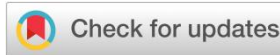
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Review Article

## Role of animal models in advancing Biomedical Research and Therapeutic Innovation

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### Abstract

A living organism functions as an animal model when it enables research into standard biological and behavioural operation or spontaneous and generated disease processes or identical biological events between species or human samples. Needless to say, research using non-human animal's dates back in time to understand human biology and improve human health. Scientists utilize the animal model with non-human subjects because it reproduces conditions that match human disease progression and detection methods and therapeutic approaches. To select the optimal animal model researchers, need extensive expertise in particular species and breeds for evaluating how well the model represents clinical conditions and the selected measures. The study of the 2019 Coronavirus disease pathogenesis relies on primate and rodent and porcine models to monitor infection pathways and therapeutic method development. Research in different animal species is necessary before human testing takes place for worldwide medical issues including diabetes, obesity, neurological disorders, pain management, rehabilitation medicine and surgical techniques. Research utilizing animal models helps identify pathogenic forces of intervertebral disc diseases together with cancer diseases alongside genetic disorders and EC therefore requiring specific animal models as research tools in order to better grasp the defect processes of each condition while evaluating new therapeutic effectiveness. The review investigates important aspects of animal model utilization under optimal conditions to direct upcoming research endeavors.

**Keywords:** Animal models, Biomedical research, Preclinical studies, Disease modelling, Therapeutic development, genetically modified animals, Ethical guidelines, Translational research.

## Introduction

Animal models are used to study various human diseases, including autoimmune disorders, arthritis, epilepsy, Alzheimer's, cardiovascular diseases, and diabetes. They also play a key role in medical device development, tissue engineering, bone and cartilage regeneration, wound healing, and vascular surgeries. These models allow research that would be ethically impossible in humans.<sup>1</sup>

### Data Sources and Study Selection:

Relevant literature was retrieved from PubMed, ScienceDirect, SpringerLink, Google Scholar, and Frontiers Journals, focusing mainly on publications from 2019–2025. Studies were selected based on relevance to animal models in biomedical research, therapeutic

evaluation, and ethical guidelines, while non-peer-reviewed or unrelated articles were excluded after title, abstract, and full-text screening.

### Ethical Guidelines

Animal research must follow strict ethical and legal guidelines. In India, the CCSEA regulates animal use in experiments under the Ministry of Fisheries, ensuring compliance with the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Act, 1960.

### CCSEA Guidelines for Use of Animals in Research -

CCSEA issues regulations through the Breeding of and Experiments on Animals (Control and Supervision) Rules, 1998 (amended in 2001, 2006, and 2018). The key guidelines include:

1. Registration Requirement	5. Experimental Procedures and Welfare
2. Institutional Animal Ethics Committee	6. Humane Endpoints and Euthanasia
3. Application for Experimentation Approval	7. Record Keeping and Compliance
4. Species-Specific Housing and Care	8. Prohibited Practices

## Type of Animal Models

<b>Natural models</b>	Most natural models use mice and rats. Athymic nude mice (foxn1 mutation) are key in research; mottled mice model Menkes disease. <sup>5</sup>
<b>Induced models</b>	Induced disease models are created in healthy animals through genetic, surgical, chemical, or dietary modifications to replicate pathological processes. <sup>2,3</sup>
<b>Knock-out models</b>	Genetically modified models have inserted genes (transgenic) or gene knockouts via homologous recombination. <sup>3,5</sup>
<b>Transgenic animals</b>	Transgenic animals are made by genome integration of foreign DNA, mainly using CRISPR/Cas9. <sup>2,3</sup>
<b>Surgical induced models</b>	The OVX rats serve as one example of surgically induced models while another example comes from the use of murine models of ischaemic stroke. <sup>2,6</sup>
<b>Chemically induced models</b>	The Rasergine-induced model serves as an effective method to study PD. <sup>2,7</sup>

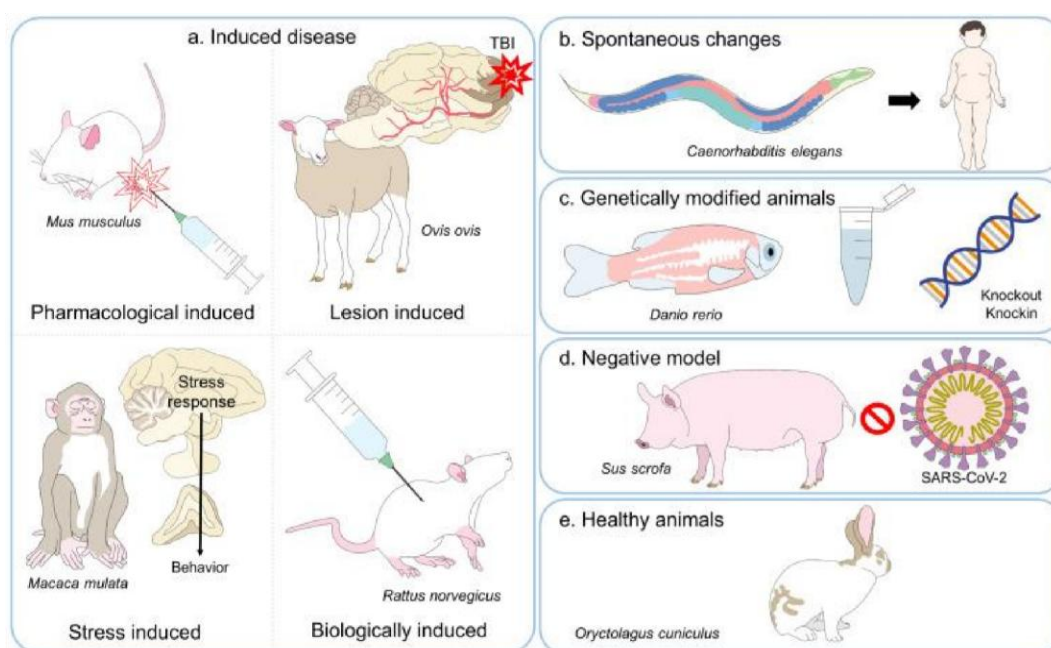


Figure 1: Classification of animal models based on use in science.<sup>3</sup>

**Table 1: Animal models and their application in distinct fields of current biomedical science**

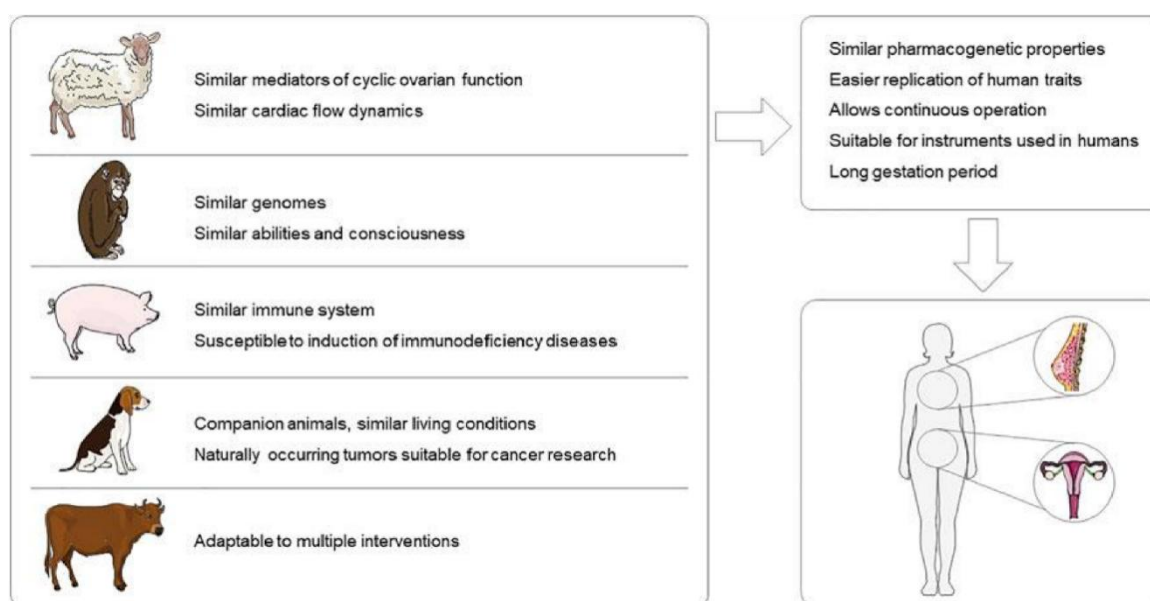
Research Area	Animal Models Used	Purpose / Key Features
Emerging Infectious Diseases	Primates, ferrets, rodents, minks, cats, camelids, zebrafish	Used in SARS-CoV-2 research due to lung injury susceptibility to study infection pathways, disease progression, and therapeutic development. <sup>7,8,9</sup>
Surgical and Musculoskeletal Disease Models	Rabbits, rodents	Rabbits were used in early microsurgery experiments, while rodents are widely used to study extremity reimplantation, vascularization, and degenerative disc disorders, including lumbar spinal stenosis modeled by silicone-induced spinal canal narrowing. <sup>10,11,12,13,15</sup>

**Table 2: The significance and challenges of animals in biomedical research****a. Small animal models Significance and limitations –**

Sr no.	Small animal models	Significance and limitations
1	Rats, Mice	Inbred rats are easy to breed and handle but lack genetic diversity, limiting their use in inflammation research. <sup>1</sup>
2	Guinea pig	Outbred models aid studies on various diseases, but guinea pigs show limited use in Ebola research due to low infectivity. <sup>23</sup>
3	Golden hamster	Ideal for reproductive, cancer, and infection studies due to progesterone control and short gestation. <sup>24</sup>
5	Rabbit	Good model for osteoarthritis, wound healing, drug testing, asthma, cardiovascular, and Alzheimer's research. <sup>25</sup>
6	Ferret	Similar respiratory tracts and vomiting ability make them useful for teratogenicity research despite limited availability and cost. <sup>25</sup>

**b. Large animal models Advantages and disadvantages –**

Animal	Advantages	Disadvantages
<b>Horse</b>	Supports testing critical defects with serial sampling and human-like knee cartilage aging.	High costs and ethical concerns stem from specialized facilities, limited care, and scarce equine research tools. <sup>26</sup>
<b>Sheeps</b>	Supports multiple large defects, human-like knee cartilage, easy handling, and societal acceptance as a research animal.	Requires special facilities and skills; non-weight-bearing post-op is limited; has a different stomach system than humans. <sup>27</sup>
<b>Dogs</b>	Dogs allow multiple measurements, mirror human diseases functionally, and show breed genetic diversity like humans.	Ethical concerns, breed-specific drug intolerances, and costs are key issues in companion animal research. <sup>29</sup>
<b>Pigs</b>	Pigs enable multiple measurements, model human diseases, and show breed genetic diversity.	Ethical concerns are lower than for pets; non-weight-bearing post-surgery is not possible; costs remain high. <sup>28</sup>

**Animal models in Gynaecological disease studies**Figure 2: Advantages of large animal models for gynaecological disease research <sup>6</sup>

**Table 3: Preclinical research models for endometrial cancer: development and selection of animal models**

Animal models	Pros	Cons	Research directions
<b>1) Spontaneous</b>	Affordable, low-maintenance model that mimics full cancer development.	Long culture cycle, Low incidence and unstable.	Used to study risk factors, disease progression, therapy, toxicology, and hormone-related cancer. <sup>18, 19</sup>
<b>2) Chemically induced</b>	Similar histopathology, High incidence, Simple operation.	Unclear genetic background, Long time to induce.	Studies chemical-induced carcinogenesis and estrogen-related molecular pathways. <sup>19</sup>
<b>3) Genetically engineered</b>	Immune system existence. Specific gene mutation.	Difficult operation, expensive, Low tumor mutation load	Molecular pathway mechanism. New molecular therapeutic targets. <sup>18, 19</sup>
<b>4) Xenograft</b>	Low cost, short cycle, predictable growth, easy observation.	Immune deficiency, Limited similarity to human.	Drug efficacy, immunotherapy, cancer biology, biomarkers. <sup>(18, 19)</sup>
<b>5) Humanized</b>	Human-like immunity; useful for immunotherapy.	Technically difficult, High cost.	Tumor - immune system interaction; Immunotherapy. <sup>19</sup>

**Table 4: Animal models in gene therapy** <sup>17, 18</sup>

Sr no.	Model type	Animals used	Diseases
1	Genetically engineered	Mice, Rat, Monkey	Huntington's disease
2	Xenograft	Mice, Monkey	Glioblastoma
3	Disease induction	Monkey, Rat, Mice, rabbit	Duchenne muscular dystrophy
4	Spontaneous	Dog, Cat, mice	X linked hydrocephalus

**Table 5: Animal models for Type 1 and Type 2 Diabetes****1) Type 1 diabetic animal models** <sup>21</sup>**1. Chemically Induced T1DM Animal Models**

Animal	Chemical	Advantages	Limitations
<b>Rat</b>	Alloxan (150 mg/kg)	Cost effective. Easy of handling. Shares similar numerous pathophysiology and pathological features with humans.	Densely haired skin heals by contraction, making partial wounds difficult. Chemicals can cause toxicity, and hyperglycemia mainly stems from beta-cell damage and insulin deficiency, not resistance. <sup>21</sup>
<b>Mouse</b>	Streptozotocin (60 mg/kg)		
<b>1.Rabbit,</b>	Alloxan,	1. Mimics human burn wound metabolism and pathology.	1. Higher infection risk and morbidity than mice and rats.
<b>2.dog,</b>	STZ ,	2. Replicates thermal burn symptoms and effects.	2. Loose skin makes irreversible diabetes hard to induce.
<b>3.primate,</b>	MLD-STZ	3. Low-dose STZ primate model benefits T1DM research.	3. Drug administration needs skilled handlers.
<b>4.pig</b>		4. Diabetes physiology similar to humans.	4. Requires higher doses to induce diabetes; irreversible diabetes is difficult <sup>1, 21</sup>

**2. Genetically/ spontaneously induced T1D animal models**

Animal	Genes	Advantages	Limitations
<b>NOD mouse (nonobese Diabetes)</b>	Polygenic model showing hyperglycemia and leukocyte	Widely used to study T1DM. Exploring genetics of T1DM	Expensive. Difficult to handle <sup>(21)</sup>

	infiltration of pancreatic $\beta$ -cells.		
<b>KDP rat</b>	Formed from a nonsense mutation in the Cbl-b.	Rapid diabetes onset without T-lymphopenia; ~70% in both sexes.	Expensive; few studies, mainly genotype-focused.
<b>LETL rat (Left evans tokushima lean)</b>	It mimics human Type 1 diabetes with sudden polyphagia, and hyperglycemia.	First rat model with spontaneous autoimmune islet B cell destruction and diabetes without lymphopenia.	Develops diabetes at 20%, costly, and partially replicates human T1DM.
<b>LEWIDDM rat</b>	Spontaneously develops autoimmune T1DM through $\beta$ -cell apoptosis.	Creates T1DM equally in both sexes; used to test treatments preventing B cell destruction.	Expensive. May not completely mimic the T1DM condition seen in humans
<b>BB rat (bio breeder)</b>	Exhibits hyperglycemia and ketoacidosis typical of T1DM onset.	BB rats, showing hypoinsulinemia, ketonuria, and weight loss, are used to study islet transplant tolerance.	Diabetes is associated with T- cell lymphopenia. Expensive.
<b>Akita mouse</b>	Diabetes caused by mutation, leading to insulin deficiency.	Single insulin 2 mutation offers clearer genetic study of diabetes than polygenic models.	Akita mice have higher B cell regeneration than humans, affecting T1DM study translation.

### 3. Virally induced T1DM animal models

Animal	Virus type	Advantages	Limitations
<b>Monkey</b>	EMC virus , Coxsackie virus	Diabetes follows pancreatic B cell destruction by EMC virus; Coxsackie B infects first.	Unclear diabetes mechanism; nonspecific effects; safety and ethical concerns.
<b>Mouse</b>	EMC virus Coxsackie virus, LCMV	EMC virus causes T1DM via B cell destruction; Coxsackie B infects B cells first.	Diabetes mechanism unclear; low specificity; safety and ethical concerns.
<b>Hamster</b>	EMC virus , Coxsackie virus LCMV	EMC, Coxsackie B infect B cells; LCMV triggers immune T1DM.	Diabetes mechanism unclear; low specificity; safety and ethical issues.
<b>Rat</b>	RCMV (rat cytomegalovirus), KRV (kilham rat virus)	RCMV and KRV models study how viral infections trigger or worsen T1DM.	Diabetes mechanism unknown; nonspecific effects; safety and ethics concerns.

### 4. Surgical T1D animal models

Animal	Surgery type	Advantages	Limitations
<b>Rat, mouse</b>	Pancreatomy	Reflects effects of reduced $\beta$ -cell mass; cost-effective with easy handling and housing.	Partial-thickness wounds are hard to create in thin skin and often remove exocrine acinar cells.
<b>Rabbit, dog, pig, primates</b>	Pancreatomy, Islet Trans - plantation, Thymectomy	Easy care, large, long-lived, with human-like islet function.	Requires high skill, invasive, limited availability, risk of hypoglycemia, ethical concerns. <sup>1, 21</sup>

## 2) Type 2 Diabetic Mellitus Animal Models <sup>1, 21</sup>

### 1. Chemically induced T2D animal models

Animal	Chemical	Advantages	Limitations
<b>Rabbit</b>	STZ	More cost-effective with human-like burn wound metabolism and pathology.	Difficult to produce irreversible diabetes. Risk of infections and morbidity compared to mouse rats.
<b>Pig</b>	STZ plus Nicotinamide	Useful for T1DM - T2DM studies; anatomy and physiology closely match humans.	Requires higher doses to produce diabetic conditions. Difficult to produce irreversible diabetes.

## 2. Genetically/spontaneously induced T2D animal models

Animal	Gene	Advantages	Limitations
<b>db/db mouse (diabetic /diabetic)</b>	Autosomal recessive point mutation, Glyto-Thr.	Widely used T2D mouse model showing hyper-glycemia, hyperphagia, insulin resistance.	db/db mice are sterile and must be bred from heterozygous pairs, increasing cost and effort.
<b>Ob/ob mouse (obese/obese)</b>	ob/ob mutant, a nonsense mutation	Used in obesity-induced T2D and hyperphagia drug studies.	Ob/ob mice share db/db limitations; males may reproduce on restricted diets.
<b>GK rat (goto kakizaki)</b>	Repeated inbreeding of glucose intolerant Wistar rats	Ideal for T2DM studies on insulin resistance and $\beta$ -cell survival.	Early $\beta$ cell destruction remains a limitation for mimicking T2DM.
<b>OSHR rat</b>	Hypertensive females bred with normotensive males over generations.	Used to study endocrine-metabolic links to obesity.	Rats induced diabetic via high-calorie diet.
<b>Akita mouse</b>	Ins-2 autosomal dominant mutation	Used to study chronic stress relief in pancreatic islets and T2DM.	Mechanism of mesangial matrix increase is unknown; IgA deposit observations have limited value.
<b>Zucker fatty rat</b>	Bred from Sherman ,Merck M rats with recessive mutation.	Displays renal lesions resembling those in human T2DM.	Develops severe diabetes in only males. Complete descriptions of insulin resistance are unknown.
<b>ZSD rat</b>	Crossbred rat models selected for obesity and diabetes traits.	Important for investigating diabetic ulcer conditions. Used to study T2DM.	May display an impaired renal function. May display progressive albuminuria.
<b>NONENZO10 mouse</b>	Recombinant congenic strain from Jackson Laboratory.	Ideal for studying obesity-induced T2D and metabolic syndrome.	Only male mice develop hyperglycemia.
<b>TALLYHO Ing (TH) mouse</b>	Inbred polygenic T2D model with moderate obesity.	Shares T2D traits with NONENZD 10/Lt.	Only males show glucose intolerance and hyperglycemia, limiting the model.
<b>KK mouse (congenital strain mice)</b>	Polygenic diabetic model with moderate obesity, polyphagia, and polyuria.	Used to discover insulin resistance treatment	High cost. Limited availability. Possible genetic variations between individual mice

## 3. Surgical T2D animal models

Animal	Surgery type	Advantages	Limitations
<b>Rat, pig, Zebrafish, primates</b>	Partial pancreatectomy , Bariatric surgery, Renal Denervation	Models reduced $\beta$ -cell mass; high reproduction; cost-effective housing.	Partial-thickness wounds are difficult to create because skin is too thin.

## 4. Diet/nutrition induced T2D animal models

Animal	Description	Advantages	Limitations
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<b>Sand Rat</b>	Top diet-induced polygenic diabetic rat model.	Avoids chemical toxicity; used to study obesity-diabetes link and dietary effects.	Requiring extended periods of time for treatment.
<b>Spiny Mouse</b>	Shows islet hyperplasia and elevated pancreatic insulin.	Avoids chemical toxicity; useful for T2DM studies.	Not suitable for screening antidiabetic agents
<b>C57BL/6J Mouse</b>	Marked obesity with hyperinsulinemia, insulin resistance, glucose intolerance.	Avoids chemical toxicity; ideal for T2DM pathogenesis research.	Takes long for treatment; unsuitable for antidiabetic screening.
<b>Rhesus macaque (Monkey)</b>	Rapid adipose loss leads to ketosis; insulin needed for survival.	Develops metabolic syndrome, coronary disease, and diabetic complications.	Slow treatment, unsuitable for screening; limited availability and ethical issues.
<b>Gottingen Minipigs</b>	Need high-fat diet to develop obesity then T2DM.	Models T2DM, metabolic syndrome, coronary disease.	Slow treatment; not fit for antidiabetic screening.

\*OSHR rat (obese spontaneously hypertensive rat), ZSDS rat (zucker diabetic Sprague dawley), NONENZO10 mouse (recombinant congenic strain), KDP rat (komeda diabetes – Prone)

**Table 6: Animal models utilized in preclinical studies of cancer related products**

Trade name	Indication	Animal model	Category	Comment
<b>Gendicine</b>	Head and neck cancer	Mice	Genetically engineered	Conditional knockout mouse model <sup>30,31</sup>
<b>Oncorine</b>	Nasopharyngeal carcinoma	Guinea pig	N/A	Injected with Oncorine at dose levels of $5.0 \times 10^{10}$ TCID <sub>50</sub> /kg, $1.0 \times 10^{11}$ TCID <sub>50</sub> /kg, or $2.0 \times 10^{11}$ TCID <sub>50</sub> /kg subcutaneously
<b>Rexin – G</b>	Soft tissue sarcoma and osteosarcoma	Mice	Xenograft	A nude mouse model of liver metastasis and in a subcutaneous human xenograft model of pancreatic cancer <sup>32</sup>
<b>Imlygic</b>	Melanoma	Mice	Xenograft	Nude BALB/c mice injected subcutaneously with $2 \times 10^6$ tumor cells; tumors grown to ~0.5 cm diameter. <sup>30</sup>
<b>Kymriah</b>	Relapsed B cell	Mice	Xenograft	An immunodeficient NOD/Shi-scid IL-2R $\gamma$ null human leukemia xenograft mouse model <sup>31</sup>
<b>Tecartus</b>	Relapsed/re- refractory mantle cell lymphoma	None	-	There are no representative in vitro assays, ex vivo models, or in vivo models <sup>16</sup>
<b>Abecma</b>	Multiple myeloma	Mice	Xenograft	NSG mice with and without BCMA + xenografts <sup>16</sup>
<b>ARI-0001</b>	Adultrelapsed/refractory acute lymphoblastic leukemia	Mice	Xenograft	NOD/scid-IL-2Rnull— They were inoculated intravenously (i.v.) with $0.3 \times 10^6$ GFP-NLuc Namalwa cells per mice <sup>16,31</sup>
<b>Breyanzi</b>	Relapsed or refractory diffuse large B-cell lymphoma	Mice	xenograft	Raji xenograft in nude mice used as proof of concept; no lymphoma model developed. <sup>16,31</sup>
<b>Carteyva</b>		N/A	N/A	No more information was found for this product
<b>Delytact</b>	Malignant Glioma	Mice	xenograft	005 GSCs ( $2-5 \times 10^4$ ) in 3 $\mu$ L PBS were stereotaxically implanted into the striatum to form brain tumors. <sup>16</sup>
<b>Adstiladrin</b>	Bladder cancer	Mice	xenograft	An orthotopic mouse model of human bladder cancer <sup>16</sup>
<b>Carvykti</b>	Relapsed or refractory multiple myeloma	Mice	Xenograft	NOG mice (6–8 weeks) received s.c. NCI-H929 cells ( $5 \times 10^6$ ); tumor volume measured twice/week blindly. <sup>16</sup>

## Recent advancement of animal models in biomedical research

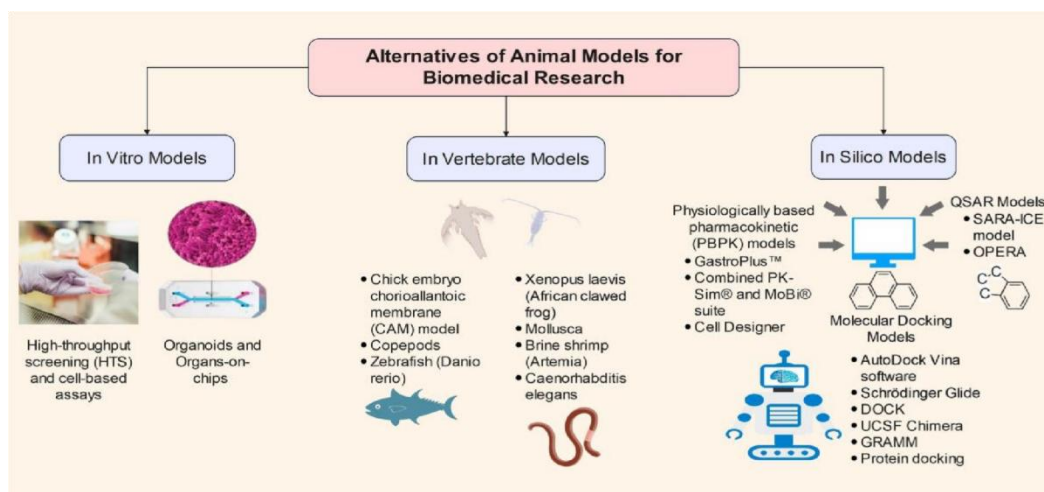


Figure 3: Alternatives of animal models for biomedical research <sup>20</sup>

## Conclusion

Animal models are vital for replicating human and animal diseases in research. Over the past five years, they've helped advance studies on COVID-19, cancer, diabetes, genetic and neurological disorders, and more. Before human trials, therapies, diagnostics, and surgical techniques are tested in animals. Researchers must ensure that models accurately represent diseases and align with intervention needs. Ethical considerations and animal welfare are essential for achieving valid and meaningful scientific outcomes.

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