

Review

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Cardiac rehabilitation in porcine models: Advances in therapeutic strategies for ischemic heart disease

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ABSTRACT

Ischemic heart disease (IHD) remains a leading contributor to cardiovascular disease (CVD) worldwide. Despite advances in diagnostic and therapeutic approaches, translational research demands robust large animal models to bridge the gap between experimental interventions and clinical application. Among these, porcine models have gained prominence due to their anatomical, physiological, immunological, and genomic similarities to humans. This review provides a comprehensive overview of current methodologies for establishing porcine IHD models, critically assesses emerging rehabilitative strategies, and outlines innovative therapeutic technologies, with the goal of guiding model selection and fostering the development of novel treatment strategies.

Keywords: Ischemic heart disease; Cardiovascular disease; Porcine model; Rehabilitation; Physical therapy modality

INTRODUCTION

Cardiovascular diseases (CVDs) have emerged as the leading cause of global morbidity and mortality, with ischemic heart disease (IHD) constituting the most prevalent and lethal subtype. Although IHD incidence varies geographically (Zwack et al., 2023), it is defined by myocardial insufficiency, the underlying pathogenesis of which is atherosclerotic obstruction, coronary artery spasm, or microvascular dysfunction (Jensen et al., 2020). Despite its chronic and

progressive nature, IHD can acutely deteriorate, often triggered by plaque rupture or erosion, leading to thrombosis and myocardial infarction (MI). The World Health Organization consistently ranks IHD among the top causes of death worldwide, placing a heavy burden on individuals, families, and societies (Han et al., 2020).

Typically, IHD includes a spectrum of clinical manifestations, including acute coronary syndrome and MI, all of which involve structural and functional compromise of blood vessels and cardiac tissue. Although thrombolysis, coronary stenting, revascularization, antiplatelet therapy, and lipid-lowering therapy have significantly reduced mortality, therapeutic strategies that directly restore or regenerate myocardial architecture remain limited (Figure 1) (Eckhouse et al., 2013). In recent years, the domain of cardiac rehabilitation has evolved, incorporating technological advancements to improve cardiopulmonary function and exercise capacity in patients with IHD, although individualized training intensities result in variable prognostic outcomes (Boyne et al., 2023). Notably, researchers in rehabilitation science are increasingly exploring innovative and integrative strategies for IHD treatment, driven by a growing body of preclinical evidence (Feliciano et al., 2022; Wang et al., 2023).

The development and rehabilitation of animal models for IHD continue to present significant challenges (Hou et al., 2022). Integrating advanced or multimodal rehabilitation

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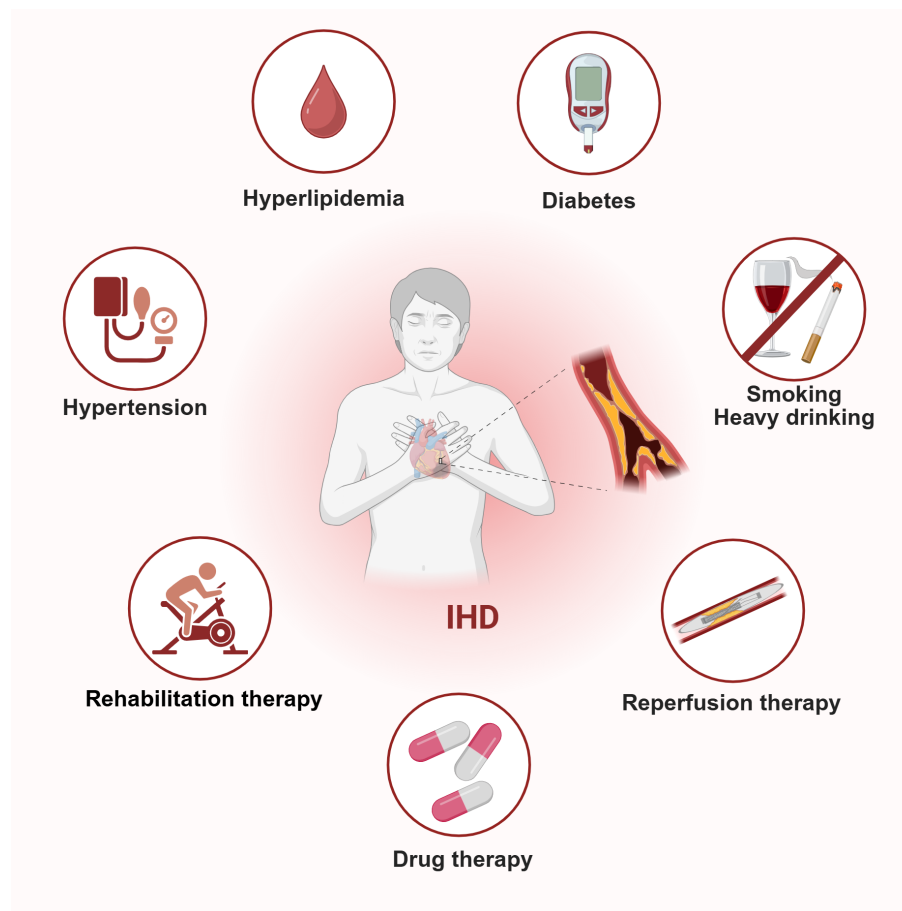


Figure 1 Prevention and treatment strategies for IHD

Management of IHD includes risk factor management, medication, and reperfusion therapy to fully control damage caused by disease progression. Illustration was created by BioRender.com. IHD: Ischemic heart disease.

strategies into large animal models is indispensable for bridging preclinical findings with clinical application and remains a cornerstone of translational cardiovascular research (Eun et al., 2017). Although small animal models have been instrumental in elucidating the cellular and molecular mechanisms underlying rehabilitation therapies, their limited anatomical and physiological relevance to the human cardiovascular systems impedes successful clinical translation (Lunney et al., 2021). In contrast, large animal models can more effectively replicate the progression of human heart disease and provide a more realistic and clinically relevant framework for evaluating the efficacy and feasibility of novel rehabilitation interventions.

In cardiac rehabilitation research, large animal models such as pigs, dogs, and sheep have become indispensable due to their physiological and anatomical resemblance to humans, which enables more accurate simulation of human cardiovascular pathology. Among these, porcine models are particularly valuable due to their comparable cardiac anatomy, coronary circulation, immune responses, and genomic architecture (Netzley & Pelled, 2023). These similarities facilitate the creation of clinically relevant models of IHD, such as atherosclerosis (AS) and MI, through surgical procedures, pharmacological induction, and genetic modification, providing a robust experimental platform for evaluating diagnostic approaches and rehabilitation strategies for cardiovascular diseases (Niccoli et al., 2016).

This review presents a comprehensive overview of current

methodologies for establishing porcine models of IHD, alongside an in-depth analysis of associated rehabilitation strategies and emerging therapeutic technologies, with the aim to support informed model selection and stimulate the development of clinically translatable treatment strategies. Emphasis is placed on widely adopted models, including AS, MI, ischemia-reperfusion (I/R) injury, and heart failure (HF), and their utility in replicating human pathophysiological conditions. The integration of these models into cardiac rehabilitation research offers a powerful platform for simulating disease progression and therapeutic response, thereby enhancing the relevance and applicability of preclinical findings to human IHD management.

PIGS AS A PREFERRED LARGE ANIMAL MODEL FOR IHD RESEARCH

Pigs have emerged as an optimal large animal model for IHD research, primarily due to their close anatomical, physiological, and pathophysiological resemblance to humans.

Similarity in anatomical structure and physiological function

The coronary anatomy of pigs closely mirrors that of humans, with left and right coronary arteries originating from the aortic root and branching into the atrial and ventricular territories. Notably, the porcine heart exhibits minimal coronary collateralization, facilitating the reproducible induction of ischemic injury and making it particularly suitable for MI

models (Jia et al., 2024; Kuwahara et al., 2004; Thirugnanasambandam et al., 2022). Furthermore, contractile dynamics of the pig heart, including rhythmic systole and diastole, replicate human heart cycles with high fidelity, allowing for physiologically relevant simulation of human cardiac responses under disease states. Both heart size and vascular dimensions in adult pigs are highly similar to those in humans, enabling reliable hemodynamic studies, with key parameters, such as resting left ventricular (LV) pressure, heart rate, and cardiac output, closely matching those observed in humans (Li et al., 2024; Sheu et al., 2024). In summary, the anatomical and physiological congruence between porcine and human hearts enhances the translational value of pig models in IHD research. These models not only enable precise replication of human cardiac pathophysiology but also provide a robust framework for exploring the efficacy and safety of various treatment strategies.

Similarity in disease response

Pigs exhibit pathophysiological responses to ischemic injury that closely parallel those observed in humans, making them ideal for modeling IHD progression. Interventions such as coronary artery ligation or balloon occlusion reliably induce pathological states such as myocardial ischemia and infarction, replicating the cascade of pathological events characteristic of human disease (Loen et al., 2023; Pei et al., 2024). In addition, the application of gene editing technologies in pigs allows for precise manipulation of disease pathways, enabling the development of chronic IHD models (Hou et al., 2022). Under pathological conditions, pig hearts exhibit various phenotypes, including oxidative stress, cardiomyocyte death, and myocardial fibrosis, thus providing critical insight into disease mechanisms and therapeutic targets (Stevic et al., 2024; Wei et al., 2025).

ESTABLISHMENT AND EVALUATION OF PORCINE AS MODELS

AS is a multifactorial, lipid-driven, arterial immunoinflammatory disease, with coronary AS representing the most common clinical manifestation of IHD. Multiple risk factors, such as smoking, sex-related hormonal influences, metabolic disturbances, and chronic systemic inflammation, accelerate lipid infiltration into the inner membrane, initiating plaque formation and arterial remodeling (Falk, 2006). Progressive lumen stenosis and endothelial dysfunction impair coronary blood flow, resulting in a mismatch between myocardial oxygen supply and consumption. This cascade leads to sustained myocardial ischemia and hypoxia (Feng et al., 2021), ultimately causing irreversible cardiomyocyte damage, contractile dysfunction, and impaired quality of life. To investigate the etiology, diagnosis, and rehabilitation of AS, porcine models have been successfully established using diverse methodologies, including surgical interventions, dietary or pharmacological induction, and genetic modification. Notably, porcine models recapitulate key pathological and anatomical features of human AS that are poorly represented in small animal models. These include lesion development at anatomically relevant sites, particularly the proximal end of the coronary arteries, foam cell accumulation, neovascularization within plaques, and calcified granule formation (Shim et al., 2016). Such features are critical for studying plaque instability, vascular remodeling, and therapeutic response. This review focuses on the establishment of porcine AS models, with

particular emphasis on coronary atherosclerosis (CAS) models, and outlines the techniques used to replicate human disease progression with high fidelity (Figure 2).

High-fat diet

Although pigs are inherently susceptible to developing AS with age, even when maintained on standard diets, the natural course of disease progression is typically slow and resource-intensive, thereby increasing the expenses associated with feeding. To accelerate disease onset and improve experimental efficiency, high-cholesterol diets are frequently employed as a reliable strategy for inducing AS in pigs (Simon et al., 2022; Ma et al., 2023b).

The rate and extent of AS development following high-fat feeding are influenced by several factors, including the specific composition of the diet, duration of feeding, breed and age of the pig, and housing conditions. In general, early-stage AS lesions can be observed within weeks to a few months after initiating a cholesterol-enriched diet. Serial collection of blood and vascular tissue during the feeding period enables dynamic monitoring of lesion progression through biochemical indicators and histopathological analysis. While high-fat diet induction is straightforward and cost-effective, it lacks consensus regarding the optimal cholesterol concentration required to induce consistent and clinically relevant AS. Furthermore, consuming substantial cholesterol-rich feed may result in the accumulation of cholesterol across multiple organs. Consequently, most current studies utilize high-fat feed with a cholesterol content not exceeding 2%.

Balloon compression

Endothelial disruption and lipid infiltration are central to the pathogenesis of AS lesions. To replicate these initiating events, CAS models can be established by artificially damaging the integrity of the coronary intima to promote the formation of foam cells. Among available techniques, balloon compression injury has become a widely adopted method for modeling coronary artery damage in large animals (Kim et al., 2021). This approach involves the insertion of a balloon catheter into the target blood vessel, followed by controlled inflation and repeated mechanical dilation to simulate vascular injury and early AS processes. However, while balloon compression effectively initiates vascular remodeling and lesion formation, these models typically lack the full pathological complexity of human AS.

Gene editing

Gene editing technology has revolutionized the field of disease modeling by enabling precise, targeted modifications at the genomic level, thereby allowing the replication of human disease-associated gene mutations in animal systems. In the context of AS, this technology facilitates the generation of porcine models with specific genetic backgrounds and carrying specific genetic alterations known to disrupt lipid metabolism and promote disease progression. Key targets include apolipoprotein E (ApoE) and the low-density lipoprotein receptor (LDLR), which significantly increase basal plasma cholesterol and accelerate AS formation (Kamato et al., 2022). These genetically modified models can closely recapitulate the chronic progression of human atherosclerotic disease, from MI to HF, providing a more comprehensive representation of the underlying pathophysiological mechanisms. Established gene editing approaches include ApoE-knockout (ApoE-KO), LDLR knockout (LDLR-KO), and

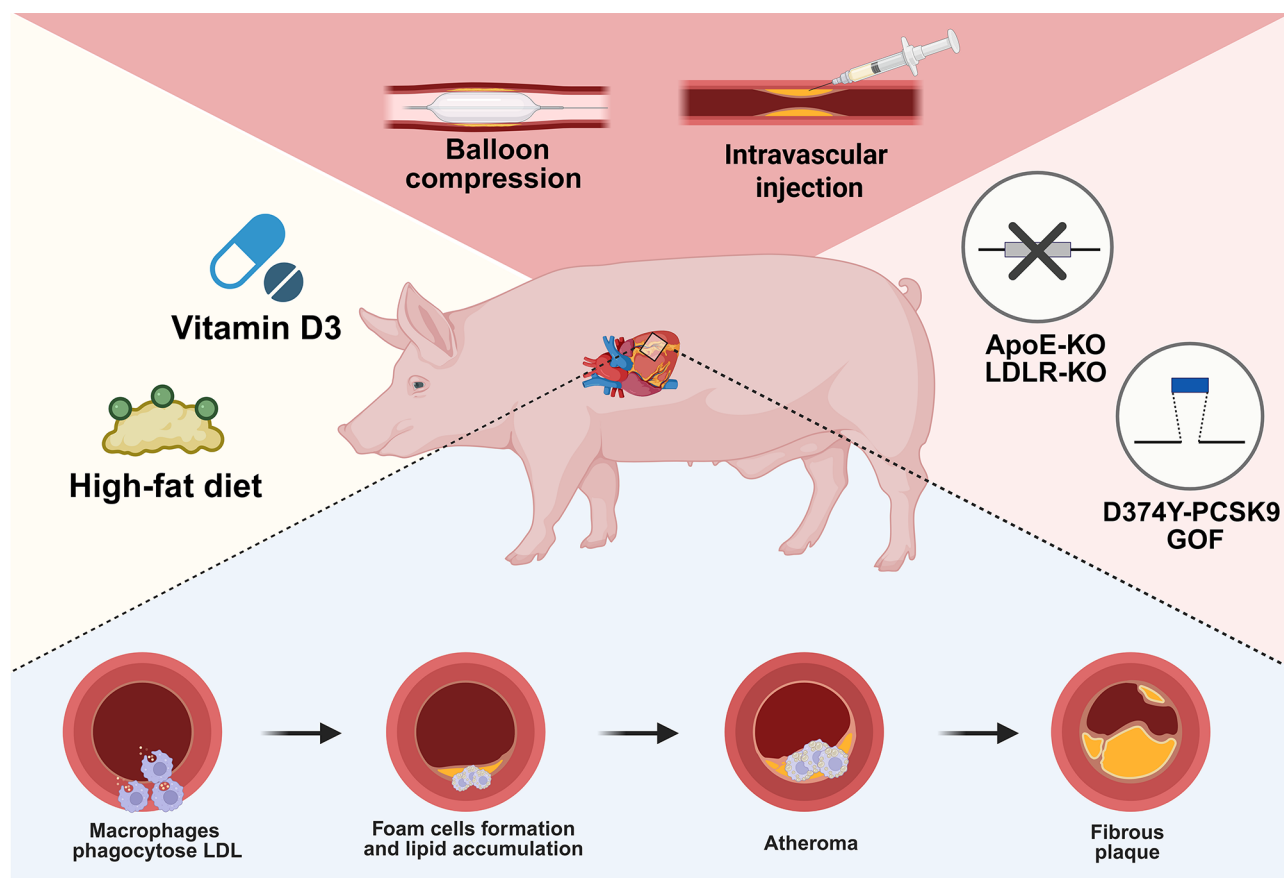


Figure 2 Establishment of porcine AS model

AS can be induced by a high-fat diet or endothelial damage. High-fat diet increases LDL in the blood and promotes its oxidation and foam cell formation. Endothelial injury triggers an inflammatory response, which accelerates LDL deposition and plaque development, leading to atherosclerotic lesions. Constructing gene-edited pigs or adding vitamin D3 or bovine serum albumin to a high-fat diet can shorten AS establishment time. Illustration was created by BioRender.com. ApoE: Apolipoprotein E; AS: Atherosclerosis; GOF: Gain-of-function; KO: Knockout; LDL: Low-density lipoprotein; LDLR: Low-density lipoprotein receptor.

D374Y-PCSK9 gain-of-function (GOF) (Wang et al., 2020a).

ApoE-KO: ApoE plays a central role in lipoprotein clearance and lipid homeostasis, and its deficiency is strongly associated with human cardiovascular pathology. In genetically modified minipigs, ApoE deficiency increases residual lipoproteins and accelerates progressive AS (Shim et al., 2017). CRISPR/Cas9-generated ApoE^{-/-} pigs exhibit a moderate increase in plasma cholesterol when fed a normal diet but develop severe hypercholesterolemia and spontaneous AS-like lesions in the aorta and coronary arteries when fed a high-fat, high-cholesterol diet for 6 months (Fang et al., 2018). Although ApoE gene disruption significantly increases susceptibility to a high-fat diet, the prohibitive costs and technical challenges associated with achieving gene knockout in pigs have hindered its application in preclinical research (Getz & Reardon, 2022). Nonetheless, ApoE-KO pigs represent a valuable large animal model for testing therapeutic interventions in the context of developing and advanced coronary artery disease.

LDLR-KO: Deletion of the LDLR gene can lead to an increase in low-density lipoprotein cholesterol (LDL-C) levels and AS lesion formation. LDLR^{+/-} pigs have been successfully generated using recombinant adeno-associated virus-mediated gene targeting and somatic cell nuclear transfer, with subsequent breeding yielding LDLR^{-/-} pigs. When fed normal low-fat, cholesterol-free feed, LDLR^{+/-} pigs present

moderate and persistent increases in total (TC) and LDL cholesterol, whereas LDLR^{-/-} pigs develop severe hypercholesterolemia and AS lesions in the coronary arteries and abdominal aorta similar to those in humans (Davis et al., 2014). LDLR gene knockout can also be achieved by deleting the exonic region from cultured porcine embryonic fibroblasts to establish LDLR^{-/-} pigs (Konishi et al., 2020; Li et al., 2016; Ogita et al., 2016). Combining LDLR deficiency with high-cholesterol diets or balloon-induced endothelial injury produces CAS models with high reproducibility and pathological fidelity (Ogita et al., 2016). Huang et al. (2017) successfully applied CRISPR/Cas9 to Bama miniature pigs to simultaneously target ApoE and LDLR, successfully generating biallelic knockout pigs with elevated levels of LDL-C, TC, and ApoB.

D374Y-PCSK9 GOF: D374Y GOF mutation in the proprotein convertase subtilisin 9 (PCSK9) gene can induce severe autosomal dominant hypercholesterolemia and accelerate human AS development (Poulsen et al., 2018). Transgenic pigs expressing human D374Y-PCSK9 specifically in the liver have been generated using *Sleeping Beauty* DNA transposition and somatic cell nuclear transfer (Hamamdžić & Wilensky, 2013). These pigs display markedly reduced hepatic LDLR levels, impaired LDL clearance, severe hypercholesterolemia, and spontaneous progressive atherosclerotic lesions (Al-Mashhadi et al., 2013). Although

the duration of high-fat feeding required to elicit comparable phenotypes may vary among pig breeds, the D374Y-PCSK9 model consistently produces robust hyperlipidemia and lesion development (Yuan et al., 2018). Notably, targeted elevation of renal artery pressure in PCSK9-D374Y pigs has been shown to enhance LDL infiltration into the coronary artery intima, further accelerating CAS formation and offering novel insights into the hemodynamic modulation of atherogenesis (Al-Mashhadi et al., 2021).

Other methods

Several alternative approaches have been explored for inducing AS in animal models, including the intravascular administration of lipids or proinflammatory factors to induce localized vascular reactions and eventually AS. However, while these methods can initiate early-stage vascular changes, they cannot fully mimic the characteristics of advanced atherosclerotic plaques in humans and have therefore seen limited adoption in preclinical research (Buszman et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2018). Pharmacological induction strategies have also been investigated, specifically the co-administration of a high-fat diet with agents such as vitamin D3 and bovine serum albumin, which appears to enhance lesion development compared to dietary intervention alone (Lian et al., 2018). Nevertheless, these approaches have not yet been utilized for CAS modeling in larger animals.

Evaluation of AS models

Successful model establishment depends on comprehensive evaluation using hematological, imaging, and histopathological assessments. Hematological evaluation primarily involves serum lipid profiling to monitor changes in cholesterol metabolism. High-fat diet administration in pigs typically leads to elevated levels of TC, LDL cholesterol, and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol (Grinstead et al., 1994), the latter potentially reflecting a concurrent increase in baseline cholesterol induced by the high-fat diet (Miller et al., 2017). For anatomical and functional assessment of CAS, coronary angiography and intravascular ultrasound are the principal imaging modalities. These techniques allow real-time visualization of arterial morphology and enable quantification of the area of stenosis in the vascular lumen (Choy et al., 2015). Following euthanasia, the anterior descending coronary artery can be rapidly isolated for histological analysis by Oil Red O and hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) staining (Emini Veseli et al., 2017).

ESTABLISHMENT AND EVALUATION OF PORCINE MI AND I/R INJURY MODELS

MI represents one of the most severe forms of IHD, primarily resulting from thrombotic occlusion triggered by plaque rupture, erosion, or coronary vasospasm. At the cellular level, MI induces a cascade of pathological events, including a shift to anaerobic metabolism, rapid depletion of energy storage, loss of membrane integrity, disruption of ionic gradients, impaired contractility, and heightened susceptibility to arrhythmias (Gill, 1991). While reperfusion therapy remains the standard clinical treatment, its abrupt restoration of blood flow can lead to I/R injury, characterized by the accumulation of calcium ions and generation of free radicals (Algoet et al., 2023). As such, the development of effective rehabilitation strategies targeting both MI and I/R injury is a major focus in translational research utilizing porcine models.

Surgical induction of MI in pigs enables controlled simulation of human disease processes. Two principal model types are commonly used: permanent closure and I/R injury. These models differ based on whether coronary blood flow is restored following arterial blockage. Permanent occlusion models are used to replicate the pathophysiological conditions observed in patients who have not received coronary stenting due to contraindications or treatment delays. In contrast, I/R injury models simulate the pathophysiological alterations occurring in tissues of patients undergoing reperfusion therapy following the restoration of blood flow interruption (Lou et al., 2023; Patel et al., 2023). Both approaches enable the investigation of distinct mechanisms of myocardial injury and recovery and can be established using two widely accepted surgical techniques (Figure 3).

Coronary artery ligation

Thoracotomy-based coronary artery ligation remains a widely used technique for inducing MI in porcine models. The procedure involves administering anesthesia and endotracheal intubation, followed by assisted ventilation. After a thoracic incision, the chest wall is carefully dissected to locate and ligate the coronary artery. The specific ligation site may vary depending on the experimental objectives, with the left anterior descending branch and left circumflex branch commonly targeted in most studies (Avendaño et al., 2023; Liao et al., 2021). For I/R injury models, vascular recanalization is accomplished by releasing the silk thread after a designated duration of coronary artery ligation. Preoperative isolation of the artery and vein, along with preischemic conditioning, has been shown to enhance model reproducibility and survival rates (Zhou et al., 2023).

However, this method carries notable risks. Permanent ligation is associated with a high incidence of fatal arrhythmias, such as ventricular fibrillation and ventricular tachycardia, which may lead to collateral vessel growth and poor modeling efficacy (Einstein & Abdul-Hussein, 1995). In addition, different ischemia durations in I/R injury models can influence the incidence of malignant arrhythmias, underscoring the need to explore successful model establishment based on laboratory settings, operator expertise, and study objectives.

Despite being invasive and associated with an elevated risk of postoperative infection, thoracotomy enables direct assessment of myocardial morphology and coronary blood flow. Due to its technical accessibility, cost-effectiveness, and capacity for controlled infarct induction, coronary artery ligation remains a common technique for preclinical MI and I/R research in pigs.

Interventional surgery for coronary artery occlusion

Advances in interventional cardiology have facilitated the development of minimally invasive methods to induce MI in porcine models by occluding coronary arteries using autologous thrombi, gelatin sponges, or balloons (Jiang et al., 2023; Schüttler et al., 2022). These procedures mirror clinical interventional practices, whereby catheters are introduced through the right femoral artery or common carotid artery to occlude or recanalize the distal end of the heart. In gelatin sponge embolization, a gelatin matrix is delivered via a contrast catheter following coronary angiography to achieve permanent occlusion, typically used to establish a stable MI model without subsequent reperfusion (Sun et al., 2018). Conversely, balloon occlusion offers greater flexibility for I/R

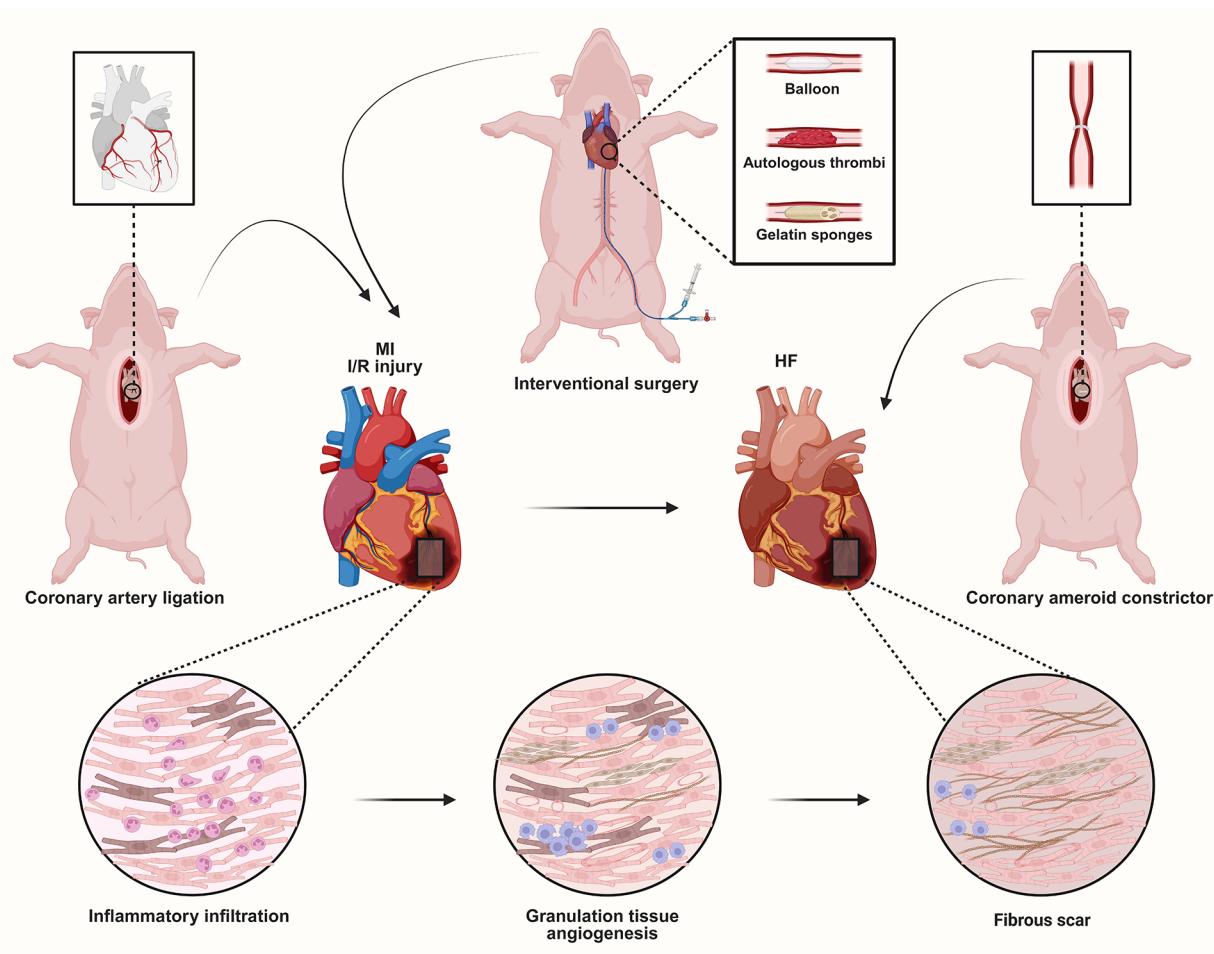


Figure 3 Establishment of porcine MI, I/R injury, and HF models

Permanent MI and I/R injury models can be established by coronary artery ligation via thoracotomy or interventional surgery to block the target coronary artery. Myocardial ischemia and hypoxia occur after coronary artery occlusion. Inflammatory cells rapidly infiltrate damaged myocardium to remove necrotic tissue. Granulation tissue subsequently forms, but excessive repair results in the progressive replacement of the myocardium by fibrotic tissue. As the disease progresses, the pumping function of the heart becomes severely impaired, leading to HF. An HF model can also be established by an ameroid constrictor, leading to chronic ischemia of coronary arteries. A hygroscopic ameroid constrictor ring is surgically placed around a coronary artery in pigs, where it gradually swells, causing chronic ischemia, myocardial dysfunction, and HF. Cardiac function is monitored via echocardiography and hemodynamic assessment, validating the model for ischemic HF research. Illustration was created by BioRender.com. HF: Heart failure; I/R: Ischemia-reperfusion; MI: Myocardial infarction.

models by allowing temporary vascular occlusion and subsequent reopening (Brenner et al., 2021; Silvis et al., 2022). Additionally, some studies have employed percutaneous deployment of permanent coils into the proximal marginal branches or circumflex artery branches to induce left lateral MI (Adeliño et al., 2022; Martínez-Falguera et al., 2021); however, this method has not yet been applied on a large scale.

Compared with traditional thoracotomy ligation, interventional approaches offer several advantages, including reduced invasiveness, absence of tracheal intubation, and lower rates of postoperative infection. These factors collectively contribute to shorter recovery times, higher procedural efficiency, and improved animal welfare (Sakaguchi et al., 2003). Moreover, fluoroscopic guidance enhances the precision of coronary artery targeting, enabling more consistent and reproducible occlusion.

Despite these advantages, interventional occlusion demands a high level of technical expertise in catheter manipulation and places stringent requirements on laboratory

facilities and imaging equipment. Procedural success and model stability are highly sensitive to variables such as balloon positioning, inflation pressure, and the hemodynamic state of the animal. Overinflation of the balloon may lead to serious complications such as coronary artery dissection, intima tearing, thrombosis, and exacerbated myocardial injury, underscoring the need for meticulous procedural control.

Evaluation of MI and I/R injury models

Successful model establishment depends on a comprehensive evaluation integrating physiological, imaging, hematological, hemodynamic, and pathological assessments (Chen et al., 2013; Sun et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2023). Intraoperative and early postoperative monitoring of physiological indicators is essential, with the appearance of ST-segment elevation on electrocardiography serving as a primary indicator of effective coronary artery ligation or occlusion. In addition, imaging techniques, such as echocardiography, are routinely employed to assess cardiac function after MI, revealing characteristic reductions in ventricular wall motion and altered septal and apical dynamics following infarction. Likewise,

cardiac magnetic resonance (CMR) imaging offers a more detailed evaluation, enabling early detection of myocardial edema and necrosis. In later stages, CMR provides accurate quantification of infarct size and scar tissue development, critical for assessing long-term outcomes.

Current hematological evaluation focuses on the detection of postoperative MI biomarkers, such as troponin, creatine kinase isoenzyme, and myoglobin (Duan et al., 2015), which peak shortly after infarction but decline over time, necessitating prompt sample collection. Histopathological analysis following euthanasia remains a gold standard for definitive assessment. Techniques such as 2,3,5-triphenyltetrazolium chloride (TTC) staining for infarct delineation, along with Sirius Red, Masson trichrome, and hematoxylin-eosin (H&E) staining, enable detailed characterization of infarct extent, fibrotic remodeling, and myocardial architecture (Yang et al., 2022b).

ESTABLISHMENT AND EVALUATION OF PORCINE HF MODELS

HF is a complex clinical syndrome and a common manifestation of advanced IHD, often occurring in the terminal stages of disease progression (Völz et al., 2021). Coronary artery disease is recognized as a major risk factor for the development of HF, and persistent myocardial ischemia frequently contributes to its development by inducing structural and functional alterations within the coronary circulation (Pagliaro et al., 2020). Based on cardiac function, HF is typically classified into two major phenotypes: HF with preserved ejection fraction (HFpEF) and HF with reduced ejection fraction (HFrEF).

The pathogenesis of HF involves progressive ventricular remodeling, driven by abnormal load conditions, neurohormonal activation, genetic predisposition, and concomitant comorbidities. These factors can alter the size, shape, and functional capacity of the failing heart. Remodeling patterns determine the rearrangement of cardiomyocytes, fibrocytes, and blood vessels, ultimately resulting in either ventricular wall stiffness or reduced contractility (Heusch et al., 2014). In HFrEF, ventricular enlargement, transformation in spherical volume, and wall thinning are characteristic structural changes. In contrast, HFpEF is characterized by centripetal remodeling, preservation of ejection fraction, normal or reduced ventricular volume, and increased LV mass-to-volume ratio due to wall thickening (Pagliaro et al., 2020). HFpEF models typically involve an increased afterload of the cardiovascular system, primarily by aortic coarctation, stent implantation, renal hypertension, or induction of mineralocorticoid-driven hypertension. The pathophysiological mechanisms underlying HF differ substantially between HFpEF and HFrEF and have been extensively reviewed (Miyagi et al., 2022).

Successful establishment of porcine HF models is critical not only for studying disease pathogenesis and improving diagnostic accuracy but also for evaluating the impact of emerging rehabilitation strategies on cardiac function and long-term prognosis following HF. Various approaches have been developed to induce HF, all fundamentally based on increasing pre- and postcardiac loads to impair ventricular function (Figure 3). Importantly, modeling approaches must be tailored according to the HF phenotype and specific scientific objectives (Miyagi et al., 2022; Qin et al., 2023). This section summarizes the methods used to establish porcine models of

HF secondary to IHD.

Coronary artery ligation and interventional surgery

Myocardial ischemia and subsequent LV remodeling are primary drivers of HF, making MI models a widely used platform for inducing HF over time. Following the establishment of MI, cardiac function can be regularly monitored via echocardiography, with a decline in ejection fraction typically observed. In porcine models, overt signs of HF generally emerge approximately 4 weeks after MI induction, although the exact timeline depends on multiple factors, including the severity of vessel occlusion, presence of coronary branch blockage, and overall health status of the animal. In addition, a clinically relevant and stable porcine model of decompensated acute heart failure (ADHF) has been developed via occlusion of the circumflex coronary artery 2 weeks after ligation of the left anterior descending coronary artery (Olivari et al., 2022).

Coronary ameroid constrictors

Ameroid constrictors, typically fabricated from stainless steel or other biocompatible materials, possess an internal structure designed to partially or completely obstruct coronary blood flow. Balloon-based constrictors have also been used to achieve similar effects (Lu et al., 2008). Following thoracotomy under anesthesia, the anterior branch of the left coronary artery, typically located between the left atrial appendage and pulmonary artery, is exposed. An ameroid constrictor is then placed around the artery, with the opening oriented toward the pericardium to facilitate uniform constriction (Xin et al., 2011). Over approximately 3 weeks, progressive occlusion of the coronary artery occurs, resulting in variable degrees of coronary stenosis. This technique offers precise control over the occlusion process, ensures high model stability, and reduces procedural risk compared with direct coronary ligation. By effectively diminishing the extent of myocardial necrosis, the ameroid constrictor model more accurately resembles the pathological features of chronic myocardial ischemia observed in patients with coronary heart disease (CHD).

Other methods

Induction of atrial fibrillation has also been utilized to model HF. Implantation of a single-chamber atrial pacemaker in pigs can lead to cellular hypertrophy and fibrosis of the atrium and ventricle. This model is beneficial for investigating the pathophysiological mechanisms of atrial fibrillation-associated HF, as well as evaluating therapeutic interventions and rehabilitation strategies (Bauer et al., 2004). In addition, HF can be induced through dietary manipulation; prolonged high-fat feeding promotes coronary atherosclerosis and myocardial dysfunction, closely recapitulating the natural progression of clinical IHD. However, diet-induced models are less controllable in terms of stenosis severity and time to HF onset and may introduce confounding systemic metabolic disorders with long-term feeding.

Evaluation of HF models

MI and HF models are closely interconnected, with HF frequently representing the terminal stage of MI. Consequently, the evaluation strategies for HF models largely parallel those used for MI models, relying primarily on imaging and histopathological analyses. Echocardiography remains a commonly used and valuable tool for assessing cardiac function, with ejection fraction serving as the principal clinical

and experimental indicator of HF severity. Advanced imaging modalities, such as CMR combined with dedicated image processing tools, allow for detailed visualization and quantification of myocardial perfusion defects, abnormal ventricular wall motion, and degree of myocardial fibrosis, providing a comprehensive evaluation of model success. In addition, histopathological assessments using wheat germ agglutinin (WGA), Sirius Red, and Masson's trichrome staining techniques enable the measurement of myocardial hypertrophy and severity of fibrosis (Li et al., 2022).

APPLICATIONS OF REHABILITATION IN PORCINE IHD MODELS
Rehabilitation in AS models

The primary clinical approach to managing coronary atherosclerotic heart disease is secondary prevention, with

pharmacological interventions targeting the regulation of blood pressure, glycemic control, and lipid profiles. In parallel, rehabilitation medicine emphasizes structured exercise training to enhance vascular function, cardiorespiratory performance, and overall endurance. The use of porcine models of AS in preclinical rehabilitation research offers an essential platform to refine rehabilitation protocols, ensuring both the safety and efficacy of exercise interventions. These models enable precise evaluation of rehabilitation indications, optimal intervention timing, mechanistic pathways, and therapeutic outcomes, thereby informing clinical translation. At present, most preclinical rehabilitation studies using porcine models have focused on the effects of exercise training in CHD (Figure 4A). Given that endothelial dysfunction is a significant pathological process in coronary atherosclerotic

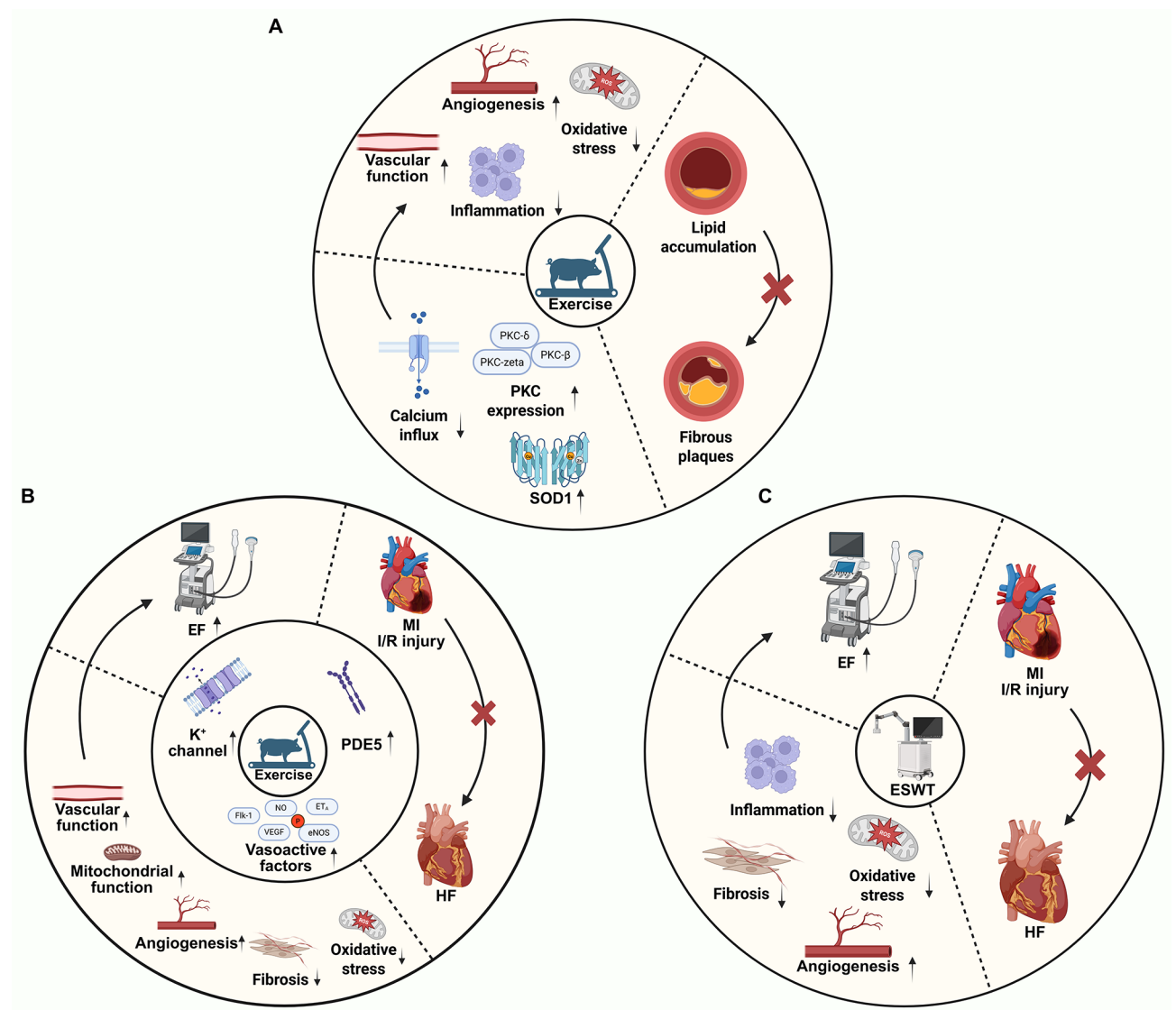


Figure 4 Pathophysiological changes in porcine IHD models after application of cardiac rehabilitation

A: Exercise training for porcine AS. Exercise training can regulate coronary vessels and improve inflammation and oxidative stress by regulating ion channels and expression of oxidative stress proteins, thus reducing formation of atherosclerotic plaques. B: Exercise training for porcine MI. Exercise training can regulate coronary artery blood vessels, improve inflammation and oxidative stress, reduce mitochondrial dysfunction, promote angiogenesis, and reduce fibrosis by regulating expression of ion channels and vasoactive factors to improve cardiac function and delay disease progression. C: ESWT for porcine MI. ESWT can improve cardiac function after MI by reducing inflammation, promoting angiogenesis, improving fibrosis, and reducing oxidative stress. Therapeutic mechanisms are summarized from studies based on porcine IHD models and do not cover all therapeutic mechanisms of rehabilitation modalities. Illustration was created by BioRender.com. AS: Atherosclerosis; EF: Ejection fraction; ESWT: Extracorporeal shock wave therapy; HF: Heart failure; IHD: Ischemic heart disease; I/R: Ischemia-reperfusion; MI: Myocardial infarction.

heart disease, physical training has been shown to ameliorate this impairment and facilitate cardiac recovery (Table 1).

Extensive evidence supports the role of exercise training in preventing coronary artery dysfunction (Elagizi et al., 2020; Richardson et al., 2009). In a seminal study, Henderson et al. (2004) showed that a high-fat, high-cholesterol diet significantly impaired endothelium-dependent relaxation in Yucatan miniature pigs during early IHD progression, and that exercise training mitigated or reversed these deleterious effects. However, subsequent research has indicated that the protective impact of exercise on coronary smooth muscle function can be attenuated by a concurrent high-fat diet (Bender et al., 2016; Yang et al., 2007). These findings suggest that exercise training and rational diet control should be regarded as equally important interventions and highlight the need for further research on the interplay between exercise intensity and diet composition to optimize clinical exercise prescriptions for CHD patients.

Porcine AS models also offer critical insights into the molecular mechanisms underlying exercise-mediated vascular protection. Exercise training has been shown to reduce calcium influx linked to CAS (Edwards et al., 2010) and enhance the expression of antioxidant proteins within the coronary vasculature. Notably, although exercise does not induce the transformation of coronary vascular cells from a proatherosclerotic to antiatherosclerotic state, it up-regulates critical antioxidant defenses, such as superoxide dismutase 1 (SOD1), thereby counteracting the oxidative stress induced by hypercholesterolemia (Arce-Esquivel et al., 2012; Simmons et al., 2014). Interestingly, the efficacy of exercise in combating coronary atherosclerotic heart disease may exhibit

sex-specific differences due to distinct underlying mechanisms. For instance, exercise induces PKC- β , PKC- δ , and PKC-zeta protein levels in the right coronary artery of male pigs fed a high-fat diet but only increases PKC- δ protein levels in female pigs (Korzick et al., 2005).

Despite its broad benefits, exercise training may not uniformly ameliorate all forms of coronary pathology. In pigs with familial hypercholesterolemia, exercise training attenuates the maximum systolic response of the left circumflex branch to the potent endogenous contractile agent endothelin-1 (ET-1) (Bunker & Laughlin, 2010). However, endurance exercise training has been shown to fail at preventing CAS in patients with familial hypercholesterolemia, providing novel insights into the rehabilitation of patients with genetically related cardiovascular dysfunction (Tharp et al., 2019).

Rehabilitation in MI, I/R injury, and HF models

Porcine models of MI, I/R injury, and HF are indispensable platforms for rehabilitation research, particularly for evaluating the therapeutic effects of exercise and physical therapies in IHD. These models also enable the assessment of specific pharmacological interventions during rehabilitation, offering valuable insights into the complex interplay between exercise, medication use, and cardiovascular recovery.

Exercise: Following MI, LVEF declines, initiating pathological remodeling that progresses if untreated. Exercise training is widely employed in rehabilitation therapy, with numerous studies utilizing porcine MI, I/R injury, and HF models to explore its effectiveness and associated mechanisms (Table 2). These studies provide compelling evidence for the

Table 1 Applications of porcine high-fat diet-induced AS models in exercise training

Exercise prescription	Model (AS)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
Treadmill running 2.5–8 mph 5 days/week×16 weeks	High-fat diet	Prevents or reverses effects of a high-fat, high-cholesterol diet on endothelium-dependent dilation of coronary arteries.	Changes in eNOS protein content are not enough to exert physiological effects.	Henderson et al., 2004
Treadmill running 2–5 mph 5 days/week×16 weeks	High-fat diet	Increases PKC- β , PKC- δ , and PKC-zeta protein levels in male pigs; Increases PKC- δ protein levels in female pigs.	Multiple factors such as sex and species can lead to different results.	Korzick et al., 2005
Treadmill running 2–5 mph 5 days/week×16–20 weeks	High-fat diet	High-fat diet counteracts beneficial effects of exercise on coronary smooth muscle.	Sex differences in HF differentially place males at risk.	Yang et al., 2007
Treadmill running 75% of maximal heart rate 4 days/week×14 weeks	High-fat diet	Prevents coronary artery dysfunction.	Exact mechanisms by which diabetic dyslipidemia and exercise alter protein association with LDL are not yet understood.	Richardson et al., 2009
Treadmill running 4–8 mph 5 days/week×16–20 weeks	High-fat diet	Reduces maximum contractile response of left circumflex to endogenous contractile agent ET-1.	Exact mechanism by which exercise training modifies epicardial adipose tissue is not clear.	Bunker & Laughlin, 2010
Treadmill running 2.2–4.8 mph×7–8 weeks	High-fat diet	Reduces storage Ca ²⁺ entry associated with coronary AS	Benefit of exercise on skeletal muscle metabolism not seen in Ossabaw miniature swine.	Edwards et al., 2010
Treadmill running 4–7 mph 5 days/week×16–20 week,	High-fat diet	Increases antioxidant protein in coronary arteries.	Results do not support exercise signaling expression of anti-atherogenic endothelial cell phenotype in coronary conduit arteries and arterioles in this model of early-stage CAD.	Arce-Esquivel et al., 2012
Treadmill running 2–7 mph 5 days/week×16–20 week	High-fat diet	Eliminates adverse effect of hypercholesterolemia on SOD1 expression in thoracic veins.	Initial atherogenic arterial endothelial cell phenotype is lacking.	Simmons et al., 2014
Treadmill 1–3 mph	High-fat diet	Severe familial hypercholesterolemia impairs regulation of coronary blood flow and oxygen supply during exercise.	Relationship between plaque burden and coronary arteriovenous H ⁺ concentration gradient is not viewed as cause-and-effect.	Bender et al., 2016
Treadmill running 5 days/week×10 week	High-fat diet	Cannot limit coronary AS in pigs with familial hypercholesterolemia.	Influences of testosterone in males and whether similar effects are observed in females is unknown.	Tharp et al., 2019

AS: Atherosclerosis; CAD: Coronary artery disease; HF: Heart failure; LDL: Low-density lipoprotein; mph: Miles per hour.

Table 2 Applications of porcine MI, I/R injury, and HF models in rehabilitation treatment

Rehabilitation treatment	Treatment prescription	Model	Finding	Limitation	Reference	
Exercise training	Treadmill 4-stage exercise protocol (1, 2, 3, and 4 km/h)	MI	Coronary artery ligation	Positive inotropic effect of Ca ²⁺ sensitizer EMD 57033 did not decrease during exercise post-MI.	Exercise in presence of EMD 57033 results in slightly lower heart rates, whereas pimobendan results in higher heart rates compared to control exercise. Lack of overt anaerobic metabolism even during heavy exercise suggests that myocardial perfusion abnormalities within surviving myocardium do not contribute to cardiac dysfunction in the first few weeks after infarction.	Duncker et al., 2001
	Treadmill 1–4 km/h	MI	Coronary artery ligation	Abnormal perfusion during exercise does not lead to early LV dysfunction post-MI.	Perturbations in calcium homeostasis of endothelial cells may contribute to selective impairment of ATP-induced vasodilation in swine with MI.	Haitsma et al., 2001
	Treadmill 1–4 km/h	MI	Coronary artery ligation	Effect of NO derived from endothelial NO synthase on regulation of vascular tension during exercise is maintained. Increases sympathetic drive and decreased myocardial and coronary beta-adrenergic reactivity during exercise.	Relatively young age of pigs may influence responses of autonomic control mechanisms to MI and subsequent left ventricle remodeling.	Haitsma et al., 2002
	Treadmill 1–4 km/h	MI	Coronary artery ligation	During exercise, myocardial O ₂ supply and consumption of remodeled muscle remain closely matched.	Net contribution of adenosine to regulation of coronary resistance vessel tone is not increased in remodeled myocardium.	Duncker et al., 2005
	Treadmill 1–4 km/h	MI	Coronary artery ligation			Merkus et al., 2005
	Treadmill 0–4 km/h	MI	Coronary artery ligation	Improves pulmonary hypertension after MI.	Increased sensitivity of pulmonary vasculature to exercise as observed in swine model cannot be explained by loss of NO-mediated inhibition of exercise-induced vasoconstriction.	Merkus et al., 2007
	–	MI	Coronary artery ligation	Retention of cMyBP-C phosphorylation helps maintain appropriate dilation during exercise.	Absence of a difference in baseline phosphorylation of PKA target proteins between MI and sham hearts may be related to differences in catecholamine levels.	Boontje et al., 2011
	Treadmill running 1–4 km/h×1–3 weeks	MI	Coronary artery ligation	Nw-nitro-L-arginine enhances vasodilatory effect of tezosentan during exercise in MI pigs.	Specifically designed experiments are needed to discern changes in action of individual COX end products after MI.	de Beer et al., 2011
	Treadmill running heart rates: 210–220 beats/min 30–50 min/day×24–26 days	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Improves myocardial function and coronary collateral reserve of collateral-dependent myocardium.	Coronary collateral circulation is less developed in sedentary pigs than in exercised pigs before protocols commence.	Roth et al., 1990
	Treadmill running 2.5–6 mph 5 days/week×16 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Improves endothelium-mediated diastole of isolated arteries after coronary artery occlusion.	Differences in effects of exercise training in arteries isolated from coronary-occluded hearts and those from normal nonoccluded hearts are unclear.	Griffin et al., 1999
	Treadmill running 3–5 mph×16 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Restores adenosine-induced relaxation in chronic occluded distal coronary arteries.	Reason for training-enhanced sensitivity to adenosine is unknown.	Heaps et al., 2000b
	Treadmill running 2.5–6 mph×16 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Enhances bradykinin-mediated relaxation of left circumflex arteriole, influences eNOS mRNA expression, and increases NO.	Individual contributions of infarction are unknown.	Griffin et al., 2001
	Treadmill running 3–5 mph×16 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Differences in t(1/2) myoplasmic free Ca ²⁺ accumulation between left circumflex and left anterior descending cells cannot be prevented by exercise.	Cause of decreased sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca ²⁺ uptake is unknown.	Heaps et al., 2001
	Treadmill running 3–6 mph×16 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Cannot alter sarcoplasmic reticulum Ca ²⁺ offloading in right coronary cells.	Interpretation does not exclude possibility that differences in plasmalemmal Ca ²⁺ influx and other Ca-handling mechanisms may be involved.	Jones et al., 2001
	Treadmill running 3–5 mph 5 days/week×12 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Increases basal tension of distal arterioles in coronary artery occlusion.	Intricate relationships of numerous mechanisms that control coronary vasomotor tone make <i>in vivo</i> measures difficult to interpret.	Heaps et al., 2006
	Treadmill running 2–6 mph 5 days/week×12 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Up-regulates HSP70 and antioxidant enzymes in porcine skeletal muscle.	Mechanisms underlying skeletal muscle dysfunction with heart disease and heart failure remain poorly understood.	Lawler et al., 2006

Continued

						Continued
Rehabilitation treatment	Treatment prescription	Model	Finding		Limitation	Reference
	Treadmill running 2–6 mph 5 days/week×16 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Exercise training and coronary artery occlusion independently stimulate myocardial hypertrophy and induce different gene expression patterns.	Swine of both sexes are used but not evenly balanced across groups.	Boluyt et al., 2007
	Treadmill running 2–6 mph 5 days/week×12 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	H ₂ O ₂ , in addition to NO, contributes significantly to exercise-induced restoration of endothelium-dependent dilation of coronary arterioles distal to occlusion.	Inability to quantify produced H ₂ O ₂ due to current technology limitations, yet allows possible quantitative measurement of H ₂ O ₂ in intact arteriolar wall.	Thengchaisri et al., 2007
	Treadmill running 2–6 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Neuropilin-1 plays an important role in exercise-enhanced collateral-dependent coronary vasodilation.	Other vasodilatory pathways, such as endothelial-derived hyperpolarization factors, may also contribute to vasodilatation.	Fogarty et al., 2009
	Treadmill running 3–5 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Increases total eNOS and eNOS phosphorylation levels in collateral-dependent arteries.	Temperature of measuring endothelial cell free Ca ²⁺ using fura 2 is different from previous studies.	Zhou et al., 2010
	Treadmill running 3–5 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Ca ²⁺ sensitization to cardiac muscle fibrin helps exercise training enhance myocardial function.	Whether findings contribute to increased force generation observed in the model remains undetermined.	Sarin et al., 2011
	Treadmill running 2–5 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Superoxide/H ₂ O ₂ pathway helps exercise training enhance endothelium-mediated branch-dependent coronary artery dilation.	Specificity of diethyldithiocarbamate is equivocal.	Xie et al., 2012
	Treadmill running 2–6 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Enhances diastolic effects of nitric oxide, prostaglandin, and large conductance Ca ²⁺ -dependent K ⁺ channels on nonocclusive and collateral dependent arteries.	Limitations exist regarding contribution of these molecules to overall relaxation response.	Deer & Heaps, 2013
	Treadmill running 4–6 mph 5 days/week×16 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Induces adaptation of sustained endothelium-dependent coronary artery relaxation mediators.	Role of prostanoids is limited to experiments of sustained bradykinin-mediated relaxation in arteries of nonoccluded pigs.	Heaps et al., 2014
	Treadmill running 4–6 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Enhances function of ET _A .	Acute coronary injury models produce adaptations that will potentially change over time.	Robles & Heaps, 2015
	Treadmill running 2–6 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Up-regulates coronary PDE5.	Insufficient samples to measure proteins in coronary arterioles from the four groups.	Zheng et al., 2015
	Treadmill running 3–5 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Enhances KCL-mediated contractility and Ca ²⁺ sensitization of porcine collateral-dependent coronary arteries.	Contribution of endothelium adaptations to increased KCl-induced contraction cannot be ruled out.	Heaps et al., 2020
	Treadmill running 3–5 mph 5 days/week×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Enhances K ⁺ channel activation.	Inherent variability in collateral development after total occlusion may contribute to variability in experimental responses.	Johnson et al., 2023
	Treadmill running 2–5 mph×14 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Increases superoxide and NOX4.	Did not identify source of superoxide.	Sytha et al., 2023
	Treadmill running 3–5 mph 5 days/week×8 weeks	HF	Balloon constrictor	Increases VEGF and Flk-1.	Association between exercise intensity and coronary collateral formation remains controversial.	Lu et al., 2008
ESWT	0.09 mJ/mm ² , 200 shots/spot×9 spots 3 times in the first week.	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Improves myocardial dysfunction.	Effect of SW on signal transduction after receptor-ligand interaction remains to be clarified.	Nishida et al., 2004
	0.09 mJ/mm ² , 200 shots/spot×27 spots	MI	Coronary artery ligation	Improves LV remodeling.	Whether SW therapy is more effective at suppressing LV remodeling after MI when combined with other drugs is unknown.	Uwatoku et al., 2007
	0.09 mJ/mm ² , 200 shots/spot×27 spots	I/R injury	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves LV remodeling after I/R injury.	Effects of SW therapy on each myocardial tissue component remain to be clarified.	Ito et al., 2010

						Continued
Rehabilitation treatment	Treatment prescription	Model	Finding	Limitation		Reference
	0.09 mJ/mm ² , 200 shots/spot×9 or 27 spots 3 times in the first week	MI	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Induces angiogenesis, up-regulates angiogenesis factor expression, and improves reconstruction of microvascular circulation.	Sample size of treatment group is small.	Tao et al., 2011
	0.09 mJ/mm ² , 200 shots/spot×9 spots 3 times in the first week	MI	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves myocardial fibrosis by reducing number of fibroblasts.	Whether SW therapy inhibits myocardial fibrosis in infarcted myocardium remains to be examined.	Lei et al., 2013
Low-intensity pulsed ultrasound therapy	Frequency: 1.875 MHz Pulse repetition frequency: 7.10 kHz Cycles: 1, 16, 32, 48, and 64 Strength: 151–193 mW/cm ² ×3 times Ho:YAG laser: 2 J/pulse×10 pulses×6 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Cardiac function is significantly improved in LIPUS group.	Optimal number of therapies unclear.	Hanawa et al., 2014
Laser therapy	CO ₂ laser: 20 J/pulse×6 weeks	HF	Ameroid constrictor	Improves ischemic myocardial function.	Histological findings not explored.	Estvold et al., 2010
	Ga-Al-As diode laser: 1 J/cm ² ×100 s	MI	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves cardiac function.	Number of animals used is not known; Further mechanistic exploration is lacking.	Blatt et al., 2016

ESWT: Extracorporeal shock wave therapy; HF: Heart failure; I/R: Ischemia-reperfusion; LV: Left ventricle; MI: Myocardial infarction; mph: Miles per hour; SW: Shock wave.

cardioprotective effects of exercise, elucidating the underlying mechanisms of cardiovascular improvement and establishing a scientific basis for the development of more effective rehabilitation strategies (Figure 4B). Moreover, as clinical IHD patients often require multiple medications, it is essential to understand how exercise influences drug pharmacodynamics and pharmacokinetics, prompting studies in animal models to evaluate these interactions and guide safer, more effective medication use during rehabilitation.

Experimental studies in MI pigs have revealed extensive cardiovascular benefits of exercise training. Exercise reinstates adenosine-induced relaxation and enhances basal tension regulation in distal coronary arterioles, particularly in patients with chronic distal coronary artery occlusion (Heaps et al., 2006, 2000b). Previous studies have shown that pigs exhibit LV dysfunction and neurohumoral activation within the first several weeks after infarction, both of which are modulated by exercise (Haitsma et al., 2001). Long-term exercise enhances myocardial function and improves coronary collateral reserve of the collateral-dependent myocardium (Roth et al., 1990). Exercise also restores the dynamic balance between myocardial oxygen supply and consumption during stress, mediated by enhanced K_{ATP}^{+} -channel-dependent coronary vasodilation (Merkus et al., 2005). Furthermore, impaired H_2O_2 -mediated vasodilation in porcine collateral-dependent vessels can be rescued through exercise-induced augmentation of K^{+} channel activity (Johnson et al., 2023).

Exercise also induces coronary vasodilation via multiple vasodilators, including nitric oxide and endothelium-derived hyperpolarization factors (Griffin et al., 1999, 2001; Haitsma et al., 2002). It also modulates redox signaling pathways by promoting the up-regulation of coronary PDE5, superoxide production, and NOX4 activity, thereby refining endothelium-dependent vasodilation of porcine coronary arteries (Sytha

et al., 2023; Zheng et al., 2015). Notably, exercise reverses the down-regulation of HSP70 and antioxidant enzymes observed in porcine skeletal muscle following chronic coronary artery occlusion (Lawler et al., 2006) and stimulates coronary collateral formation by up-regulating the expression of angiogenic factors such as VEGF and Flk-1 (Lu et al., 2008).

Beyond vascular adaptations, exercise training modulates cardiac function and pathological remodeling in porcine models of MI. Both exercise and coronary artery occlusion independently promote myocardial hypertrophy and distinct gene expression patterns (Boluyt et al., 2007). Autonomic dysfunction is a common consequence of MI in pigs, characterized by marked suppression of parasympathetic activity, with exercise shown to increase sympathetic drive and reduce myocardial and coronary β -adrenergic reactivity (Duncker et al., 2005). Additionally, Boontje et al. (2011) demonstrated that the preservation of myofilament reactivity following MI is dependent on sustained cMyBP-C phosphorylation, mediated by increased CaMKII- δ C activity, which supports the maintenance of diastolic performance during exercise (Boontje et al., 2011).

Understanding how exercise affects the metabolism and distribution of drugs is critical for clinical rehabilitation. For example, in MI pigs, Nw-nitro-L-arginine enhances the vasodilatory action of tezosentan during exercise, while prostaglandins inhibit endothelin-induced coronary vasoconstriction post-MI (de Beer et al., 2011). Cardiomyocyte fibrin sensitization to Ca^{2+} enhances myocardial function during exercise training (Sarin et al., 2011). Furthermore, the positive inotropic effect of the Ca^{2+} sensitizer EMD 57033 is preserved in exercised MI pigs, whereas the efficacy of the Ca^{2+} sensitizer/phosphodiester III inhibitor pimobendan is diminished (Duncker et al., 2001). In addition, Ca^{2+} sensitization enhances the contractile response of collateral-dependent coronary arteries to KCl (Heaps et al., 2020),

highlighting the therapeutic potential of calcium modulators in the context of exercise rehabilitation. Furthermore, Haitsma et al. (2002) reported that agonist-induced vasodilation is weakened early after MI, but exercise maintains endothelial nitric oxide synthase-mediated regulation of vascular tone.

Exercise protocol:: In most rehabilitation studies, exercise training protocols were structured around sessions performed 5 days per week, typically over a period of 8 to 16 weeks. Each session ranged from 30 to 60 min, with exercise intensity progressively adjusted based on individual animal tolerance to ensure a tailored training regimen. Variations in running speed and session duration accommodated differences in cardiovascular fitness among animals, allowing for gradual workload progression. Protocols were generally divided into four stages: warm-up, sprint, endurance run, and cool-down. The warm-up stage lasted approximately 5 min at an intensity of 2–3 mph (miles per hour). The sprint stage involved running at 5–6 mph for 10–20 min. The endurance stage consisted of running at 2–5 mph for 30–60 min. The session concluded with a cool-down stage, mirroring the warm-up stage at 2–3 mph for an additional 5 min. Some studies also used heart rate as a measure of exercise intensity. For instance, Roth et al. (1990) employed target heart rates of 210–220 beats per minute in their protocol, describing a typical session as follows: “A 5-minute warm-up at 3 km/hr on a 5% incline, followed by 25–45 minutes of running at the target heart rate of 210–220 beats/min. Heart rates were monitored daily via electrocardiogram” (Roth et al., 1990). In this protocol, the treadmill incline was maintained at 0% throughout the study. Animals in the exercise group participated in a progressive treadmill running program for several weeks, while those in the sedentary group remained inactive, confined to their cages during the same period (Heaps et al., 2000a; Muller et al., 1994; Oltman et al., 1995; Parker et al., 1994).

Extracorporeal shock wave therapy (ESWT):: Cardiac shock wave therapy has emerged as a promising non-invasive technology for the treatment of cardiovascular diseases, particularly IHD (Myojo et al., 2017; Shkolnik et al., 2018). Cardiac shock wave therapy, sharing fundamental principles of ESWT, harnesses mechanical energy to stimulate tissue repair and regeneration. When applied during reperfusion following MI, ESWT provides immediate cardioprotection, markedly attenuating acute I/R injury and significantly improving LVEF (Petrusca et al., 2023). Initially developed for musculoskeletal and urological applications in rehabilitation medicine, ESWT has demonstrated notable efficacy in cardiac contexts as well (Table 2). The therapeutic effects of ESWT are mediated through multiple biological pathways, including inhibition of cardiomyocyte apoptosis, attenuation of myocardial inflammation, improvement in myocardial fibrosis, reduction of mitochondrial damage and oxidative stress, regulation of cardiomyocyte autophagy, and promotion of endothelial cell angiogenesis, collectively ameliorating myocardial ischemia (Figure 4C).

Preclinical studies using porcine models have provided strong evidence supporting the cardiac benefits of ESWT. Nishida et al. (2004) reported that ESWT significantly improved myocardial dysfunction in a porcine heart failure model induced by coronary ameroid constriction. Subsequent investigations confirmed that ESWT can effectively treat LV remodeling after acute MI caused by thoracotomy ligation (Uwatoku et al., 2007). In acute porcine MI models established by interventional occlusion of the coronary artery, ESWT

induced angiogenesis, up-regulated angiogenic factor expression, improved microvascular circulation reconstruction in ischemic myocardia, and reduced myocardial fibrosis by decreasing the number of fibrocytes (Lei et al., 2013; Tao et al., 2011).

Most protocols have employed low-energy ESW, utilizing an energy flux density of 0.09 mJ/mm²—approximately 10% that used in lithotripsy—and delivering 200 shocks per spot across 27 treatment spots. Therapy was typically administered three times during the first week following model establishment (Ito et al., 2010; Lei et al., 2013; Nishida et al., 2004; Tao et al., 2011; Uwatoku et al., 2007). Collectively, these findings underscore the potential of ESWT as a viable therapeutic approach for promoting myocardial repair and mitigating ischemic injury in pigs, offering a strong foundation for clinical translation

Other physical therapy modalities:: Low-intensity pulsed ultrasound therapy has also emerged as a novel and non-invasive approach for the treatment of IHD. Hanawa et al. (2014) established a porcine HF model via ameroid coarctation and reported that low-intensity pulsed ultrasound therapy normalized myocardial function, increased capillary density in ischemic areas, and increased VEGF, eNOS, and bFGF protein levels in myocardial ischemia. In addition, laser therapy has been reported to improve myocardial function in ischemic territories, while epicardial shock wave therapy has been associated with significant improvements in global ventricular performance in porcine IHD models (Blatt et al., 2016; Estvold et al., 2010; Holfeld et al., 2016). Collectively, these findings provide a robust preclinical foundation supporting the clinical translation of emerging physical therapy modalities for the management of IHD (Table 2).

DEVELOPMENT OF NEW TECHNIQUES BASED ON PORCINE IHD MODELS

The rapid development of novel technologies, such as gene therapy, cell-based therapy, and nanomaterials, has significantly expanded the application scope of porcine IHD models, providing new avenues for the functional myocardial recovery and precision treatment of cardiovascular conditions. Future therapeutic paradigms are expected to integrate these innovative approaches with various rehabilitation protocols to establish comprehensive, multimodal strategies for IHD management. On this basis, recent progress in the development and clinical application of porcine IHD models is summarized below.

Development of new techniques based on porcine AS models

In recent years, porcine AS models have served as pivotal platforms for exploring experimental therapeutics, including novel pharmaceuticals, nanotechnology-based interventions, gene therapies, and cytokine-targeted treatments (Table 3). In terms of pharmacological development, porcine AS models have enabled the screening and validation of candidate compounds for their potential therapeutic effects on atherosclerosis and plaque formation and stabilization in the human pathological environment. For instance, corilagin has been reported to reduce vascular injury, lipid plaques, and foam cells (Tao et al., 2021). In addition, these models can facilitate the assessment of commonly used clinical drugs to expand potential indications. Notably, long-term application of vitamin D has been found to improve AS (Rai & Agrawal,

Table 3 New techniques based on porcine AS models

Technique	Treatment prescription	Model (AS)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
Nanomaterial anti-LDL SLN	–	High-fat diet	Prevents binding of LDL to scavenger receptors on macrophages present in plaques.	Distribution of SLN <i>in vivo</i> is unclear.	du Toit et al., 2022
	SWNT-SHP1i nanotherapy 400 nmol/L	LDLR-KO+High-fat diet	Reduces vascular inflammation.	Late-stage randomized studies are needed to confirm efficacy.	Bamezai et al., 2024
Gene therapy ASGR1 KO	–	High-fat diet	Lowers non-HDL-C levels; Fewer atherosclerotic lesions.	Targeted therapy is needed in future exploration.	Xie et al., 2021
Cytokine therapy	IGF-1 50 µg/kg s.c. Q12 h×6 months	High-fat diet	Reduces coronary plaque burden and promotes plaque stability.	Small sample size; Safety of treatment needs to be further explored.	Sukhanov et al., 2023
Drug therapy	Pemafibrate (K-877) 1 mg/kg p.o. QD×8 weeks	LDLR-KO+Balloon compression+High-fat diet	Inhibits inflammatory responses.	Small sample sizes; Differences in other fibrates not compared.	Konishi et al., 2020
	Vitamin D 1 500 or 3 000 IU/D p.o. QD×6 months	Balloon compression+High-fat diet	Reduces inflammation, neointimal formation, and restenosis.	Small sample sizes; Acute disease conditions not simulated.	Rai & Agrawal, 2021
	Corilagin 1 mL/kg i.p. QD×12 weeks	Balloon compression+High-fat diet	Reduces degree of vascular injury and number of lipid plaques and foam cells.	Relationship between plaque stability and acute cardiovascular events such as acute coronary syndrome needs to be explored.	Tao et al., 2021
	Atorvastatin 20 mg p.o. QD×3 months+40 mg p.o. QD×3 months	High-fat diet	Diet quality modulates response of colonic mucosa to atorvastatin treatment but is not associated with development of AS.	High sampling heterogeneity may have resulted in contamination of RNA from neurons and myocytes.	Ye et al., 2021
	GXNT 162 mg/kg p.o. QD×12 weeks	High-fat diet	Improves CAS.	Specific mechanism of action needs to be further studied.	Yang et al., 2022a
	FTZ 1.2 g/kg p.o. QD×22 weeks	Balloon compression+High-fat diet	Improves CAS by regulating inflammation, reducing apoptosis, and inhibiting EndMT.	Active ingredient of the drug has not been identified.	Wang et al., 2022

SLN: Solid lipid nanoparticle; AS: Atherosclerosis; CAS: Coronary atherosclerosis; EndMT: Endothelial to mesenchymal transition; FTZ: Fufang-Zhenzhu-Tiaozhi capsule; GXNT: Guanxinling tablet; LDL: Low-density lipoprotein; SHP1i: Inhibitor of SHP-1; SWNT: Single-walled carbon nanotubes. –: Not available.

2021). Furthermore, various bioactive components derived from traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) have also been developed, demonstrating promising anti-atherosclerotic effects and translational potential (Wang et al., 2022; Yang et al., 2022a).

Gene therapy has also become a powerful tool for elucidating the genetic underpinnings of AS and developing targeted interventions. Porcine models offer a high-fidelity platform for studying specific genes involved in the development of atherosclerosis and for developing gene-specific therapies. Notably, Xie et al. (2021) reported that knockout of ASGR1 significantly reduced atherosclerotic lesion formation, underscoring the potential of genome-editing strategies for disease modification. The application of nanotechnology represents another major frontier. Advanced nanocarrier systems designed for targeted drug delivery and controlled release have demonstrated the potential to enhance therapeutic efficacy while minimizing systemic toxicity (Bamezai et al., 2024; du Toit et al., 2022). The development of these new technologies based on porcine AS models not only promotes cardiovascular disease treatment but also patient recovery.

Development of new techniques based on porcine MI and I/R injury models

The advancement of porcine MI and I/R injury models has led to significant progress in IHD research, especially in reducing myocardial injury and improving cardiac function (Tables 4, 5). First, nanomaterials have rapidly emerged as powerful tools in the management of myocardial injury. In porcine I/R injury

models, nanoparticles (NPs) and nanofibers have demonstrated substantial potential by enabling the targeted delivery of therapeutic agents directly to ischemic myocardial tissue. Their small size, high surface area, and tunable surface chemistry facilitate precise drug delivery, minimize off-target effects, and improve therapeutic efficacy (Ramirez-Carracedo et al., 2022). Beyond conventional delivery, combining nanomaterials with physical factors has been shown to improve targeting efficiency (Hong et al., 2025). For instance, Jiang et al. (2023) developed an innovative strategy integrating DDFP@NPs with low-intensity focused ultrasound (LIFU) radiation, achieving efficient coronary thrombolysis and improved outcomes in MI pigs.

Important breakthroughs have also been made in the application of cell therapy, cytokine therapy, extracellular vesicle (EV) therapy, and exosome therapy in porcine MI and I/R injury models. Stem cell transplantation has been shown to exert reparative effects through paracrine signaling and cell differentiation, contributing to myocardial regeneration. Moreover, EVs and exosomes, acting as natural carriers of bioactive molecules such as miRNAs, proteins, and other therapeutic substances, have shown potent cardioprotective effects (Li et al., 2023; Wei et al., 2025). Studies have demonstrated that exosome therapy significantly reduces infarct size and improves cardiac function, providing a strong foundation for clinical translation (Li et al., 2024).

Adjunctive modalities such as pharmacological therapy, therapeutic hypothermia, ischemic preconditioning (IPC), and mechanical circulatory support devices have further enriched the therapeutic landscape. Pharmacological interventions

Table 4 New techniques based on porcine MI models

Technique		Treatment prescription	Model (MI)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
Nanomaterial	HA rTIMP-3 hydrogel	–	Coronary artery ligation	Reduces infarct size.	Small sample size and long-term efficacy is unknown.	Thorn et al., 2023
	LIFU+DDFP@ NPs	LIFU: Frequency of 1 MHz, power of 6 W, irradiation duration of 20 min, duty cycle of 50% for pulse focused ultrasound mode.	Interventional surgery (autologous blood clots)	Reduces infarct size and improves coronary microcirculation.	Efficacy of targeting other infarctions is unknown.	Jiang et al., 2023
Hydrogel	Hydrogel delivery –	–	Coronary artery ligation	Improves cardiac function.	Long-term efficacy is unknown.	Avendaño et al., 2023
	Micro-channeled hydrogel suture	–	Coronary artery ligation	Inhibits inflammation, promotes microvascular remodeling.	Small sample size.	Xue et al., 2024
	Highly ROS-eliminating hydrogel	100 µL×9 sites i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Improves cardiac function and reduces infarct size and cardiac fibrosis.	Long-term efficacy is unknown.	Wang et al., 2025
Cardiac patch	artCP	Patches are sutured to ischemic tissue	Coronary artery ligation	Reduces scar formation, promotes angiogenesis, improves cardiac function.	Small sample size and long-term efficacy is unknown.	Huang et al., 2020
	BMV-CSC patch	Epicardial suturing of BMV-CSC	Coronary artery ligation	Improves cardiac function, reduces scar area, increases viable myocardial tissue, promotes neovascularization, and inhibits inflammatory responses.	Fabrication of complex cardiac patches is relatively cumbersome.	Su et al., 2020
	ECM patch	–	Coronary artery ligation	Inhibits ECM-induced foreign body inflammatory reactivity.	Small sample size.	Nummi et al., 2022
	Patches incorporating cardiomyocytes	Patches are attached to heart surface using fibrin glue	Coronary artery ligation	Improves cardiac function and reduces infarct area.	Small sample size and potential for clinical translation needs to be further explored.	Wang et al., 2021a
Gene therapy	Adenoviral VEGF-D ^{ANAC} gene transfer	200 µL×10 times i.c.	Interventional surgery (permanent coil)	Induces angiogenesis, increases perfusion, improves cardiac function, and increases growth of functional lymphatic networks.	Further studies are needed to optimize beneficial effects, evaluate long-term safety, and identify patient groups that may benefit from treatment.	Pajula et al., 2022
IPC	RIPostC	4×5 min lower limb I/R	Interventional surgery (balloon+gel sponge)	Preserves myocardial activity, reduces infarct size, and reduces LV remodeling.	Small sample size and therapeutic mechanism needs to be further explored.	Lu et al., 2022
Cell therapy	hiPSC-CMs+Tb4	1 mL i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Induces angiogenesis, promotes proliferation of cardiomyocytes and endothelial cells, improves LV systolic function, and reduces infarct size.	Safety exploration is a key step in translational application.	Tan et al., 2021
	hUMSCs	1×10 ⁸ cells i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Improves cardiac function.	Long-term efficacy unknown.	Wang et al., 2021b
	Stem cell-derived CCPs	2×10 ⁸ cells i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	LVEF improves significantly at 4 and 12 weeks after transplantation.	Difficult to assess effect of CCPs on regeneration without early cardiac function data.	Yap et al., 2023
EV therapy	MSCs-EVs	1 000 µg i.v. BID×7 days	Coronary artery ligation	Improves cardiac function and reduces infarct size.	Potential immune response after intravenous administration of xenoexosomes not assessed.	Charles et al., 2020
	Exosome spray based on MSCs	5 mL	Coronary artery ligation	Improves cardiac function and fibrosis.	Small sample size and lack of appropriate clinical scenarios. Specific drugs targeting specific immune cells were not used, with their role in acute inflammation after MI in 2-day-old piglets unknown.	Yao et al., 2021
Drug therapy	Dexamethasone	0.2 mg/kg/d i.m. QD×7 days	Coronary artery ligation	Inhibits CM cytokinesis and functional recovery.		Tao et al., 2020
	OFNS	10 mg/kg p.o. QD×30 days	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Balances intestinal and systemic immune homeostasis for remote cardioprotection.	Effects in PCI patients unknown.	Jia et al., 2023

					Continued
Technique		Treatment prescription	Model (MI)	Finding	Limitation
	Sacubitril/valsartan	49/51 mg sacubitril/valsartan p.o. BID×30 days	Interventional surgery (permanent coil)	Improves inflammation, reduces scar size, reduces rate of ventricular tachycardia induction.	Lack of pharmacokinetic/pharmacodynamic data for sacubitril/valsartan in porcine models.

Martínez-Falguera et al., 2024

artCP: Artificial cardiac patch; BID: Bis in die (Twice daily); BMV: Biomimetic microvessel; CCPs: Committed cardiac progenitors; CSCs: Cardiosphere-derived stromal cells; ECM: Extracellular matrix; EVs: Extracellular vesicles; HA: Hyaluronic acid; hiPSC-CMs: Cardiomyocytes derived from human-induced pluripotent stem cells; hUMSCs: Human umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cells; i.c.: Intramyocardial injection; i.m.: Intramuscular injection; I/R: Ischemia-reperfusion; IPC: Ischemic preconditioning; LIFU: Low-intensity focused ultrasound; LV: Left ventricular; LVEF: Left ventricular ejection fraction; MSCs: Mesenchymal stem cells; MI: Myocardial infarction; OFNS: Oral fullerene nanoscavenger; p.o.: Per os; PCI: Percutaneous coronary intervention; QD: Quaque die (Once daily); RIPC: Remote ischemic preconditioning; ROS: Reactive oxygen species; rTIMP-3: Recombinant TIMP-3. -: Not available.

Table 5 New techniques based on porcine I/R injury models

Technique		Treatment prescription	Model (I/R injury)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
Nanomaterial	CHIR+FGF1-NPs	160 µg CHIR+13.3 µg FGF1	Coronary artery ligation	Reduces infarct size.	Interaction of nanomaterial with these two chemicals is not clear.	Fan et al., 2020
	LNP-TARID	–	Coronary artery ligation	Improves myocardial fibrosis.	Small sample size and lack of mechanistic exploration.	Zhu et al., 2023a
	NAP9	0.1 mg/kg	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Inhibits extracellular matrix degradation induced by EMMPRIN.	Small sample size and long-term efficacy unknown.	Ramírez-Carracedo et al., 2022
Cardiac patch	Nitrate-functionalized patch	–	Coronary artery ligation	Produces mitochondrial targeted myocardial protection and enhances cardiac repair.	Further studies are needed to reach a consensus on relationship between NO and cardiomyocyte mitosis and cardiac regeneration.	Zhu et al., 2021
Therapeutic hypothermia	Autologous blood transfusion	27°C	Coronary artery ligation	Limits reperfusion injury.	High mortality rate during IHD model establishment.	Merrill et al., 2020
	MH-SARP	30 min	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Preserves myocardial function and cellular integrity and reduces infarct size.	Treatment options are not clinically relevant.	Choy et al., 2020
	MTH	≤35°C	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Does not increase infarct size or prolong treatment time.	Small sample size and high mortality rate during IHD model establishment.	Shanmugasundaram et al., 2021
	Selective intracoronary hypothermia	4°C	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Preserves mitochondrial integrity.	Proof-of-concept study only.	El Farissi et al., 2022
	MH	34.5°C	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Hypothermia increases myocardial protection to reduce infarct size.	Hypothermia often requires sedation, which is different from clinical situations.	Berg et al., 2023
	SICH	30 min	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces infarct size and improves cardiac function.	Lack of attention to changes in acute phase.	Pei et al., 2024
					Future studies exploring long-term impact of AMI and circulatory support on renal function and other biomarkers of kidney injury are needed.	
Mechanical LV support	Impella CP	Activate at maximal support (P8)×180 min	Coronary artery ligation	Reduces MI size and MMP-9 and KIM-1 levels.	Whether Impella CP can reduce LV minimum pressure and improve tissue perfusion in early diastole remains unclear.	Qiao et al., 2022
	Impella CP	Full pump support×120 min	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Increases blood perfusion in infarct area.	Small sample size, focuses on mechanical LV unloading in acute MI, and application scope is limited. Not all clinical scenarios were covered.	Sakata et al., 2022
	Impella CP	P8×2 h; Impella flow is reduced every 15 min until P0	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Gradual reloading may be a better strategy.	Data from relatively acute late reperfusion period, chronic MI, and coronary modulation with long-term LV support not investigated.	Mazurek et al., 2024
	Impella CP	Full pump support×90 min	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Increases infarct coronary flow.		Sakata et al., 2024
	Aortix pump	25 000 r/min×30 min	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Decreases 28-day infarct size.	Small sample size and effect of pumping and coronary flow not evaluated.	Fudim et al., 2025

Continued

Technique		Treatment prescription	Model (I/R injury)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
Gene therapy	Silencing of lncRNA RMST	AAV6-RMST-specific shRNA (1 mL, 1×10^{13} vg particles)	Coronary artery ligation	Inhibits myocardial fibrosis and improves cardiac function.	Delivery strategy of AAV6-associated gene therapy needs improvement.	Ma et al., 2023a
	Depleting anti-CD8 monoclonal antibody	15 mg/kg	Interventional surgery (balloon)	CD8+ T lymphocyte depletion is protective in pig model of coronary I/R.	Sex differences may affect efficacy.	Santos-Zas et al., 2021
IPC	IPC	4×5 min/5 min bilateral hindlimb I/R	Coronary artery ligation	Induce release of cardioprotective triggers but does not reduce infarct size.	Pig strain may influence experimental results.	Lieder et al., 2022
	RIPC	4×5 min hind limb I/R	Coronary artery ligation	Decreases AMI size. HIF pathway likely involved in mechanism of RIPC.	Therapeutic mechanism needs to be further explored.	Anttila et al., 2023
	IPC	3×5 min LAD occlusion/10 min reperfusion	Coronary artery ligation	Negative result.	Long-term follow-up data are lacking to assess effects of sex differences on long-term efficacy.	Kleinbongard et al., 2023b
	IPC	3×5 min coronary occlusion/10 min reperfusion	Coronary artery ligation	In <i>Göttingen</i> minipigs, IPC reduces infarct size, a protective effect absent in <i>Ossabaw</i> minipigs.	Therapeutic mechanism needs to be further explored.	Lieder et al., 2023
	IPC	3×5 min with low pressure inflations	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Alleviates I/R injury.	Time of myocardial reperfusion tissue changes is shorter in pigs.	Binek et al., 2024
	IPC	3×5 min with low pressure inflations	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Alleviates I/R injury.	Time of myocardial reperfusion tissue changes is shorter in pigs.	Binek et al., 2024
Cell therapy	CCND2 ^{OE} CMs	3×10^7 CCND2 ^{OE} cells i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Promotes cardiomyocyte proliferation.	Whether injected doses can be transferred to humans requires further study.	Zhao et al., 2021
	Human Muse cells	1×10^7 cells i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Muse cell product shows good efficacy and safety in treatment of acute MI in miniature pigs.	Sample size of arrhythmia assessment is small, larger samples are needed for verification.	Yamada et al., 2022
	Human placental membrane	HPAC graft (5 cm×5 cm) sutured to infarct area	Coronary artery ligation	Minimizes ischemic injury, preserves cardiac function, and promotes anti-inflammatory pathways.	Therapeutic mechanism needs to be further explored and clinical effects and precise indications still need to be revealed by comprehensive data matrices.	Skaria et al., 2023
	hESC - hEPs	5×10^7 cells i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Promotes infarct healing.	Real-time plasma concentrations of immunosuppressive agents not measured. Optimal immunosuppressive dose needs to be determined.	Luo et al., 2023
	CCND2-cardiomyocyte SMRTs	SMRTs coding for cardiomyocyte-specific expression of luciferase or GFP	Coronary artery ligation	Promotes cardiomyocyte proliferation, reduces myocardial infarct size, and improves cardiac function.	Results similarly affected by limitations inherent in any human pre-disease clinical model.	Sun et al., 2023
	KO/OE _{hi} PSC-CMs	25×10^6 cells i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Improves cardiac function and reduce infarct size.	Small sample size and snRNA-seq may have missed significantly different gene expression.	Wei et al., 2025
	HUCMSCs+CsA	5×10^7 cells i.v.+5 mg/kg CsA i.v.gtt.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces acute I/R injury and promotes myocardial repair.	Pure effects of CsA on myocardial IRI not explored.	Liu et al., 2020
	hESC-CMs	1×10^9 cells intrapericardial injections	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves myocardial function, increases myocardial mass, and reduces scar tissue.	Differentiation purity needs to be improved.	Shi et al., 2020
	MSCs	1×10^6 cells/kg i.v.gtt.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves microvascular obstruction.	Whether specific immune cell subsets are involved in immunomodulatory effects of MSCs in porcine myocardial I/R injury models needs further investigation.	Wang et al., 2020b

Technique		Treatment prescription	Model (I/R injury)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
	hMSCs	75×10 ⁷ cells (Mesenchymal stromal cell delivery via <i>ex vivo</i> bioreactor preclinical test system)	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces myocardial injury.	Small sample size and long-term efficacy unknown.	O'Rourke et al., 2021
	(IGF-1+HGF) ^{OE} pCPCs	20×10 ⁶ cells	Interventional surgery (balloon)	No significant functional improvement.	Small sample size.	Prat-Vidal et al., 2021
	Allogeneic CDCs	50×10 ⁷ Cells i.c.+100×10 ⁷ Cells i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces scar size, improves regional systolic function, and attenuates adverse cardiac remodeling.	Number of injected cells needs to be further studied.	Sousonis et al., 2021
	CDCs	3×10 ⁵ cells/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Changes structure and electrophysiology of scar.	Small sample size and lack of endocardial electrophysiological data.	Arenal et al., 2022
	Human nMSCs+TCM	(1-2)×10 ⁷ nMSC+2 mg TCM i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces infarct size and restores cardiac function.	Long-term efficacy unknown.	Bilewska et al., 2022
	S-MenSCs+IFN γ /TNF α -primed MenSCs (S-MenSCs $\times$)	9.16 mg S-MenSCs or 9.16 mg S-MenSCs $\times$ intrapericardial administration	Interventional surgery (balloon)	No significant functional improvement.	Small sample size.	de Pedro et al., 2022
	CDCs+ cyclosporine	20×10 ⁶ CDCs+2.5 mg/kg cyclosporine i.v. ; and 100 mg cyclosporine p.o. QD * 4 weeks	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Oral cyclosporine pretreatment may be necessary to affect cardiac repair with allogeneic CDCs.	Specific mechanism behind complete disappearance of CDCs remains unclear.	Techiryan et al., 2022
	hUCM-MSC	5×10 ⁵ cells/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves LV systolic function.	Difficult to demonstrate total scar tissue volume.	Raposo et al., 2023
	Human CD16+monocytes (hCD16+Ms)	10×0.3 mL intramyocardial microinjections	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces scar area, increases neovascularization, myofibroblasts, and IL-6 levels, and decreases pro-fibrotic TGF- β levels. Promotes myocardial recovery without increasing frequency of arrhythmogenic complications.	Cell dosage needs to be further studied.	Ascione et al., 2024
Exosome therapy	hiPSC-CMs _{EXO}	7.5 mg i.c.	Coronary artery ligation		Small sample size and small infarct size of model.	Gao et al., 2020
	SCENT	3×20–30 min inh.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves cardiac function.	Heart retention of inhaled exosomes is limited, and targeting needs to be enhanced.	Li et al., 2024
EV therapy	M2 _{sEVs}	1.0 mg i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Rescues myocardial function, improves myocardial repair, and modulates CCR2 ⁺ macrophages via miR-181b-5p.	Requirement for autologous sEV source and sufficient exosome yield remain key limitations in upscaling sEV - based therapies.	Li et al., 2023
	CDC _{EVs}	9.16 mg i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Regulates immune cells; Reduces inflammatory response.	Molecular mechanisms involved in M2 polarization remain unclear.	López et al., 2020
	CPC _{sEVs}	20×10 ¹¹ particles i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces infarct size.	Small sample size and mechanism of sEV uptake is unknown.	Emmert et al., 2024
Cytokine therapy	IGF-1 MSPs	5×10 ⁶ IGF-1 loaded microspheres i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves cardiac function and limits myocardial fibrosis.	Local and circulating levels of IGF-1 not determined.	Báez-Díaz et al., 2020
	HGF MSPs	5×10 ⁶ HGF-loaded microspheres i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Does not improve cardiac function, reduce inflammation, or myocardial fibrosis.	Animal model is young and does not fit clinical scenario.	Blanco-Blázquez et al., 2023

Continued

Technique		Treatment prescription	Model (I/R injury)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
	PDGF-AB	7×65 µg/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces scar.	Tissue collected at different time points, which may lead to bias in the results.	Hume et al., 2023
MT	MT	1 or 10×10 ⁹ mitochondria i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Reduces infarct size and enhances cardiac function.	Long-term efficacy unknown.	Guariento et al., 2020
Drug therapy	SGLT2i	1 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	SGLT2 inhibitors confer cardio-protection in a very short time frame.	Further studies are needed to explore involvement of other pathways or mechanisms.	Baker et al., 2022
	Melatonin	4 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Prevents excessive prolongation of QRS interval and Tpeak-Tend interval.	Small sample size.	Bernikova et al., 2022
	N-acetylcysteine	150 mg/kg i.v.+10 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Does not protect against reperfusion arrhythmias.	Small sample size and propofol may affect occurrence of arrhythmia, although specific mechanism needs to be further studied.	Haugsten Hansen et al., 2023
	Diazoxide	7 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Cardio-protection by diazoxide pretreatment is confirmed in adult pigs with reperfused acute MI.	Aortic/coronary perfusion pressure not measured.	Kleimbongard et al., 2023a
	metoprolol	1 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Metoprolol is not robust to reduced myocardial infarct size in pigs.	Experimental results lack stability.	Kleimbongard et al., 2023c
	Melatonin	4 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Prevents development of early ventricular fibrillation.	General anesthesia inevitably limits development of <i>in vivo</i> experiments due to its inhibitory effects on sympathetic nervous system.	Tsvetkova et al., 2020
	sDR5-Fc	8 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Reduces cardiomyocyte death and inflammation.	Potential therapeutic benefit of sDR5-Fc in humans with MI will require future clinical trials.	Wang et al., 2020c
	ML355	3 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Attenuates cardiac injury.	Which catalytic or nonenzymatic mechanism dominates is not known.	Zhang et al., 2021
	Vericiguat	3 mg/kg i.v.	Coronary artery ligation	Alleviates porcine I/R injury by promoting autophagy, preventing apoptosis, and promoting angiogenesis.	Multiple protective mechanisms of Vericigua not fully explored.	Zhu et al., 2023b
	Agrin	33 µg/kg i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces myocardial I/R injury and improves cardiac function.	More rigorous studies are needed to investigate full spectrum of molecular mechanisms, dose range, toxicity, and pharmacokinetics of Agrin.	Baehr et al., 2020
	DFP	50 mg/kg p.o. QD×4 weeks	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces myocardial edema and improves adverse remodeling.	Small sample size, limited pathological staining sites, and sex-related drug responses not assessed.	Behrouzi et al., 2020
	Empagliflozin	10 mg p.o. QD×2 months	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Enhances myocardial deformation.	Whether empagliflozin has additional benefits in acute MI and increased LV filling pressure is unknown.	Garcia-Ropero et al., 2020
	N-SHH	25 µg/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Provides effective protection against I/R injury.	Small sample size.	Ghaleh et al., 2020
	Metoprolol	0.75 mg/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces incidence of primary ventricular fibrillation.	Poorer collateral circulation in pig heart may translate to more rapid progression of myocardial injury than in patients, affecting experimental results.	Lobo-Gonzalez et al., 2020
	Statin	0.5 mg/kg i.v. ST+1 mg/kg p.o. QD×6 weeks	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Limits myocardial injury, improves cardiac function, and reduces remodeling.	Drugs are prepared in the laboratory, induced infarction is smaller, and no adjustment for multiple testing.	Mendieta et al., 2020

Technique	Treatment prescription	Model (I/R injury)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
Bufalin+Lycorine	Bufalin 0.1 or 0.2 mg/kg s.c. QD×14 days+0.05 or 0.1 mg/kg s.c. QD×14 days	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Prevents infarct-related LV remodeling, reduces myocardial fibrosis, and increases CDR1a expression.	Lack of healthy control group.	Mester-Tonczar et al., 2020
Ivabradine	0.3 mg/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Exerts myocardial protection by increasing release of EMMPRIN containing cardiac micro-vesicles.	Small sample size and lack of mechanistic exploration.	Ramirez-Carracedo et al., 2020a
ApTOLL	0.078 mg/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves cardiac function.	Small sample size and lack of mechanistic exploration.	Ramirez-Carracedo et al., 2020b
DMX-10001	60 mg/kg/h i.v.×30 min+17 mg/kg/h i.v.×23.5 h	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Negative result.	Species differences require adjustment of dose.	te Lintel Hekkert et al., 2021
PGA-diDHA	65.4 µg/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces myocardial edema, reduces ischemic risk zone	Stability of preparation needs to be further improved.	Tejedor et al., 2021
Silybum marianum	15 mg/kg p.o. QD×15 days	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces plasma triglyceride levels and regulates lipotoxicity.	Small sample size and lack of mechanistic exploration.	Vilahur et al., 2021
IZD334	1 mg/kg, 3 mg/kg, or 10 mg/kg i.v. QD×7 days	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Negative result.	Drug dosing may need further exploration.	Silvis et al., 2022
Spirulina	1 g p.o. BID×10 days	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Limits cardiac damage and improves ventricular contractility.	Future studies should investigate effects of spirulina on normal healthy hearts as well as in clinical scenarios combining metabolic comorbidities and IHD.	Vilahur et al., 2022
DBPR807	3 mg/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Shows potential as an adjunctive medicine for PCI therapies in acute MI patients.	Exact molecular target or biomarker responsible for IRI remains to be determined.	Yeh et al., 2022
Colchicine	0.025 mg/kg p.o. Q12H×30 days	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces myocardial fibrosis	Possible toxic and side effects of colchicine not assessed.	Aimo et al., 2023
Empagliflozin+BOHB	Empagliflozin 10 mg/d p.o. QD×1 week+BOHB 45 mg/kg/h i.v.gtt.×75 min	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces I/R injury; Improves cardiac function. Perioperative intravenous infusion of BOHB induces myocardial protection.	In BOHB group, peak intravenous concentration was measured, differing from steady-state concentration in empagliflozin group.	Santos-Gallego et al., 2023
Ketone ester	550 mg/kg p.o.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves myocardial matrix uptake and utilization, improves myocardial ATP levels, and reduces myocardial inflammation.	Small sample size. Different administration methods may have different effects, which need to be further explored.	Yurista et al., 2023
Mixture of doxycycline, ML-7, and L-NAME	doxycycline (1 µmol/L), ML-7 (0.5 µmol/L), and L-NAME (2 µmol/L) i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Regulates pro- and antioxidant balance.	Small sample size and lack of mechanistic exploration; Different administration methods may have different effects, which need to be further explored.	Bil-Lula et al., 2024
ATTM	15 mg/kg/h i.v.gtt.×1 h	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Exerts therapeutic effects by modulating selenoprotein activity.	Lack of drug dosage and mechanistic exploration.	Johnson et al., 2024
Infliximab	5 mg/kg i.v.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Regulates inflammation, protects myocardium, and reduces structural damage.	Cardiac troponin I (TnI) levels, measured on third day after MI, do not reflect peak concentrations. Lack of mechanistic exploration.	Livia et al., 2024
MTP-131+VA-ECMO	MTP-1310.05 mg/kg i.v.gtt.+VA-ECMO 7500rpm	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Cardiolipin is an important therapeutic target for VA-ECMO in treatment of acute MI to reduce infarct size and protect mitochondrial function.	Additional studies may be required to test different doses of MTP-131, various ECMO support times, impact of hyperoxemia, and effect of LV unloading on infarct size and cardiolipin metabolism.	Swain et al., 2024

Continued					
Technique	Treatment prescription	Model (I/R injury)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
AZD3366+ticagrelor or	1 or 3 mg/kg AZD3366 i.v.gtt+ticagrelor 90 mg p.o. BID×42 days	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Enhances cardio- protection compared with ticagrelor alone.	Only explored in healthy uncomplicated pigs and does not fit clinical scenario.	Vilahur et al., 2024

AMI: Acute myocardial infarction; ApTOLL: A TLR4 antagonist; ATTM: Ammonium tetrathiomolybdate; BID: Bis in die (Twice daily); BOHB: Beta-hydroxybutyrate concentration; CDCs: Cardiosphere-derived cells; CHIR: Wnt1 agonist/GSK-3 β antagonist; CsA: Cyclosporin A; DBPR807: CXCR4 antagonist; DFP: Deferiprone; EVs: Extracellular vesicles; GFP: Green fluorescent protein; hESC-CMs: Human embryonic stem cell-derived cardiomyocytes; hESC-hEPs: Human embryonic stem cell-derived epicardial cells; hiPSC-CMs: Cardiomyocytes derived from human-induced pluripotent stem cells; HPAC: Human placental amnion/chorion; hUCM-MSCs: Human umbilical cord matrix-mesenchymal stromal cells; HUCMSCs: Human umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cells; i.c.: Intramyocardial injection; i.v.: Intravenous injection; i.v.gtt.: Intravenous drip; I/R: Ischemia-reperfusion; Inh: inhalation; IHD: Ischemic heart disease; IPC: Ischemic preconditioning; IZD334: NLRP3-inflammasome inhibitor; LNP: Lipid nanoparticle; MenSCs: Menstrual blood-derived mesenchymal stromal cells; MH: Mild hypothermia; MI: Myocardial infarction; ML355: ALOX12 inhibitor; MSCs: Mesenchymal stem cells; MT: Mitochondrial transplantation; MTH: Mild therapeutic hypothermia; NAP9: Nanoparticles conjugated with AP9; NPs: Nanoparticles; N-SHH: Recombinant SHH protein; p.o.: Per os (Oral administration); PCI: Percutaneous coronary intervention; pCPCs: Porcine cardiac progenitor cells; QD: Quaque die (Once daily); RIPC: Remote ischemic preconditioning; RMST: Rhabdomyosarcoma 2-associated transcript; SARP: Selective coronary venous autoretroperfusion; SCENT: Stem cell-derived exosome nebulization therapy; sDR5-Fc: Soluble DR5-Fc; SGLT2i: Sodium glucose co-transporter 2 inhibitor; SICH: Selective intracoronary hypothermia; SMRTs: specific modified mRNA translation system; TARID: lncRNA-Tcf21 antisense RNA inducing demethylation; TCM: total conditioned medium; VA-ECMO: Venoarterial extracorporeal membrane oxygenation. -: Not available.

targeting key pathways involved in MI and I/R injury, including inflammation and oxidative stress, have yielded promising candidates for clinical application (Jia et al., 2023; Livia et al., 2024). Therapeutic hypothermia, by reducing metabolic demand and attenuating ischemia-induced cellular damage, has been optimized in porcine models for effective timing and duration (Berg et al., 2023; Pei et al., 2024). IPC, involving brief cycles of ischemia and reperfusion prior to sustained ischemia, enhances myocardial tolerance to ischemia, with porcine models providing critical insights into strategy refinement (Binek et al., 2024; Lieder et al., 2023). Moreover, mechanical assist devices, such as the Impella CP, have demonstrated significant benefit in maintaining cardiac output in acute I/R injury models. These devices provide temporary mechanical support when cardiac function is damaged and maintain cardiac output, allowing time for myocardial recovery and definitive therapy (Mazurek et al., 2024; Sakata et al., 2024).

Cutting-edge technologies such as gene therapy and mitochondrial transplantation have also been extensively studied in porcine MI and I/R injury models. For example, the silencing of lncRNA RMST has been shown to inhibit myocardial fibrosis and improve cardiac function (Ma et al., 2023a). Furthermore, mitochondrial transplantation has been found to improve heart function by transferring healthy mitochondria to damaged cells to restore energy metabolism and reduce oxidative stress (Guariento et al., 2020). These pioneering approaches, validated in porcine MI and I/R injury models, not only promote basic research but also provide therapeutic avenues for clinical treatment of IHD. Importantly, integrating these advanced therapeutic strategies with structured rehabilitation therapy offers a multidisciplinary approach to IHD management. Such combinations not only optimize treatment effects during the acute stage but also provide comprehensive long-term rehabilitation support for patients, thereby improving clinical prognosis and quality of life.

Development of new techniques based on porcine HF models

Porcine models of HF have become indispensable tools for

advancing the development of novel regenerative and interventional therapies, offering critical insights into the pathophysiology of HF and facilitating the translation of emerging treatments into clinical practice (Table 6). Among them, cell sheet technology and cardiac patches represent major breakthroughs in myocardial tissue engineering. Cardiac patches combine biomaterials with therapeutic cells to form implantable constructs capable of repairing damaged myocardium. Beyond providing mechanical support to the weakened ventricular wall, these patches actively promote local tissue regeneration by releasing beneficial factors (Dwyer et al., 2023; Miyagawa et al., 2024). Parallel to this, cell sheet technology avoids the limitations of traditional cell injection methods by transplanting contiguous layers of cardiomyocytes or stem cells directly onto the epicardial surface. In porcine HF models, this approach has demonstrated significant improvements in systolic function and reductions in myocardial scar formation, suggesting potent regenerative effects (Gao et al., 2022). The combination of various techniques can better stabilize treatment effects. For example, Sheu et al. (2024) reported that integrating shock wave therapy, adipose-derived mesenchymal stem cell (ADMSC) transplantation, and cell sheet technology markedly improved heart function and ventricular remodeling in HF pigs. However, the precise timing and optimization of ADMSC-cell sheet therapy require further investigation to maximize therapeutic efficacy.

In addition, adeno-associated virus (AAV)-mediated delivery systems have been used in porcine IHD models. Notably, AAV-based inhibition of the Hippo signaling pathway has been shown to reduce refractory arrhythmias after MI (Zhang et al., 2022). Ablation therapy also plays an important role in the management of arrhythmia-related HF. Porcine HF models have been instrumental in optimizing and validating this clinical treatment. Targeted ablation can effectively eliminate lesions with abnormal electrical activity, thereby restoring normal heart rhythm. Particularly, stereotactic body radiation therapy, an emerging modality utilizing high-precision radiation to ablate arrhythmic substrates, has shown encouraging results in porcine HF models, especially for lesions

Table 6 New techniques based on porcine HF models

Technique		Treatment prescription	Model (HF)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
Nanomaterial	AlgS-NP	8 mg AlgS-NP (200 µg HGF+IGF-1) i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Increases cardiac function and improves myocardial remodeling.	Lack of model control group and pharmacokinetic exploration.	Wu et al., 2023
Hydrogel	HA-based hydrogel	0.1 mL×9 times i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Smaller strain improvement within infarct and normal regions.	Small sample size and lack of a control group.	Midgett et al., 2022
	dECM/GP hydrogel	Total 2 mL 4 or 5 sites i.c.	Coronary artery ligation	Promotes cell homing and proliferation, inflammation modulation, tissue remodeling, and functional restoration.	Immunogenicity and latent virus of dECM/GP may limit clinical use.	Kong et al., 2023
Cardiac patch	hiPSC-CMs ECT	ECT containing 1×10 ⁹ hiPSC-CMs are transplanted onto the infarcted myocardium.	Ameroid constrictor	hiPSC-CM patch successfully implanted in porcine model of chronic myocardial ischemia without arrhythmia.	Results demonstrate successful implantation but do not validate functionality.	Dwyer et al., 2023
	hiPSC-CMs patches	Patch containing 1×10 ⁸ cells are transplanted onto the infarcted myocardium.	Ameroid constrictor	Improves cardiac function and promote angiogenesis.	Further studies are needed to evaluate effects of cellular regenerated myocardial tissue on cardiac function.	Miyagawa et al., 2024
Cell sheets	HUCMSCs sheets	Place onto the ischemic area of LV free wall	Ameroid constrictor	Improves cardiac function and reduces infarct size.	Small sample size. <i>In vivo</i> real-time monitoring methods for cardiac function should be added to future evaluations.	Gao et al., 2022
	shock wave-pretreated ADMSCs seeded in the cell-sheet scaffold	SW (0.12 mJ/mm ² for total 140 ADMSCs (1.0×10 ⁷) in CSS	Coronary artery ligation	Improves LV remodeling and LVEF	Optimal time point for ADMSC-CSS treatment not explored	Sheu et al., 2024
Gene therapy	4F gene therapy	Total 3×10 ⁹ TU total/pig heart	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves LVEF and reduces scar size.	Mechanism of treatment unknown.	Abouleisa et al., 2022
	AAV-sav-shRNA	Not reported	Interventional surgery (balloon)	AAV-Sav-shRNA gene therapy may have value in treating refractory post infarct arrhythmias.	Small sample size.	Zhang et al., 2022
Cell therapy	Allogeneic BM MSCs	2×10 ⁸ cells every five weeks i.v.gtt.×1 or 3 times	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves LVEF and structure, although repeated infusion is required to produce a robust effect.	Infusion dose needs to be further explored.	Tang et al., 2024
	dnHCN4 hiPSC-CMs	1×10 ⁹ cells i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Intervention insufficient to overcome risk of graft-related arrhythmias.	Further <i>in vivo</i> mechanistic exploration is needed to optimize treatment strategies.	Wulkan et al., 2024
	miR-590-3p-overexpressing hiPSC-CMs	5.0×10 ⁷ cells i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Improves cardiac function.	Acute phase and long-term effects are unknown.	Zhang et al., 2024
Exosome therapy	CDC _{EXO}	7.5 mg i.c.	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces scar and improves cardiac function.	Lack of attention to changes in acute phase.	Dawkins et al., 2022
Cytokine therapy	NRG-1β	0.67 mg/kg or 2 mg/kg i.v. BIW×4 weeks	Interventional surgery (balloon)	NRG-1β-mediated anti-atrophic, anti-cachectic effects may provide additional benefits for this potential heart failure therapy.	Further exploration of its role in cardiovascular diseases required at <i>in vivo</i> level.	Galindo et al., 2022
	rhPIGF-2	5, 15, or 45 µg/kg i.v. QD×14 days	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Therapeutic neovascularization not induced, and no improvement in cardiac function.	Tissue collection at each critical time point after ischemia not covered.	Wu et al., 2024
Ablation therapy	Proton beam therapy	30 or 40 Gy each target	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Scar significantly homogenized.	Use of amiodarone during experiment affected results.	Hohmann et al., 2020
	PFA	2000 V for the FOCAL linear catheter or 1800 V for the BASKET catheter	Interventional surgery (balloon)	PFA allows rapid, safe, and effective ablation of surviving islands of myocardium within and around infarcted LV substrate.	Synergistic effect of lidocaine on lesion size cannot be excluded.	Im et al., 2022
	PFA	Monopolar, biphasic waveform of ± 1.3 to 2.0 kV	Interventional surgery (balloon)	PFA may be advantageous for ablation in ventricular scar.	Small sample size.	Younis et al., 2022

Continued					
Technique	Treatment prescription	Model (HF)	Finding	Limitation	Reference
PFA	Electrocardiogram-gated packets of 25 A of monopolar, biphasic, pulsed fields (WAVE1 waveform)	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Viable cardiomyocytes inside and outside scar can be effectively ablated.	Long-term efficacy unknown.	Sandhu et al., 2023
PFA	1 000–1 500 V pulses	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Ablated lesions shrank within 24 hours to 7 days and remained stable for up to 6 weeks.	cMRI observation and histological examination not completely synchronized.	Miklavčič et al., 2024
Cardiac SBRT	25 Gy in a single fraction	Interventional surgery (balloon)	Reduces inducibility of ventricular arrhythmias.	Small sample size. Therapeutic mechanism needs to be further explored.	Kancharla et al., 2024

4F: Gene Cdk1/CyclinB1 and Cdk4/CyclinD1 complexes; ADMSCs: Adipocyte-derived mesenchymal stem cells; AlgS-NP: Alginate-sulfate nanoparticles; CDC: Cardiosphere-derived cell; cMRI: Cardiac magnetic resonance imaging; CSS: Cell-sheet scaffold; ECM: Extracellular matrix; ECT: Engineered cardiac tissue; GP: Glycopeptide; HA: Hyaluronic acid; HF: Heart failure; hiPSC-CMs: Cardiomyocytes derived from human-induced pluripotent stem cells; HUCMSCs: Human umbilical cord mesenchymal stem cells; i.c.: Intramyocardial injection; i.v.: Intravenous injection; i.v.gtt.: Intravenous drip; LV: Left ventricular; LVEF: Left ventricular ejection fraction; PFA: Pulsed field ablation; SBRT: Stereotactic body radiation therapy.

inaccessible via conventional catheter approaches (Kancharla et al., 2024).

Clinical translation of emerging techniques based on porcine IHD models

Several of the above innovative technologies have already progressed to clinical trials or early clinical applications, yielding encouraging results. In particular, significant advances have been achieved in the field of cardiac regeneration through cell-based therapies. Transplantation of autologous or allogeneic stem cells has demonstrated the potential to markedly improve cardiac function in patients following MI. For instance, Attar et al. (2023) reported that intracoronary transplantation of Wharton's jelly-derived mesenchymal stem cells (WJ-MSCs) between 3 and 7 days post-acute MI led to significant improvement in LVEF, with additional gains observed following a booster dose administered 10 days later. Similarly, in patients with LV dysfunction post-MI, the application of cardiosphere-derived cells (CDCs) has been shown to improve segmental heart function (Ostovaneh et al., 2021). Ablation therapy, long established in the clinical treatment of arrhythmias (Gupta et al., 2024), has also seen important refinements, informed in part by studies in porcine models. In patients with refractory ventricular arrhythmias (VA), stereotactic body radiation therapy has been demonstrated to significantly reduce VA load and cardioverter-defibrillator discharge, while delayed-enhancement magnetic resonance imaging offers a promising modality for monitoring treatment effects (Ho et al., 2021). Porcine IHD models are anticipated to remain indispensable for refining and expanding the clinical applicability of these treatment modalities (Kancharla et al., 2024). The success of emerging clinical applications not only validates the translational relevance of porcine models but also strengthens the foundation for continued innovation in IHD therapy.

In addition, the clinical application of pharmacological interventions is gradually being promoted and tested, although findings have been variable. For example, early administration of melatonin in patients with ST-segment elevation MI has been associated with a significant reduction in infarct size after percutaneous coronary intervention (PCI) (Dominguez-Rodriguez et al., 2017a). In contrast, studies utilizing intravenous and intracoronary melatonin injections have

reported no reduction in infarct size and have even suggested potential adverse effects on ventricular remodeling and LVEF evolution (Dominguez-Rodriguez et al., 2017b). These conflicting results highlight the complexities of pharmacodynamic responses in the treatment of MI and underscore the necessity of more in-depth and detailed studies to further explore the efficacy and safety of these drugs. Given the close physiological, anatomical, and pathophysiological similarities between pigs and humans, porcine models provide a critical experimental platform and reference basis for the evaluation of drug efficacy and safety.

CHALLENGES AND OPPORTUNITIES

Porcine disease models offer great potential for advancing cardiovascular research, ranging from the study of pathogenesis to the development and utilization of rehabilitation strategies and even organ transplantation applications (Pilz et al., 2022). Despite the substantial progress made in using porcine models for preclinical rehabilitation studies, no single model can fully replicate the complex and heterogeneous nature of human IHD, with clinical IHD frequently presenting with diverse symptoms and comorbidities (Raj et al., 2015; Shah et al., 2009), complicating the extrapolation of findings from standardized animal models.

Accurately reproducing the full spectrum of IHD features in nonhuman species remains a major challenge. In porcine AS models, variability in the degree, extent, and location of plaque stenosis undermines model stability and reproducibility (Wang et al., 2020a). High-fat diet protocols, while commonly used to induce AS, require extended periods and suffer from inconsistencies, whereas gene-editing approaches, although more precise, are expensive and technically demanding, further complicating model establishment.

Similarly, the induction of MI exhibits substantial interindividual variability among pig breeds, influenced by surgical techniques and infarct size heterogeneity, which compromises the consistency of experimental outcomes. I/R injury models face additional challenges in precisely controlling the onset, severity, and duration of reperfusion injury (Swain et al., 2024; Wei et al., 2025). Establishing HF models often requires prolonged observation periods to

evaluate the efficacy and safety of the model, thereby increasing both time and financial investment. Moreover, limitations in model evaluation methods persist. Histopathology remains the gold standard for lesion assessment but requires animal sacrifice, precluding longitudinal analyses. Most studies rely solely on hematological and imaging indicators, neglecting the multidimensional evaluation of lesion extent, structure, and stage, an approach that diverges from clinical diagnostic standards.

To address these limitations, researchers should carefully select and optimize IHD models according to the scientific questions posed, while considering rehabilitation objectives, technological compatibility, and laboratory feasibility (Solanes et al., 2022). Thoughtful model selection based on experimental goals, logistical constraints, and cost-efficiency will facilitate more rigorous investigations of rehabilitation strategies and their underlying mechanisms. The use of optimized porcine models will not only generate robust preclinical evidence but also pave the way for individualized rehabilitation protocols tailored to patient-specific profiles. Continuous refinement of evaluation techniques is also critical. Emerging evaluation approaches will enable multidimensional assessments of model fidelity and therapeutic outcomes, thus promoting longitudinal analyses of rehabilitation efficacy and facilitating the clinical translation of novel interventions (Amatruda et al., 2014; Dobrucki & Sinusas, 2005). The application of advanced genetic engineering technologies to create precisely modified porcine IHD models represents a particularly promising direction for future research. Several additional challenges warrant attention. First, current cardiac rehabilitation strategies in large animals remain underdeveloped compared to small animal research, underscoring the need to expand and apply innovative physical therapy modalities in porcine models. Second, large animal experiments require rigorous adherence to ethical standards and animal welfare, ensuring humane treatment and respect for animals involved in IHD rehabilitation research. Simultaneously, strict biosafety measures must be maintained to prevent zoonotic disease transmission during large animal experimentation (Wong et al., 2023). In summary, while considerable challenges remain, ongoing technological advances and methodological innovations are expected to elevate the utility of porcine IHD models, ultimately enabling the development of more accurate and effective rehabilitation treatment strategies for IHD patients.

CONCLUSIONS

This review presents a comprehensive synthesis of current methodologies for the establishment of porcine IHD models and explores relevant research findings related to various rehabilitation strategies and emerging therapeutic technologies. Porcine IHD models have proven instrumental in generating preclinical evidence supporting the application of rehabilitation interventions, elucidating underlying mechanisms, and informing drug use protocols during the rehabilitation process. To date, most preclinical studies employing these models have focused on exercise training as the principal rehabilitation approach, yielding substantial insights into its therapeutic potential. Additionally, modalities such as ESWT, laser therapy, and low-intensity pulsed ultrasound are showing increasing promise for clinical translation in the treatment of IHD.

Critically, porcine models have also served as vital

platforms for the evaluation of novel therapies for IHD, including gene therapy, cell-based therapy, and nanomaterial-mediated interventions. These technologies, which directly target myocardial regeneration and functional recovery through precision medicine strategies, have demonstrated encouraging safety and efficacy profiles in large animal experiments. In-depth study and continuous optimization of large animal models have laid a solid foundation for clinical translation. The integration of these innovative technologies with established rehabilitation modalities offers the potential to create comprehensive, individualized rehabilitation strategies tailored to the specific needs of IHD patients.

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

AUTHORS' CONTRIBUTIONS

Concept, Q.W. and C.Y.F.; Resources, Q.W., C.Y.F., and C.Q.H.; Manuscript preparation, S.Q.W., T.Y.C., and L.W.; Revision and editing, all authors. All authors read and approved the final version of the manuscript.

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