate (TCP) method for detecting biofilm production, stands out as the most
82 reliable and is considered the gold standard method. It is a quantitative method available for
83 assessing biofilm formation (de Castro Melo et al. 2013), (Harika et al. 2020), (Harika et al.
84 2020).

85 The study examined antibiotic susceptibility profiles, biofilm formation capacities, and biofilm-
86 associated genes in 230 *A. baumannii* clinical isolates. Associations between biofilm formation
87 capacities, specimen types, and antibiotic resistance were explored. Additionally, biofilm-
88 associated genes' influence on biofilm formation capacity and antibiotic resistance was

89 evaluated. Phylogenetic analysis was performed to determine potential connections between
90 specific sequence types (STs) and biofilm formation capacity.

91

92 **Materials and Methods**

93 **Bacterial isolates and antibiotic susceptibility testing (AST)**

94 The study was conducted at the Central Research Laboratory, Kempegowda Institute of
95 Medical Sciences (KIMS), Bengaluru. A total of 230 retrospective isolates of *A. baumannii*
96 were included for analysis. These isolates were originally collected as part of the Global Health
97 Research Unit (GHRU) study on antimicrobial resistance (AMR), which generated a larger
98 archive of 650 clinical *A. baumannii* isolates from multiple medical colleges and hospitals
99 across India between 2015 and 2022. For the present study, a subset was selected based on
100 sample-size calculations using the formula $n = Z^2 p(1-p) / d^2$ ($Z = 1.96$, $p = 0.85$ from published
101 prevalence (Zeighami et al. 2019), $d = 0.05$), which indicated a minimum requirement of
102 approximately 196 isolates. We therefore selected 230 isolates to ensure adequate statistical
103 power for genomic and phenotypic comparisons. The Ethical approval for the study was
104 obtained from the KIMS ethical committee with the study number KIMS/IEC/27/2017. The
105 strain details are provided in Supplementary Table 1.

106 The isolates were preserved at -80 °C in 15 % glycerol until processing. The antibiotic
107 susceptibility data of all the clinical isolates of *A. baumannii* were retrieved from the VITEK 2
108 (bioMérieux, Marcy-l'Étoile, France) compact system. The AST-N406 card was utilized to test
109 a total of 12 CLSI-recommended antibiotics. Prior to inoculation, a pure overnight colony was
110 suspended in sterile saline, adjusted to ~ 0.5 McFarland using a DensiCHEK™ meter, and then
111 loaded into the AST card module according to manufacturer instructions. Considering the

112 definitions provided by Magiorakos et al. 2012 (Magiorakos et al. 2012) and using AMR (for
113 R) (<https://msberends.github.io/AMR/>), the isolates were characterized as MDR if the isolates
114 were non-susceptible to ≥ 1 agent in ≥ 3 antibiotic categories, XDR if the isolates were non-
115 susceptible to ≥ 1 agent in ≥ 5 antibiotic categories and susceptible if the isolates were non-
116 susceptible to ≥ 1 agent in 0-2 antibiotic categories.

117

118 **Biofilm quantification using the Tissue culture plate (TCP) method**

119 Biofilm detection and quantification were carried out using the tissue culture plate method
120 following the procedure outlined by Christensen et al. 1985 (Christensen et al. 1985). Frozen
121 test isolates stored at -80 °C were revived by streaking onto blood agar plates and incubating
122 overnight at 37 °C. Single colonies from these freshly grown cultures were inoculated into 5
123 mL of Trypticase soy broth (TSB) and then incubated for 24 hours at 37°C . Subsequently, the
124 culture density was adjusted to 0.5 McFarland after 24 hours of incubation and further diluted
125 to $1:100$ using fresh Trypticase soy broth. A sterile 96 -well polystyrene plate was utilized, with
126 each well filled with 0.2 mL of the bacterial inoculum and incubated for 24 hours at 37 °C. The
127 strong biofilm-forming strain *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* ATCC 27853 and the sterile TSB were
128 used as positive and negative controls, respectively. Following incubation, the bacterial
129 suspension was removed from all wells by gentle tapping, and the wells were washed twice
130 with phosphate-buffered saline (pH 7.2) before being incubated for 1 hour at 37°C .
131 Subsequently, the wells were stained with 0.2 mL of 0.1% Crystal Violet for 10 minutes, excess
132 stain was removed by washing with distilled water, and the plates were allowed to dry. Then,
133 0.2mL of 33% glacial acetic acid was added to each well, and the optical density at a wavelength
134 of 570 nm was determined using a Microtiter plate reader, Spectramax ABA Plus, Molecular
135 Devices (Softmax pro 7.1.1). The isolates were characterized as weak, moderate and strong

136 biofilm producers according to the classification recommended by Stepanović et al. 2007
137 (Stepanović et al. 2007). The criteria for interpretation are detailed in Table 1.

138

139 **Genomic Characterisation of Biofilm & AMR Determinants, Lineages and Phylogeny**

140 Genomic DNA was extracted from *A.baumannii* isolates grown overnight on blood agar plates.

141 A single colony was harvested, suspended in buffer, and processed using the QIAamp DNA

142 Mini Kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany) according to the manufacturer's spin-column protocol for

143 Gram-negative bacteria. Briefly, after lysis with protease and Buffer AL at ~56 °C, the sample

144 was ethanol-precipitated, passed through a silica membrane, washed with Buffer AW1 and

145 AW2, and eluted in 200 µL Buffer AE. DNA concentration and purity of the extracted DNA

146 was measured with the Qubit dsDNA kit (ThermoScientific, Massachusetts, USA). For

147 sequencing, libraries with a 450 bp insert size were prepared using the NEB ultraFS-II kit (New

148 England Biolabs, London, United Kingdom). The quality of these libraries was assessed using

149 an Agilent Tapestation (Santa Clara, California, USA). Sequencing was then carried out on the

150 Illumina MiSeq platform (Illumina, San Diego, California, USA), producing paired-end reads

151 of 250 bp.

152 The bioinformatic analysis was conducted utilizing Nextflow pipelines developed as part of the

153 Genomic Surveillance of Antimicrobial Resistance AMR project, available at protocols.io. The

154 Quality control and Assembly were performed using the assembly pipeline

155 (<https://gitlab.com/cgps/ghru/pipelines/dsl2/pipelines/assembly>). The raw reads are trimmed

156 for low-quality reads, and sequencing error correction was performed before assembling the

157 reads into contigs using the SPAdes assembler v3.12 (Prjibelski et al. 2020).

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158 The assembled contigs were annotated using Bakta v1.8.2 with a v5.0 database (Schwengers et
159 al. 2021). To specifically target biofilm-associated genes, the Virulence Factor Database
160 (VFDB) <http://www.mgc.ac.cn/VFs/> was scanned using the ariba tool v2.14.7 (Hunt et al.
161 2017). The biofilm-related genes, including *abaI*, *abaR*, *adeF*, *adeG*, *adeH*, *csuA_B*, *csuB*,
162 *csuC*, *csuD*, *csuE*, *pgaA*, *pgaB*, *pgaC*, *pgaD*, and *bap*, were detected using the VFDB.
163 Additionally, the annotations from the Bakta were screened for additional biofilm-related genes
164 such as *ompA*, *bidR*, *bfmR*, *ptk*, *bmfS*, *epsA*, and *bla_{PER-1}*. A custom Python script was developed
165 and employed to extract information regarding the presence or absence of the identified biofilm-
166 related genes in the bacterial isolates.

167 Additionally, Sequence types (STs) were determined using PubMLST (<https://pubmlst.org/>), a
168 widely used scheme for sequence-based typing of microbial isolates, which utilizes curated
169 databases and standardized typing schemes to assign STs based on allelic profiles of specific
170 genetic loci.

171 Panaroo v1.4.2 (Tonkin-Hill et al. 2020) was utilised to construct the pangenome from the
172 annotations, and the core genome alignment was used for phylogenetic tree construction. The
173 SNPs were extracted from the core-gene alignment using SNP-sites v2.5.1 (Page et al. 2016)
174 and the maximum likelihood tree was constructed using the General Time Reversible model
175 (GTR) using IQ-Tree v2.2.6 (Minh et al. 2020). The phylogenetic tree was visualized on
176 Microreact (<https://microreact.org/>) (Argimón et al. 2016) for interactive exploration of
177 bacterial isolate relationships.

178 All the WGS data from this study were uploaded to the European Nucleotide Archive (ENA)
179 under the Bioproject numbers PRJEB29740 and PRJEB50614.

180

181 **Statistical Analysis**

182 The Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test was utilized to analyze the associations between biofilm
183 formation capacities and the specimen types of clinical isolates of *A. baumannii*. Additionally,
184 Spearman's rank correlation test was employed to examine the relationship between biofilm
185 formation capacity and antibiotic resistance in these clinical isolates. To further investigate the
186 association between biofilm-related genes and biofilm formation, Fisher's Exact test was
187 conducted. All statistical analyses were performed using RStudio v2023.12.0. The code snippet
188 has been uploaded to figshare and is available at this link
189 (<https://doi.org/10.6084/m9.figshare.25930018.v1>).

190

191 **Results**

192 The study included 230 clinical isolates of *A. baumannii* obtained from 150 male and 80 female
193 patients, aged between 8 days and 90 years (mean age: 46.27 ± 19.77 years). The majority of
194 isolates were from respiratory samples (56.52%), followed by wound and soft tissue (27.39%),
195 blood (7.39%), urine and catheter samples (5.64%), and cerebrospinal and other body fluids
196 (3.04%). Detailed specimen-wise distribution for each isolate is provided in Supplementary
197 Table 1.

198

199 **Biofilm-Forming Capacity of *A. baumannii* and Its Distribution Across Clinical** 200 **Specimens**

201 The adherence ability of each *A. baumannii* isolate, based on OD₅₇₀ measurements and ODc
202 calculations, was categorized as none, weak, moderate, or strong biofilm producers. The mean

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203 OD₅₇₀ (\pm SD) of the reference strain *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* ATCC 27853 (positive control)
204 was 2.36 ± 0.11 , and that of sterile TSB medium (negative control) was 0.22 ± 0.006 . The OD₅₇₀
205 values for the clinical isolates ranged from 0.54 ± 0.01 to 3.98 ± 0.2 . All the isolates (100%)
206 could form biofilm, of which 52.17% (120/230) were strong biofilm producers, 39.57%
207 (91/230) were moderate biofilm producers, and 8.26% (19/230) of the isolates were weak
208 biofilm producers. The distribution of OD₅₇₀ for each of the categories is represented in Figure
209 1. No isolate was found to be a non-biofilm former.

210 When stratified by specimen type, 72.5% (29/40) of isolates from pus samples and 52.45%
211 (32/61) from tracheal aspirates were strong biofilm producers. In contrast, 52.38% (33/63) of
212 sputum-derived isolates were moderate biofilm producers (Table 2). However, statistical
213 analysis using the Kruskal–Wallis rank sum test did not reveal any significant association
214 between specimen type and biofilm formation strength ($\chi^2 = 1.2018$; $P = 0.54$).

215

216 **Antimicrobial Resistance Profiles and Association Between Biofilm-Forming Capacity**

217 The antibiotic susceptibility test results for 12 antibiotics are shown in Figure 1. Most of the
218 isolates (206/230, 89.56%) were resistant to all three tested carbapenems: Imipenem,
219 Meropenem, and Doripenem, Piperacillin-tazobactam, Ticarcillin-clavulanic acid and
220 Cefepime, followed by Ciprofloxacin and Ceftazidime (205/230 89.13%), Gentamicin
221 (199/230 86.52%), Levofloxacin (198/230 86.08%), Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole (188/230
222 81.73%) and Colistin (16/230 6.95%). Out of the 230 studied *A. baumannii* isolates, 196
223 (85.22%) were MDR and 11 (4.78%) were XDR. 23 (10%) of the isolates showed a susceptible
224 pattern.

225 The Spearman's rank correlation analysis revealed no significant correlation between the

226 antibiotic resistance groups (MDR, XDR and Susceptible) and biofilm formation capacities
227 ($rs=-0.039$, $P=0.55$) (Table 3). Among the 206 carbapenem-resistant *A. baumannii* isolates, the
228 majority (52.91%) were strong biofilm producers (SBP), followed by moderate biofilm
229 producers (MBP) at 38.35%, and weak biofilm producers (WBP) at 8.74%. Correlation
230 analysis between biofilm formation and resistance to each antibiotic showed no significant
231 association ($P > 0.05$) (Supplementary Table 2).

232

233 **Distribution of Biofilm-Associated Genes, Their Associations with Biofilm Formation** 234 **Capacities, Antibiotic Resistance Groups, and Multilocus sequence types (MLST)**

235 Among the 22 biofilm-related genes tested, the most commonly detected genes were *ompA*,
236 *bfmR*, *pgaA*, *pgaB*, and *pgaD*, found in all isolates (230/230, 100%). This was followed by *adeF*
237 (229/230, 99.56%), *adeH* and *pgaC* (228/230, 99.13%), *adeG* (222/230, 96.52%), *abaI*
238 (208/230, 90.43%), *csuA_B*, *csuC*, and *csuE* (205/230, 89.13%), *csuB* (204/230, 88.69%), *csuD*
239 (201/230, 87.39%), and *abaR* (189/230, 82.17%). Less commonly detected genes included *bap*
240 (66/230, 28.69%) and *ptk* (7/230, 3%). The genes *bigR*, *bmfS*, *epsA*, and *blaPER-1* were not
241 detected in any isolates.

242 Analysis using Fisher's Exact test revealed no significant associations between the biofilm-
243 associated genes and biofilm formation capacities ($P>0.05$) (Figure 3B & Supplementary Table
244 3). Additionally, despite the *ptk* positive isolates comprising only 3% of the samples, all of them
245 exhibited strong biofilm formation (Figure 3B). The carrying rates of biofilm-associated genes
246 across the three antibiotic resistance groups (MDR, XDR, and susceptible), as shown in Figure
247 3A, did not indicate any observable association between gene presence and resistance profile.

248 Multilocus sequence typing (MLST) analysis identified 21 distinct STs among the *A. baumannii*



249 isolates. The most frequently identified were ST2 (119/230, 51.73%), ST149 (26/230, 11.30%),
250 ST1 (17/230, 7.39%), ST10 (9/230, 3.91%), and ST575 (7/230, 3.04%). ST2 was the most
251 predominant among all isolates. Furthermore, the study uncovered associations between
252 specific STs such as ST164 (5/5, 100%), ST1 (16/17, 94.11%) and ST575 (6/7, 85.71%), with
253 strong biofilm formation capacities. The relationship between phylogenetic relatedness,
254 sequence types, and biofilm-forming capacities is depicted in Figure 4.

255

256 Discussion

257 Drug-resistant *A. baumannii* has demonstrated a remarkable capacity to spread globally, with
258 rates of MDR and XDR escalating from under 4% in 2000 to exceeding 60% more recently and
259 reaching nearly 90% in certain regional hospital environments (Wong et al. 2017, (Ghahramani
260 et al. 2024). The National Institutes of Health and the Centre for Disease Control and Prevention
261 estimate that between 65% and 80% of human infections are attributable to bacteria that form
262 biofilms (Wolcott and Dowd 2011).

263 This study highlights the persistent challenges posed by *A. baumannii* within clinical settings,
264 characterized by high rates of MDR and robust biofilm formation. Our findings resonate with
265 global trends of escalating antibiotic resistance among *A. baumannii* isolates, which complicate
266 treatment strategies and increase healthcare burdens (Peleg, Seifert and Paterson 2008). The
267 majority (90%) of isolates displayed MDR profiles, including resistance to carbapenems and
268 other critical antimicrobials, mirroring patterns observed globally (Perez et al. 2007).

269 The high carbapenem resistance (89.56% for imipenem, meropenem, and doripenem) is
270 particularly concerning given their importance as last-resort drugs. Although resistance was not
271 stratified geographically, isolates originated from multiple tertiary hospitals across India,

272 suggesting broad dissemination. Increased reliance on polymyxin B and tigecycline has been
273 reported (Falagas et al. 2014), yet toxicity and inconsistent outcomes highlight the need for
274 novel therapies and stronger antibiotic stewardship.

275 Biofilm formation remains a key virulence factor enhancing persistence and antibiotic tolerance
276 in *A. baumannii*. In our study, all 230 clinical isolates exhibited the ability to form biofilms,
277 with over half (52.17%) classified as strong biofilm formers. This is in line with prior research
278 of Zeighami et al., 2019, (Zeighami et al. 2019), where a high prevalence of biofilm formation
279 was reported. The propensity for robust biofilm formation by *A. baumannii* complicates clinical
280 management due to biofilms' inherent resistance to antimicrobial agents and immune evasion
281 capabilities (Rodríguez-Baño et al. 2008). The lack of a significant association between biofilm
282 formation capacities and specimen types suggests that biofilm formation in *A. baumannii* is
283 consistent across different clinical sources. This indicates that biofilm formation is likely an
284 intrinsic characteristic of the isolates, not significantly influenced by the site of infection
285 (Zeighami et al. 2019)(Sanchez et al. 2013). Currently, there remains no consistent pattern in
286 the relationship between biofilm formation capabilities and bacterial antibiotic resistance.
287 Findings across various studies continue to be contradictory (Qi et al. 2016), (Badave and
288 Kulkarni 2015). Our study did not find any significant correlation between antibiotic
289 susceptibility and biofilm formation capabilities in the clinical isolates ($P>0.05$), aligning with
290 earlier research findings (Seleim et al. 2023) & (Donadu et al. 2022), where no significant
291 correlations were found. This lack of correlation suggests that the ability of bacteria to form
292 biofilms may not directly influence their resistance to antibiotics. This observation supports the
293 notion that biofilm formation and antimicrobial resistance may be independently regulated traits
294 within bacterial populations.

295 The analysis of biofilm-associated genes in this study provides essential insight into the
296 persistence and pathogenic potential of *A. baumannii*. Our study's results, which showed that
297 the genes *ompA*, *bfmR*, *pgaB*, and *pgaD* were present in all 230 samples (100%), are consistent
298 with findings from previous research. Li et al., 2021, (Li et al. 2021) noted *bfmR*, which is
299 involved in regulating biofilm formation and crucial for bacterial adherence and colonization,
300 as the most frequent gene, appearing in 94.2% of their samples. Similarly, research by Badmasti
301 et al., 2015 (Badmasti et al. 2015) identified *ompA*, crucial for bacterial cell integrity and
302 immune evasion, as being present in all samples (100%). Zeighami et al., 2019 (Zeighami et al.
303 2019) reported a high prevalence of *pgaB*, part of the operon responsible for biofilm matrix
304 production in 98% of their samples. The universal presence of these genes among diverse
305 clinical isolates suggests that they are part of the core genome and essential for biofilm
306 formation and survival in clinical environments. A particularly interesting finding in our study
307 was the identification of *ptk* in only 3% of isolates — all of which were strong biofilm
308 producers. *Ptk* encodes a protein tyrosine kinase involved in exopolysaccharide biosynthesis, a
309 critical process in biofilm maturation. To our knowledge, this is the first report from India
310 correlating *ptk* presence specifically with strong biofilm production. This highlights *ptk* as a
311 promising candidate for future anti-biofilm strategies or as a biomarker for hyper-virulent
312 strains.

313 The lack of significant correlations between individual biofilm-associated genes and biofilm
314 formation capacities implies the involvement of complex regulatory networks and genetic
315 interactions in governing biofilm formation in *A. baumannii* (Gedefie et al. 2023). Further
316 studies elucidating the regulatory mechanisms underlying biofilm gene expression are
317 warranted. However, some studies have found associations. For instance, Li et al., 2021 (Li et
318 al. 2021) observed that the presence of certain genes, like *csuD*, was significantly correlated
319 with stronger biofilm formation. This discrepancy might be due to differences in genetic

320 backgrounds, environmental conditions, or specific regulatory pathways influencing gene
321 expression.

322 No association between the carrying rates of biofilm-related genes and antimicrobial resistance
323 profiles in our study underscores the complexity of the relationship between genetic
324 determinants of biofilm formation and antimicrobial resistance in *A. baumannii*. This
325 observation aligns with findings from several other studies that have also reported a lack of
326 significant associations between the two categories. For instance, a study by Habib Zeighami
327 et al., 2019 (Zeighami et al. 2019) similarly found no significant correlation between the
328 presence of biofilm-associated genes and antimicrobial resistance profiles in *A. baumannii*
329 isolates. Furthermore, the regulatory networks governing biofilm formation and antimicrobial
330 resistance in *A. baumannii* are complex and interconnected (Zeighami et al. 2019). Genetic
331 interactions and epistatic effects may contribute to the observed lack of correlation between
332 biofilm-related genes and antimicrobial resistance (Silva et al. 2023). However, some studies
333 have found associations. For example, Li et al., 2021 (Li et al. 2021) observed that the presence
334 of certain biofilm-associated genes like *csuA* and *csuD* was significantly correlated with higher
335 resistance in MDR strains, whereas non-MDR strains had more *ompA* genes and formed
336 stronger biofilms. This discrepancy might be due to differences in genetic backgrounds,
337 environmental conditions, or specific regulatory pathways influencing gene expression.
338 Understanding these intricate regulatory mechanisms requires further investigation through
339 functional genomics and systems biology approaches.

340 The observed prevalence of ST2 in the phylogenetic analysis aligns with previous
341 epidemiological studies highlighting its prominence among *A. baumannii* clinical isolates.
342 Additionally, the identified associations between ST1, ST164, and ST575 with robust biofilm
343 formation capacities substantiate the role of genetic lineages in shaping biofilm phenotypes,

344 suggesting potential genetic determinants driving biofilm formation in *A. baumannii*. This
345 finding, to our knowledge, has not been previously reported in Indian isolates. These findings
346 provide valuable insights into the genetic diversity and biofilm-related traits of *A. baumannii*
347 strains, which can inform targeted intervention strategies and therapeutic approaches to combat
348 biofilm-associated infections (Wiradiputra et al. 2023).

349 Further, the core genome SNP-based phylogenetic analysis revealed five major clades
350 corresponding to the predominant sequence types (ST2, ST149, ST1, ST164, and ST575).
351 Isolates within each clade displayed close genetic relatedness (typically <50 SNPs), whereas
352 inter-clade distances exceeded 1,000 SNPs, confirming distinct evolutionary trajectories. The
353 predominance of ST2 and ST149 across multiple institutions and collection years suggests their
354 successful adaptation and persistence in Indian healthcare settings. Although no patient-level
355 epidemiological data were available to infer direct transmission, the clustering pattern indicates
356 the potential for regional dissemination of these high-risk clones. These results underscore the
357 importance of integrating genomic and epidemiological surveillance to better track the
358 evolution and spread of multidrug-resistant *A. baumannii* in India.

359 Overall, the novelty and significance of this study lie in its multi-centric design, nationwide
360 coverage, and integration of phenotypic and genomic data. By linking biofilm phenotypes,
361 genetic lineages, and resistance profiles across isolates collected from multiple regions of India,
362 this study provides one of the most comprehensive insights into the biofilm-genotype landscape
363 of *A. baumannii* in the country. The detection of lineage-specific biofilm strengths (e.g., ST164,
364 ST575) and the limited influence of gene carriage on biofilm phenotype highlight the need to
365 explore epigenetic and regulatory mechanisms that could be driving persistence in clinical
366 environments. Collectively, these findings establish a genomic and epidemiological framework
367 for future surveillance and development of targeted anti-biofilm strategies.

368 Despite its comprehensive analysis, this study has some limitations. Firstly, the study focused
369 on a set of biofilm-associated genes, and further research may explore additional genes that
370 could provide additional insights. Additionally, the proportions of MDR, XDR, and susceptible
371 isolates were not balanced, with MDR isolates comprising the majority, potentially impacting
372 the generalizability of the findings.

373

374 **Conclusion**

375 This study unveils the intricate interplay among biofilm formation, antibiotic resistance, and
376 genetic diversity in clinical isolates of *A. baumannii*. By shedding light on these relationships,
377 the findings underscore the enduring hurdles presented by this pathogen in clinical contexts,
378 emphasising the critical need to unravel the underlying mechanisms governing biofilm
379 formation and antibiotic resistance. This understanding paves the way for future research
380 endeavours aimed at developing precise intervention strategies and innovative therapeutics to
381 effectively tackle biofilm-associated infections attributed to *A. baumannii*.

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434 No potential conflict of interest was reported by the authors.

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612 Author Contribution

613 V.M.S. and V.S. conceptualised this study. V.M.S. performed the biofilm assay. V.S. performed
614 the genomic analysis of the samples collected in this study. V.M.S. and V.S. were involved in
615 statistical analysis, table, and figure generation. KLR guided the manuscript preparation and
616 reviewed the manuscript. K.A.K. critically reviewed the manuscript. G.N. and H.G.K. were
617 involved in the sample collection. H.G.K., M.R. and K.A.K. performed the microbiology part
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620

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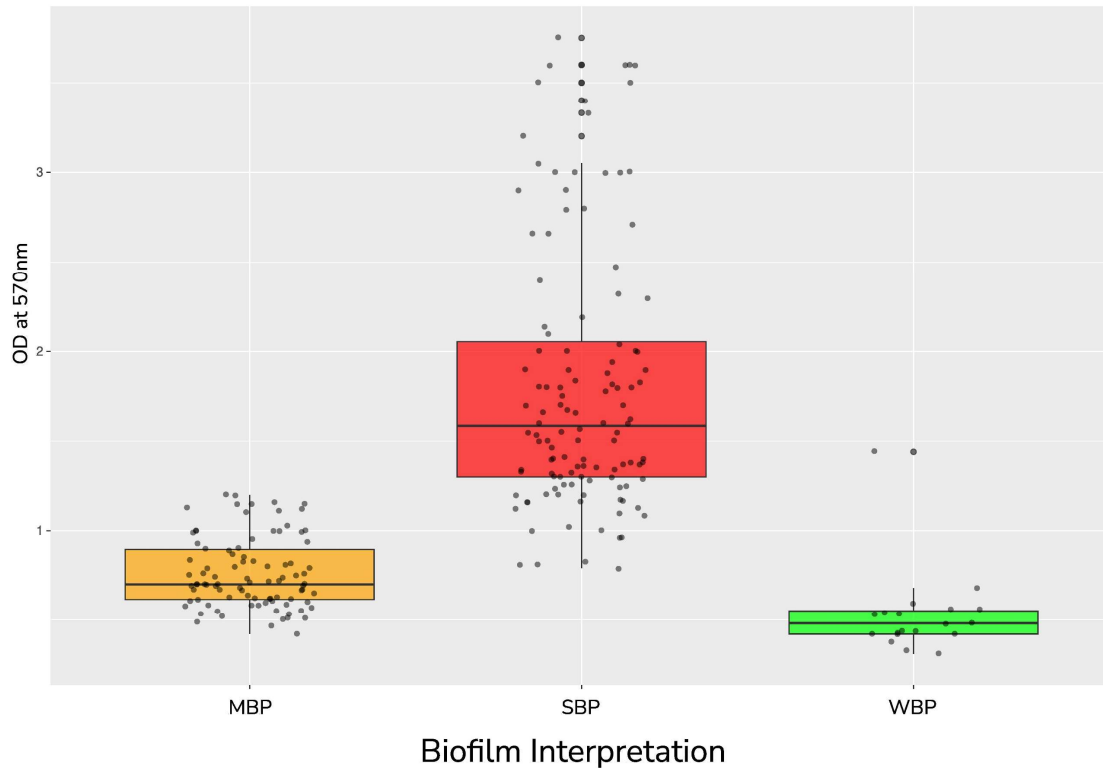
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628 Data Availability

629 All original data generated and analyzed during this study are included within the article and
630 its supplementary materials.

631

Figure 1

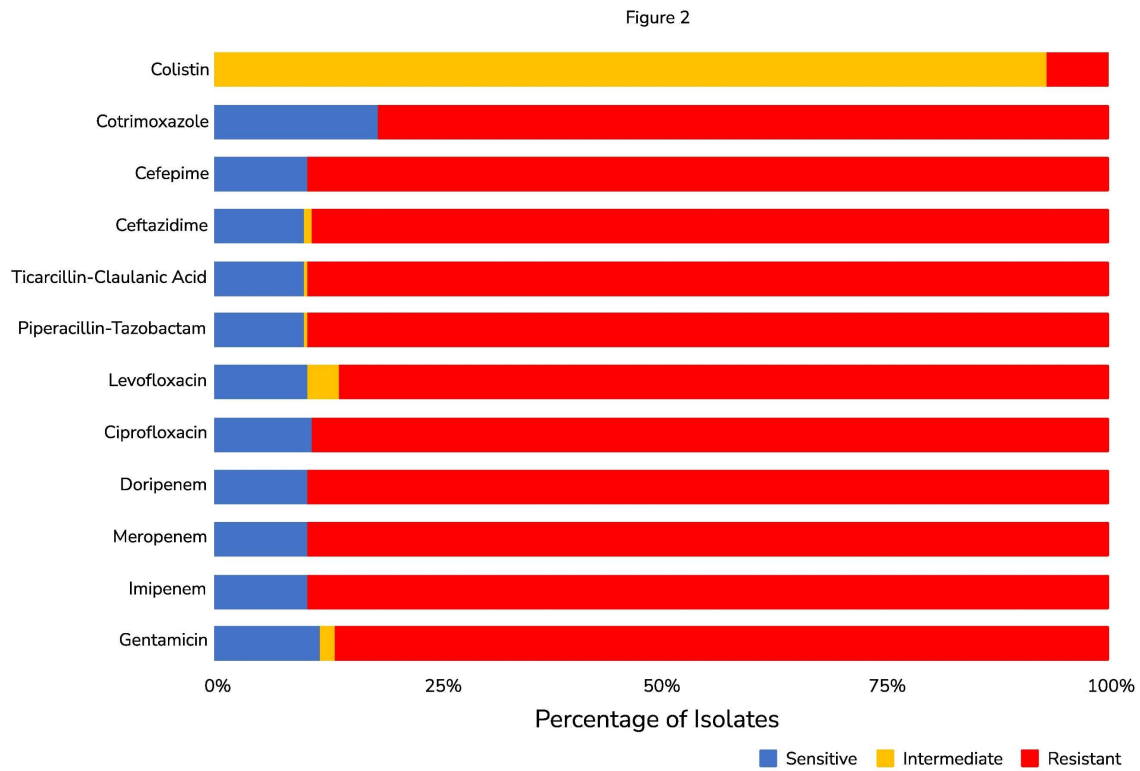


633

634 **Figure 1:** Biofilm detection in *A. baumannii* isolates using the Tissue Culture Plate (TCP)
 635 method: Box-and-whisker plot showing OD₅₇₀ values for strong, moderate, and weak biofilm-
 636 forming categories. Boxes represent interquartile ranges, horizontal lines indicate medians, and
 637 whiskers show minimum and maximum values

638 Abbreviations: MBP: Moderate biofilm producer; SBP: Strong biofilm producer; WBP: Weak
 639 biofilm producer

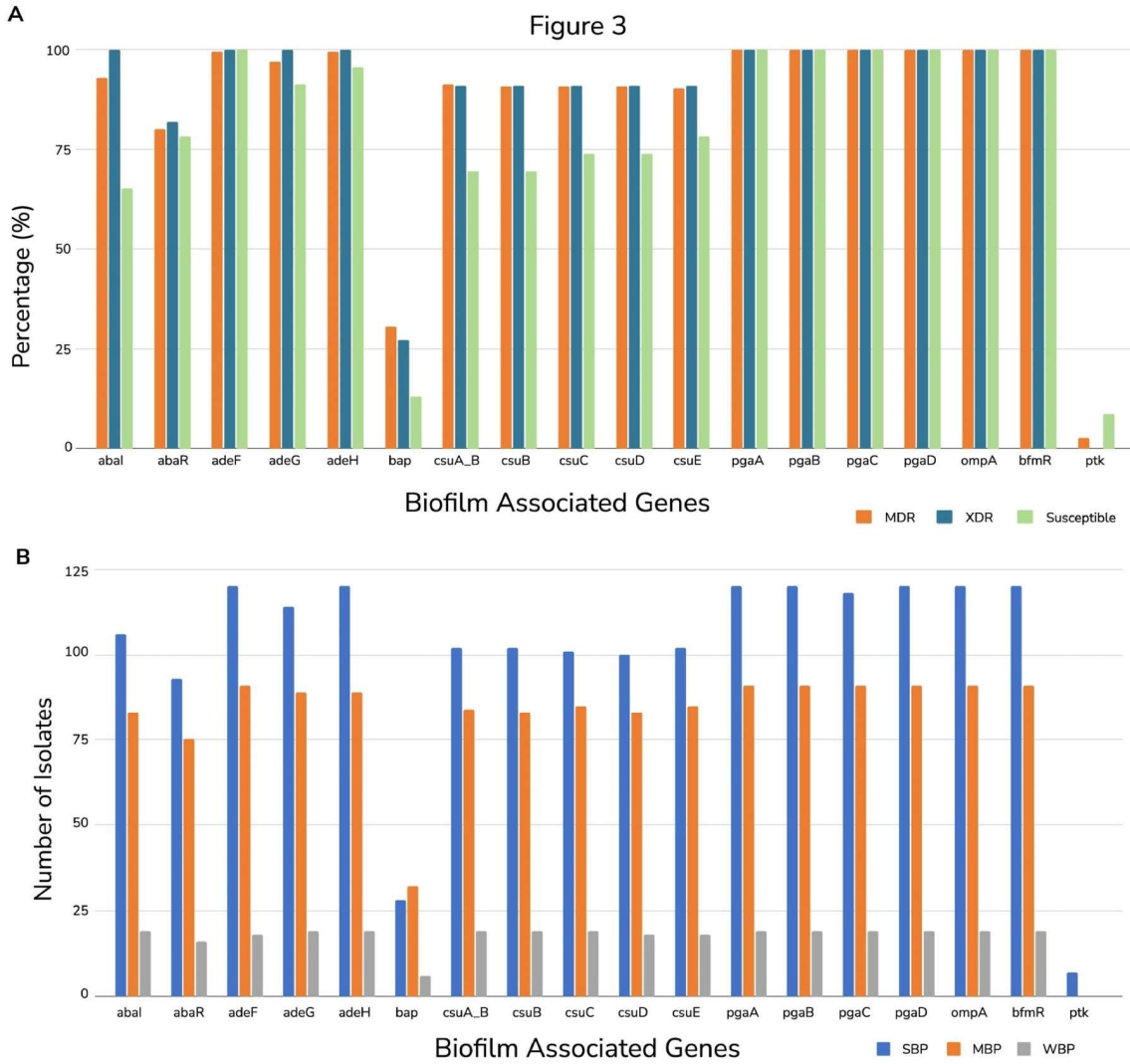
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642

643 **Figure 2:** Antibiotic susceptibility profiles of *A. baumannii* clinical isolates. The figure shows
 644 a horizontal stacked bar plot where each bar represents a specific antibiotic. The y-axis lists the
 645 antibiotics tested, and the x-axis shows the percentage distribution of isolates. Each bar is
 646 stacked to 100% and divided into sensitive, intermediate, and resistant.

647

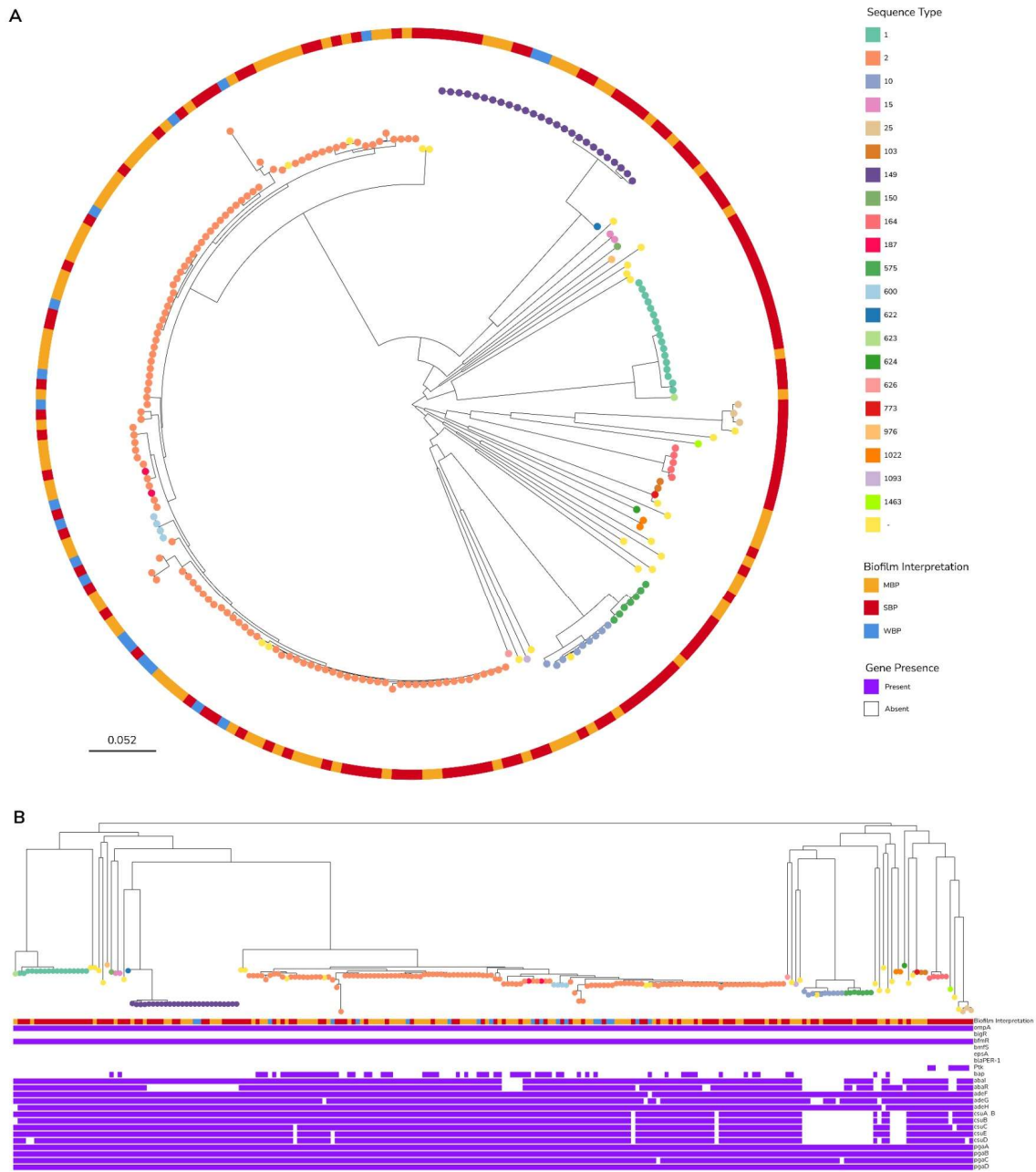


649

650 **Figure 3: A)** Bar chart showing the percentage of *A. baumannii* isolates carrying specific
 651 biofilm-associated genes across three antibiotic resistance categories: MDR, XDR, and
 652 Sensitive. The y-axis represents the percentage of gene-positive isolates.

653 **B)** Bar chart representing the number of isolates carrying each biofilm gene among SBP, MBP,
 654 and WBP. The y-axis shows the count of gene-positive isolates.

655



657

658 **Figure 4:** A) Circular phylogenetic tree view of the same dataset, offering an alternative
 659 visualization for comparison and clarity. The outer rings display metadata layers for biofilm
 660 formation phenotypes and the presence of selected biofilm-associated genes (*ompA*, *bfmR*, *hap*,

661 pgaABCD, etc.). This view enhances the interpretation of lineage-specific traits and highlights
662 clusters of strong biofilm-forming STs, particularly ST1, ST164, and ST575.

663 **B)** Rectangular phylogenetic tree view showing the relationships among 230 *A. baumannii*
664 isolates based on core genome SNPs. Each isolate is annotated with its corresponding sequence
665 type (ST), biofilm formation capacity (color-coded as strong, moderate, or weak), and the
666 presence or absence of key biofilm-associated genes. Sequence types are indicated along the
667 branches, allowing visualization of the genetic clustering of isolates and their biofilm-related
668 characteristics.

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670

671 **Table 1:** Interpretation of biofilm formation using the tissue culture plate (TCP) method.

Mean OD value	Degree of Adherence	Biofilm formation
$OD \leq OD_c^*$	-	None
$OD_c < OD \leq 2 OD_c$	+	Weak
$2 OD_c < OD \leq 4 OD_c$	++	Moderate
$4 OD_c < OD$	+++	Strong

672 *Optical density cut-off value (OD_c) was considered as three standard deviations above the

673 mean optical density (OD) of the negative control

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679 **Table 2:** Distribution of biofilm formation capacities among the specimen types

Clinical Specimen Type	Biofilm formation capacities (No of isolates/total number (percentage))		
	Strong	Moderate	Weak
Sputum	25/63 (39.68)	33/63 (52.38)	5/63 (7.94)
Pus	29/40 (72.5)	11/40 (27.5)	-
TA	32/61 (52.45)	22/61 (36.06)	7/61 (11.47)
Wound	13/18 (72.22)	3/18 (16.67)	2/18 (11.11)
Blood	5/17 (29.41)	10/17 (58.82)	2/17 (11.77)
Urine	3/8 (37.5)	5/8 (62.5)	-
BAL	2/6 (33.33)	3/6 (50)	1/6 (16.67)
Catheter	4/5 (80)	1/5 (20)	-
Tissue	3/5 (60)	1/5 (20)	1/5 (20)
CSF	1/3 (33.33)	1/3 (33.34)	1/3 (33.33)
Fluid	2/3 (66.66)	1/3 (33.34)	-

HVS	1/1 (100)	-	-
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680 Abbreviations: TA: Tracheal aspirate; BAL: Bronchoalveolar Lavage; CSF: Cerebrospinal

681 fluid; HVS: High vaginal swab

682

683 **Table 3:** Biofilm formation capacities of the *A. baumannii* clinical isolates with different

684 Antibiotic resistance groups

Antibiotic resistance groups	Number of isolates	OD ₅₇₀ (IQR)	r _s	P value
Susceptible	23	1.35 (0.60-1.8)	-0.039	0.55
MDR	196	1.28 (0.7-1.6)		
XDR	11	0.78 (0.49-0.735)		

685 Abbreviations: MDR: multiple drug resistant; XDR: extensively drug-resistant; r_s=Spearman's

686 rank correlation coefficient.

687