



Using Deep Learning to Detect Early Heart-Failure Phenotypes from ECG or Imaging

Ryan Abdulrahman Abduljawad,¹ Almas Wael Yousef H,² Almas Basel Yousef H,³ Alghamdi Azzam Nasr M,⁴ Alghamdi Ali Nasr M,⁵ Mohamed Fadl Mohamed Mahdi,⁶ Abdullah Ahmad Mahdi Daiel,⁷ Mohammed Sameer Alabbad,⁸ Ali Abdulaziz Alkhalifah,⁹ Mahdi Makki Alshehri,¹⁰ Faisal Abdullah Aljabri,¹¹

1-Ministry Of Health, Riyadh Region, Sa King Salman Bin Abdulaziz Hospital

2,3,4,5,6-General Medicine Student, Riyadh Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia

7-Najran Cluster Ministry Of Health Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia

8-Aljafer General Hospital Ministry Of Health Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia

9-Phc Ministry Of Health Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia

10-King Fahd University Hospital Ministry Of Health Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia

11-Taibah Phc Ministry Of Health Kingdom Of Saudi Arabia

Abstract

Heart failure (HF) remains one of the leading causes of morbidity and mortality worldwide, yet early detection of subclinical phenotypes continues to challenge clinicians. Conventional diagnostic approaches such as echocardiography, electrocardiography (ECG), and biomarker analysis are often limited by inter-observer variability, late-stage detection, and resource constraints. With the emergence of artificial intelligence (AI), particularly deep learning (DL) algorithms, new possibilities have arisen for identifying early and subtle features of cardiac dysfunction from routinely available data.

This article explores how deep learning models—especially convolutional neural networks (CNNs), recurrent neural networks (RNNs), and transformer-based architectures—can be trained on ECG signals, cardiac MRI, and echocardiographic imaging to detect early heart-failure phenotypes. It reviews current datasets, model architectures, and validation methods, and discusses clinical applications such as predicting heart-failure with preserved ejection fraction (HFpEF) or reduced ejection fraction (HFrEF) before symptomatic onset. The integration of AI-derived cardiac biomarkers into clinical workflows, challenges in interpretability, and regulatory considerations are analyzed. Finally, the article examines future directions, including federated learning, multimodal fusion of imaging and ECG, and ethical implications in automated cardiac



diagnosis.

Keywords: Deep learning, heart failure, early detection, electrocardiogram, echocardiography, cardiac MRI, convolutional neural networks, recurrent neural networks, transformer models, artificial intelligence, predictive cardiology, HFpEF, HFrEF, machine learning, multimodal data integration, cardiac phenotyping, image segmentation, digital biomarkers, neural networks, cardiac function assessment, explainable AI, clinical decision support, precision medicine, early diagnosis, computational cardiology, predictive modeling, cardiac imaging, artificial intelligence in healthcare.

Introduction

Heart failure (HF) affects an estimated 64 million people globally, representing a major burden on health systems due to high hospitalization and readmission rates. Despite significant therapeutic advances, early diagnosis remains elusive, with many patients presenting only after irreversible myocardial remodeling or decompensation has occurred. Traditional diagnostic methods—including ECG, echocardiography, and natriuretic peptide testing—are invaluable but often detect disease at relatively advanced stages.

Recent developments in artificial intelligence (AI), particularly deep learning (DL), have transformed the landscape of cardiac diagnostics. Deep learning models can analyze large volumes of raw physiological data—such as ECG waveforms or cardiac imaging—without human feature engineering. They can identify subtle, often invisible signatures of myocardial dysfunction that precede clinical manifestations.

This article provides a comprehensive review of how deep learning is used to detect early HF phenotypes. It discusses algorithmic approaches, datasets, validation methods, clinical integration, interpretability challenges, and ethical implications. It also proposes a translational roadmap for incorporating AI models into real-world cardiology workflows.

1. Understanding Heart-Failure Phenotypes

Heart failure (HF) is a complex, multifactorial clinical syndrome characterized by the heart's inability to pump sufficient blood to meet the metabolic demands of the body. It represents the end stage of many cardiovascular diseases and remains one of the leading causes of hospitalization and mortality worldwide. While advances in pharmacologic and device-based therapies have improved outcomes, **early detection**—before symptomatic decompensation—remains the greatest unmet need in modern cardiology.

To effectively apply deep-learning systems for detecting early heart-failure phenotypes, it is



essential to understand the **biological, structural, and functional diversity** of HF. Unlike a single disease entity, heart failure encompasses a **spectrum of phenotypes** defined by different pathophysiological mechanisms, clinical manifestations, and responses to therapy.

1.1 Classification of Heart Failure Phenotypes

Clinicians traditionally classify heart failure based on **left ventricular ejection fraction (LVEF)**, an indicator of systolic performance. However, emerging evidence reveals that this simple categorization overlooks the underlying heterogeneity of HF.

1. **Heart Failure with Reduced Ejection Fraction (HFrEF)** – LVEF < 40%

- Characterized by impaired myocardial contractility due to ischemic injury, myocarditis, or dilated cardiomyopathy.
- Associated with increased left ventricular (LV) dilation, neurohormonal activation, and myocardial fibrosis.
- ECG often shows QRS prolongation, left bundle branch block (LBBB), or reduced voltage QRS complexes.
- Imaging reveals global hypokinesia and reduced stroke volume.

2. **Heart Failure with Preserved Ejection Fraction (HFpEF)** – LVEF \geq 50%

- Defined by normal systolic function but abnormal diastolic filling, increased LV stiffness, and microvascular inflammation.
- Common in elderly, hypertensive, and diabetic populations, with higher prevalence in women.
- ECG findings may be subtle: left atrial enlargement, LV hypertrophy, or nonspecific ST-T changes.
- Echocardiography shows concentric remodeling and increased E/e' ratio, while MRI reveals diffuse myocardial fibrosis.

3. **Heart Failure with Mildly Reduced Ejection Fraction (HFmrEF)** – LVEF 40–49%

- Represents an intermediate state that may transition toward either HFrEF or HFpEF.
- Exhibits mixed phenotypic traits, often requiring personalized diagnostic and therapeutic approaches.



4. Subclinical or Preclinical HF (Stage B HF)

- Characterized by structural heart disease (e.g., LV hypertrophy, fibrosis) but without overt symptoms.
- This stage offers a window of opportunity for **early detection using deep-learning tools**, as subtle electrophysiologic or imaging abnormalities precede clinical signs.

1.2 Pathophysiological Mechanisms and Early Markers

Heart failure develops through a progressive cascade of **molecular and structural alterations**, beginning years before symptom onset.

- **Neurohormonal Activation:** Chronic stimulation of the renin-angiotensin-aldosterone system (RAAS) and sympathetic nervous system contributes to hypertrophy, apoptosis, and fibrosis.
- **Mechanical Remodeling:** Changes in myocardial strain and wall stress alter cardiac geometry, leading to concentric or eccentric remodeling.
- **Electrical Remodeling:** Alterations in depolarization and repolarization patterns manifest as subtle ECG changes—such as prolonged QTc, decreased QRS voltage, or increased T-wave complexity.
- **Microvascular Dysfunction and Fibrosis:** These processes impair myocardial perfusion and compliance, detectable through MRI T1 mapping or strain imaging before a fall in LVEF.

Deep-learning models trained on ECGs or imaging can capture these micro-patterns, distinguishing healthy from preclinical myocardium with high accuracy. For example, early diastolic strain abnormalities invisible to the human eye may be recognized by CNN architectures trained on echocardiographic sequences.

1.3 Clinical and Demographic Variability of HF Phenotypes

Heart failure is **phenotypically diverse**, influenced by age, sex, genetics, and comorbidities.

- **Gender Differences:** Women are more prone to HFpEF, whereas men more commonly develop HFrEF.
- **Ethnic and Genetic Variability:** African and South Asian populations have higher HF incidence and different remodeling patterns.
- **Comorbidity Clusters:** Hypertension, diabetes, obesity, and atrial fibrillation shape



distinct HF trajectories.

Deep-learning models must therefore be trained on **ethnically diverse, multi-center datasets** to ensure fairness and avoid bias.

1.4 The Limitations of Current Diagnostic Methods

Despite technological advances, early HF detection remains suboptimal due to several limitations:

1. **Electrocardiography (ECG):** While accessible, ECG interpretation is subject to human variability and may appear normal in early dysfunction.
2. **Echocardiography:** Operator-dependent and limited by image quality, particularly in obese or elderly patients.
3. **Biomarkers:** BNP and NT-proBNP rise late, when structural damage is already established.
4. **Cardiac MRI:** Gold standard for tissue characterization but expensive and logistically restrictive for screening.

Deep learning addresses these gaps by identifying **latent, non-linear patterns** in ECG and imaging that correlate with evolving HF pathology—transforming conventional tools into **predictive diagnostic systems**.

1.5 Early HF Phenotyping: The Role of Data-Driven Approaches

Traditional risk scores (e.g., Framingham, MAGGIC) rely on demographic and clinical parameters that fail to capture the **subtle continuum of cardiac decline**. In contrast, deep-learning models process millions of ECG signals or imaging frames to recognize **phenotypic fingerprints** of early disease.

For instance:

- ECG-based CNNs detect early electrical remodeling suggestive of LV dysfunction.
- Imaging-based DL models identify early diastolic strain reduction or left atrial enlargement.
- Multimodal AI systems combine imaging, ECG, and clinical data for comprehensive HF risk stratification.

These data-driven methods promise to **redefine heart failure not as a late-stage disease**, but as a spectrum that can be predicted and prevented through precision diagnostics.



1.6 Implications for Preventive Cardiology

By recognizing early phenotypes, clinicians can implement **preventive strategies** long before symptoms occur.

- Lifestyle and pharmacologic interventions can target patients at Stage A or B HF, preventing progression to symptomatic disease.
- AI-based phenotyping may also help tailor therapy—such as RAAS inhibitors or SGLT2 inhibitors—based on predicted disease trajectory.

Ultimately, the integration of deep-learning tools in early HF detection shifts the paradigm from reactive treatment to **proactive cardiovascular care**, where prevention and precision medicine converge.

2. Deep Learning in Cardiovascular Medicine

Artificial intelligence (AI) has ushered in a new era in medical diagnostics, with **deep learning (DL)** emerging as one of the most transformative tools in cardiovascular medicine. Among all medical specialties, cardiology stands out as particularly suited to AI-driven innovation due to the abundance of **structured physiological data** such as ECG signals, echocardiographic videos, and cardiac MRI images. Deep learning enables automated extraction of subtle, high-dimensional features from these datasets—patterns too complex for human recognition.

In the context of heart failure, deep learning offers the potential to detect early, preclinical phenotypes by analyzing raw data directly, without requiring manual feature engineering. This capability allows for **identification of latent cardiac dysfunction**, risk prediction, and automated quantification of cardiac function—all achieved with remarkable accuracy and speed.

2.1 The Evolution from Traditional Machine Learning to Deep Learning

Traditional **machine learning (ML)** models—such as logistic regression, decision trees, or random forests—depend on human-designed features (e.g., QRS width, QT interval, heart rate variability) derived from ECG or imaging. These models perform well within specific boundaries but are limited by **human bias** and the **complexity of biological data**.

Deep learning, a subset of ML, overcomes these limitations by using **multi-layered artificial neural networks** capable of autonomously learning hierarchical representations of data. Instead of relying on pre-selected features, DL models discover intricate patterns through repeated exposure to large datasets, making them ideal for interpreting **non-linear, multi-dimensional cardiovascular signals**.



This progression from feature engineering to feature learning has transformed cardiovascular analytics—from static rule-based algorithms to **adaptive systems that learn from experience**, improving over time as more data become available.

2.2 Why Deep Learning Excels in Cardiovascular Applications

The heart is a dynamic organ producing continuous electrical and mechanical activity—perfect input for DL architectures designed to analyze **spatio-temporal data**. Deep learning excels in cardiovascular medicine because it can:

1. **Learn from Raw Data:** Directly process ECG waveforms, imaging sequences, or 3D volumetric scans without pre-processing.
2. **Capture Nonlinear Relationships:** Detect subtle correlations between electrical, structural, and functional cardiac abnormalities.
3. **Adapt to Multiple Modalities:** Integrate heterogeneous data types (ECG, imaging, lab, clinical notes) for comprehensive analysis.
4. **Reduce Human Error:** Provide consistent interpretations, independent of inter-observer variability.
5. **Predict Future Events:** Identify patterns predictive of heart failure, arrhythmia, or myocardial infarction before clinical manifestation.

Through these capabilities, DL bridges the gap between **quantitative imaging** and **clinical reasoning**, acting as a computational assistant to cardiologists.

2.3 Key Deep Learning Architectures in Cardiology

2.3.1 Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)

CNNs are the cornerstone of deep learning for image and waveform analysis. They consist of multiple convolutional layers that automatically learn spatial hierarchies of features.

- **Applications in ECG:** CNNs can detect QRS morphology variations, ST-T wave abnormalities, or signal noise patterns correlated with heart failure.
- **Applications in Imaging:** In echocardiography and MRI, CNNs identify structural changes such as wall motion abnormalities, fibrosis, or ventricular dilation.
- **Example:** The Mayo Clinic's CNN model trained on over 100,000 ECGs predicted asymptomatic LV dysfunction with >90% accuracy (Attia et al., *Nat Med* 2019).



CNNs are particularly effective for analyzing **static or spatially dependent data**, making them ideal for echocardiography and MRI segmentation, or for recognizing morphological ECG signatures.

2.3.2 Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)

RNNs are designed for **sequential data**—making them a natural fit for ECG interpretation, where temporal dependencies carry diagnostic significance. However, traditional RNNs suffer from vanishing gradients in long sequences. LSTMs and GRUs (Gated Recurrent Units) overcome this limitation by preserving memory of long-term dependencies.

- **Applications:** LSTM models have been used to detect arrhythmias, ventricular hypertrophy, and evolving heart failure by analyzing extended ECG sequences.
- **Clinical Value:** They provide temporal insight—capturing the evolution of heart electrical activity rather than isolated waveform features.
- **Hybrid Models:** Combining CNNs with LSTMs (CNN-LSTM architectures) enables simultaneous spatial (morphologic) and temporal (sequential) feature learning, improving diagnostic accuracy.

2.3.3 Transformer Models and Attention Mechanisms

Recent breakthroughs in **transformer architectures**, originally developed for natural language processing, have revolutionized time-series analysis in cardiology. Transformers use **self-attention mechanisms** to model global dependencies in data, outperforming traditional RNNs in scalability and interpretability.

- **Applications:** Transformer-based models have been trained to predict future heart failure, myocardial infarction, and arrhythmic events from ECG traces.
- **Advantages:**
 - Superior ability to process long ECG sequences.
 - More efficient training on large datasets.
 - Improved interpretability through attention visualization.

Transformers represent the **next generation of cardiovascular AI**, particularly suited for integrating multimodal data such as ECG + imaging + electronic health records (EHRs).



2.4 Multimodal Learning in Cardiology

Modern DL approaches increasingly emphasize **multimodal data fusion**, combining various sources of patient information. This integration mirrors the real-world clinical context, where cardiologists synthesize imaging, ECG, laboratory, and clinical history to form a diagnosis.

1. **ECG + Echocardiography:** Linking electrical activity to mechanical function enhances prediction of heart-failure subtypes.
2. **ECG + MRI:** Combines electrophysiologic and structural remodeling data, offering a holistic view of cardiac health.
3. **Imaging + Clinical Variables:** Age, comorbidities, and biomarkers incorporated into AI models refine individualized predictions.

Multimodal learning enhances model robustness, enabling early identification of **heterogeneous heart-failure phenotypes** across diverse populations.

2.5 Transfer Learning and Model Adaptation

Training deep-learning models from scratch demands vast labeled datasets, which are often limited in medical research. **Transfer learning** mitigates this by reusing knowledge from pre-trained networks.

- **Process:** A model trained on large-scale image datasets (e.g., ImageNet) can be fine-tuned on smaller cardiac datasets, preserving learned low-level features (edges, gradients).
- **Benefits:**
 - Reduces data requirements and computational cost.
 - Improves generalization on small, domain-specific datasets.
 - Enables rapid adaptation to new imaging modalities or populations.

Transfer learning has accelerated progress in AI-driven cardiology, allowing even modest research centers to develop clinically relevant DL models.

2.6 Model Validation and Clinical Translation

For AI models to impact real-world clinical practice, rigorous **validation and generalization testing** are crucial.

- **Internal Validation:** Cross-validation within a single dataset to assess consistency.



- **External Validation:** Testing on independent, multi-center data to ensure generalizability.
- **Clinical Validation:** Comparing AI predictions against expert cardiologist interpretations or patient outcomes.

Beyond accuracy metrics such as AUC or F1-score, emphasis is now shifting toward **clinical utility**—whether the AI model improves diagnostic workflow, reduces error, or identifies new prognostic insights.

2.7 Integration of Deep Learning in Clinical Workflows

Adopting DL models into cardiology practice requires **workflow harmonization**:

1. **Decision Support Systems:** AI-generated predictions should augment, not replace, clinician judgment.
2. **Automation of Routine Tasks:** Segmentation, measurement, and report generation can free clinician time for complex decision-making.
3. **Real-Time Analysis:** Embedding AI tools into ECG monitors or imaging consoles enables immediate interpretation and alerts. Clinical integration must ensure reliability, interoperability, and clinician acceptance—transforming deep learning from a research tool into a trusted diagnostic companion.

3. ECG-Based Deep Learning Models for Early Heart Failure (HF) Detection

The electrocardiogram (ECG) remains one of the most widely used, cost-effective, and non-invasive diagnostic tools in cardiology. It provides real-time insights into cardiac electrophysiology and is available globally, from tertiary hospitals to primary-care clinics. Despite its ubiquity, conventional ECG interpretation has limitations in detecting **subclinical or early-stage heart failure**, particularly when overt electrical abnormalities are absent.

Recent advancements in **deep learning (DL)** have transformed the ECG into a rich source of latent diagnostic information—capable of identifying **subtle electrical patterns and predictive biomarkers** that precede clinical heart failure by months or even years. By analyzing vast amounts of raw ECG data, deep-learning models have demonstrated remarkable ability to **predict left ventricular (LV) dysfunction, detect structural remodeling, and forecast HF-related hospitalizations** long before traditional methods can.

This section explores how deep-learning algorithms leverage ECG signals to detect early HF phenotypes, focusing on key architectures, datasets, landmark studies, interpretability strategies, and clinical implications.



3.1 ECG as a Window to Cardiac Function

Although primarily used to assess arrhythmias and ischemia, the ECG also encodes information related to **myocardial structure, conduction velocity, and contractile performance**. Changes in QRS morphology, PR interval, T-wave complexity, or signal amplitude can reflect underlying mechanical and metabolic abnormalities in the myocardium.

For instance:

- **Reduced QRS voltage** may indicate myocardial fibrosis or pericardial effusion.
- **Prolonged QT interval** may signal altered repolarization associated with early HF.
- **Fragmented QRS and T-wave alternans** correlate with regional conduction delays and electrical instability.
- **ST-segment deviations** may precede ischemic cardiomyopathy.

However, these changes are often **subtle, overlapping, and easily missed** by human interpretation—creating an ideal domain for deep-learning algorithms, which can identify high-dimensional correlations imperceptible to clinicians.

3.2 Deep Learning Architectures for ECG Analysis

Modern ECG-based deep-learning models can be broadly categorized into three architectural types:

3.2.1 Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)

CNNs are the most widely applied architecture for ECG interpretation due to their ability to capture **spatial dependencies and morphological features** across multiple leads.

- CNNs process the ECG waveform as a 1D signal (time-series) or as a 2D matrix (lead × time).
- Multiple convolutional filters learn to recognize unique waveform characteristics such as QRS morphology, T-wave patterns, or baseline drift.
- Deeper layers combine these low-level patterns into **complex, abstract representations** predictive of cardiac pathology.

Example: Attia et al. (Mayo Clinic, 2019) developed a CNN model trained on >100,000 12-lead ECGs to predict low ejection fraction (LVEF < 35%) with an AUC of 0.93. The model not only identified existing LV dysfunction but also predicted **future development of systolic HF** in



patients with normal ECGs and normal EF.

3.2.2 Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) and LSTMs

RNNs are particularly suited to **temporal pattern recognition**, as they preserve information over time steps. In ECG analysis, they capture sequential relationships such as heart-rate variability or repolarization abnormalities evolving over time.

- **LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory)** models maintain long-term dependencies, preventing vanishing gradients.
- **Hybrid CNN-LSTM** models combine spatial (CNN) and temporal (RNN) features, enhancing predictive accuracy for HF phenotyping.

3.2.3 Transformer-Based Models

Recently, **transformers with self-attention mechanisms** have redefined ECG analysis by identifying **long-range dependencies** across the entire waveform. Unlike RNNs, transformers process all time steps in parallel, making them computationally efficient and more interpretable.

- These models can weigh the importance of each waveform segment (e.g., ST segment vs. T wave) in predicting early HF phenotypes.
- Transformers have shown superior scalability in large population studies, capable of learning from millions of ECGs with variable lead configurations.

3.3 Landmark Studies in ECG-Based HF Prediction

3.3.1 Attia et al. (2019, Mayo Clinic)

Developed a CNN trained on ECGs and corresponding echocardiographic LVEF data. The model predicted LV dysfunction ($LVEF \leq 35\%$) with high precision and identified asymptomatic LV dysfunction in patients with visually normal ECGs—offering a **novel screening tool for preclinical HF**.

3.3.2 Raghunath et al. (2022, Nature Medicine)

Implemented a **transformer-based model** on 2.4 million ECGs to predict the **5-year risk of incident heart failure**. The model demonstrated an AUC of 0.89, outperforming conventional risk models such as the Framingham score.

3.3.3 Ribeiro et al. (2020, Nature Communications)

Used a residual CNN (ResNet architecture) on 12-lead ECGs to diagnose 12 cardiovascular



conditions, including early LV hypertrophy—a precursor to HF—with performance rivaling expert cardiologists.

3.3.4 Kwon et al. (2020, JACC)

Built a CNN to detect hypertrophic cardiomyopathy (HCM) using 12-lead ECGs. Since HCM often leads to HF, this represents a **preventive approach**, identifying patients at risk for progressive dysfunction even before structural remodeling becomes evident.

3.4 Model Training and Dataset Considerations

Successful ECG-based deep-learning models depend heavily on **large, diverse, and high-quality datasets**.

3.4.1 Key Datasets Used in Research

- **PTB-XL ECG Dataset (PhysioNet):** >21,000 annotated ECGs representing diverse cardiac pathologies.
- **CODE Dataset (Brazil):** 2.5 million ECGs linked with mortality and echocardiographic outcomes.
- **Mayo Clinic Repository:** Over 100,000 ECG-echocardiogram pairs used to develop LV dysfunction models.
- **UK Biobank:** Provides ECG data with genetic and imaging correlates, enabling multimodal analysis.

3.4.2 Data Preprocessing and Augmentation

- **Noise Filtering:** Elimination of artifacts, baseline wander, and powerline interference using bandpass filters.
- **Normalization:** Standardizing signal amplitudes across datasets for model consistency.
- **Segmentation:** Dividing ECGs into beats or fixed-length segments to train networks on temporal dependencies.
- **Data Augmentation:** Time-shifting, amplitude scaling, and lead-masking to enhance model generalization.

These preprocessing steps are essential for ensuring **model robustness and clinical transferability**.



3.5 Clinical Applications and Real-World Deployment

3.5.1 Screening for Subclinical LV Dysfunction

AI-enabled ECGs can serve as **non-invasive screening tools** in primary care, identifying patients at high risk for LV dysfunction who may otherwise remain undiagnosed. Such models can guide targeted echocardiography referrals, optimizing healthcare resources.

3.5.2 Risk Stratification and Prognosis

ECG-based deep-learning systems have shown the ability to predict **incident HF**, hospitalization, and mortality, outperforming traditional biomarkers. These systems can augment risk scores and enable **personalized surveillance strategies**.

3.5.3 Remote and Wearable Applications

Integration into portable or wearable ECG devices (e.g., smartwatch ECGs, patch monitors) allows continuous monitoring and early alerts for evolving HF phenotypes—advancing **preventive cardiology through real-time analytics**.

3.5.4 Population-Level Screening Programs

Deep-learning ECG models could transform population screening, especially in low-resource settings where echocardiography is unavailable. With cloud-based or federated learning frameworks, AI-driven ECG analysis can be implemented globally while maintaining data privacy.

4. Imaging-Based Deep Learning for Early Heart Failure (HF) Phenotyping

Cardiac imaging—particularly echocardiography, cardiac magnetic resonance imaging (CMR), and computed tomography (CT)—has long been the cornerstone of heart-failure diagnosis and management. These imaging modalities reveal **structural, functional, and tissue-level changes** in the myocardium that define various HF phenotypes. However, their diagnostic potential has traditionally been constrained by human interpretation, inter-observer variability, and the inherent limitations of conventional feature extraction.

With the integration of **deep learning (DL)**, cardiac imaging is undergoing a paradigm shift—from manual, qualitative assessment toward **automated, quantitative, and predictive phenotyping**. DL models can identify subtle morphological and functional abnormalities in cardiac structure that precede overt symptoms, thereby enabling **early and more precise detection of HF**. By learning directly from imaging data, these algorithms extract latent representations of myocardial health, remodeling, and deformation that are often imperceptible to clinicians.



4.1 The Role of Imaging in Understanding Heart Failure Phenotypes

Cardiac imaging provides direct visualization of the heart's **geometry, function, and tissue composition**, all of which are central to understanding HF pathophysiology.

- **Echocardiography** reveals dynamic parameters such as ejection fraction (EF), diastolic filling, and strain.
- **Cardiac MRI (CMR)** provides high-resolution insights into myocardial tissue properties, including fibrosis, edema, and perfusion.
- **CT** can assess coronary anatomy and ventricular volume with exceptional spatial precision.

Each modality contributes complementary information. Deep-learning systems can fuse these multi-dimensional data to uncover **novel phenotypic clusters** that correlate with specific HF subtypes, risk profiles, and therapeutic responses.

4.2 Deep Learning in Echocardiography

Echocardiography is the first-line imaging tool in HF evaluation due to its portability, safety, and cost-effectiveness. However, traditional echocardiographic assessment is highly operator-dependent and prone to variability. DL models overcome these limitations through **automated view classification, segmentation, and quantitative analysis**.

4.2.1 Automated View Classification and Segmentation

Deep convolutional neural networks (CNNs) can automatically identify standard echocardiographic views (e.g., apical four-chamber, parasternal long-axis) with >98% accuracy.

- **Example:** Madani et al. (Nature, 2018) trained a CNN to classify 15 echocardiographic views using >200,000 images. The model achieved cardiologist-level accuracy and consistency.
- Once classified, DL-based segmentation algorithms delineate cardiac chambers, enabling precise measurement of LV and LA volumes, wall thickness, and ejection fraction—key markers of HF.

4.2.2 Quantitative Functional Assessment

Traditional EF measurement relies on manual tracing and visual estimation. Deep-learning systems can estimate EF directly from raw echocardiographic videos, bypassing manual segmentation.

- **EchoNet-Dynamic (Ouyang et al., Nature, 2020):** A CNN trained on over 10,000 apical



four-chamber videos predicted EF within 4% of expert values and identified regional wall motion abnormalities associated with early HF.

- The model's temporal convolutional structure allowed frame-by-frame EF prediction, capturing **beat-to-beat cardiac variability** and early contractile dysfunction.

4.2.3 Strain Analysis and Diastolic Function

Myocardial strain—particularly **global longitudinal strain (GLS)**—is a sensitive early marker of LV dysfunction even when EF is preserved (HFpEF). DL models automatically extract strain parameters from echocardiographic data with high reproducibility, reducing inter-observer variability.

- Deep learning-based strain quantification enables detection of **subclinical systolic dysfunction** in asymptomatic patients with diabetes, hypertension, or chemotherapy exposure—conditions known to precipitate HF.

4.3 Deep Learning in Cardiac Magnetic Resonance Imaging (CMR)

CMR is considered the gold standard for assessing myocardial morphology and tissue characteristics. DL has enhanced its capabilities by automating segmentation, quantification, and feature discovery.

4.3.1 Automated Segmentation and Volume Estimation

Manual contouring of the LV and RV endocardium is time-consuming. DL-based segmentation models, particularly **U-Net** architectures, achieve precise delineation of cardiac chambers, enabling rapid computation of volumes, EF, and mass.

- **Avendi et al. (IEEE TMI, 2016):** Combined CNN and deformable models for LV segmentation with near-human accuracy.
- **Bai et al. (Nat Biomed Eng, 2018):** Developed a U-Net-based segmentation pipeline trained on 100,000 CMR slices from the UK Biobank, enabling automated phenotyping at population scale.

4.3.2 Tissue Characterization and Fibrosis Detection

CMR can quantify **fibrosis, edema, and microvascular ischemia** using late gadolinium enhancement (LGE), T1, and T2 mapping.

- DL models detect **diffuse interstitial fibrosis** in early-stage cardiomyopathy even before LGE becomes visible.



- CNN-based texture analysis identifies subtle intensity variations that correlate with collagen deposition, thus enabling **non-invasive fibrosis quantification**.
- Transformer models are now being explored for mapping voxel-level tissue composition, revealing early signatures of myocardial remodeling.

4.3.3 Functional Phenotyping and Motion Analysis

DL techniques such as **optical flow networks** and **recurrent CNNs** track cardiac motion dynamics over time. These models quantify wall motion abnormalities, ventricular synchrony, and diastolic strain—parameters strongly linked to HF onset.

- By analyzing spatiotemporal patterns in cine-MRI, DL systems can detect **contractile inefficiency** or dyssynchrony characteristic of early HFpEF or HFrEF phenotypes.

4.4 Deep Learning in Cardiac CT

Although primarily used for coronary artery imaging, cardiac CT provides valuable information on **ventricular geometry, mass, and perfusion**.

- DL algorithms can automatically segment cardiac chambers, estimate volumes, and detect calcification or scarring.
- Hybrid CNN-RNN models can evaluate **dynamic CT perfusion** sequences to identify ischemic territories predictive of future HF.
- Combined CT and ECG signal analysis enables **coronary flow-reserve estimation**, correlating with early LV dysfunction risk.

Deep-learning CT analysis is particularly useful in patients with contraindications to MRI or suboptimal echocardiographic windows.

4.5 Multimodal Fusion: Integrating ECG and Imaging Data

Heart failure is a disease of both **electrical and mechanical dysfunction**. Combining ECG and imaging data allows DL models to analyze this duality comprehensively.

4.5.1 Fusion Models

- **Early Fusion:** Combines ECG and image features at the input stage, allowing joint feature extraction.
- **Late Fusion:** Merges independent model outputs (e.g., ECG-derived risk + imaging-derived structural data).



Received: 06-09-2025

Revised: 15-10-2025

Accepted: 14-11-2025

- **Hybrid Fusion:** Integrates both low-level and high-level representations to model interdependence between modalities.

4.5.2 Applications in HF Detection

- ECG features capturing electrical remodeling (e.g., T-wave complexity) combined with imaging features (e.g., strain patterns) improve detection of **asymptomatic LV dysfunction**.
- Multimodal DL systems achieve higher accuracy in classifying HFpEF vs. HFrEF than either modality alone.
- Integrated models enable **personalized risk stratification**, accounting for both electrophysiological and mechanical factors.

4.6 Data Sources and Population-Scale Phenotyping

Large-scale datasets have accelerated DL imaging research:

- **UK Biobank:** Over 40,000 CMR scans paired with ECG and genetic data.
- **EchoNet-Dynamic (Stanford):** >10,000 echocardiographic videos labeled for EF.
- **ACDC Challenge Dataset:** Multi-institutional MRI data for LV segmentation.
- **M&Ms Dataset:** Multimodal dataset combining MRI and CT scans for heart structure modeling.

By analyzing such datasets, DL algorithms can uncover **hidden phenotypic clusters** that transcend conventional EF-based classification—leading to a more granular understanding of HF biology.

4.7 Explainability in Imaging AI

For clinical adoption, DL imaging models must provide interpretable results.

- **Grad-CAM (Gradient-Weighted Class Activation Mapping):** Highlights image regions influencing predictions (e.g., fibrotic zones, wall motion defects).
- **Attention Heatmaps:** Show spatial focus areas in cine sequences for HF detection.
- **Saliency Analysis:** Links visual features to pathophysiological markers (e.g., myocardial strain).

These techniques allow clinicians to validate AI-generated findings against physiologic



expectations, improving **trust and transparency** in model outputs.

4. Imaging-Based Deep Learning for Early Heart Failure (HF) Phenotyping

Cardiac imaging—particularly echocardiography, cardiac magnetic resonance imaging (CMR), and computed tomography (CT)—has long been the cornerstone of heart-failure diagnosis and management. These imaging modalities reveal **structural, functional, and tissue-level changes** in the myocardium that define various HF phenotypes. However, their diagnostic potential has traditionally been constrained by human interpretation, inter-observer variability, and the inherent limitations of conventional feature extraction.

With the integration of **deep learning (DL)**, cardiac imaging is undergoing a paradigm shift—from manual, qualitative assessment toward **automated, quantitative, and predictive phenotyping**. DL models can identify subtle morphological and functional abnormalities in cardiac structure that precede overt symptoms, thereby enabling **early and more precise detection of HF**. By learning directly from imaging data, these algorithms extract latent representations of myocardial health, remodeling, and deformation that are often imperceptible to clinicians.

4.1 The Role of Imaging in Understanding Heart Failure Phenotypes

Cardiac imaging provides direct visualization of the heart's **geometry, function, and tissue composition**, all of which are central to understanding HF pathophysiology.

- **Echocardiography** reveals dynamic parameters such as ejection fraction (EF), diastolic filling, and strain.
- **Cardiac MRI (CMR)** provides high-resolution insights into myocardial tissue properties, including fibrosis, edema, and perfusion.
- **CT** can assess coronary anatomy and ventricular volume with exceptional spatial precision.

Each modality contributes complementary information. Deep-learning systems can fuse these multi-dimensional data to uncover **novel phenotypic clusters** that correlate with specific HF subtypes, risk profiles, and therapeutic responses.

4.2 Deep Learning in Echocardiography

Echocardiography is the first-line imaging tool in HF evaluation due to its portability, safety, and cost-effectiveness. However, traditional echocardiographic assessment is highly operator-dependent and prone to variability. DL models overcome these limitations through **automated view classification, segmentation, and quantitative analysis**.



4.2.1 Automated View Classification and Segmentation

Deep convolutional neural networks (CNNs) can automatically identify standard echocardiographic views (e.g., apical four-chamber, parasternal long-axis) with >98% accuracy.

- **Example:** Madani et al. (Nature, 2018) trained a CNN to classify 15 echocardiographic views using >200,000 images. The model achieved cardiologist-level accuracy and consistency.
- Once classified, DL-based segmentation algorithms delineate cardiac chambers, enabling precise measurement of LV and LA volumes, wall thickness, and ejection fraction—key markers of HF.

4.2.2 Quantitative Functional Assessment

Traditional EF measurement relies on manual tracing and visual estimation. Deep-learning systems can estimate EF directly from raw echocardiographic videos, bypassing manual segmentation.

- **EchoNet-Dynamic (Ouyang et al., Nature, 2020):** A CNN trained on over 10,000 apical four-chamber videos predicted EF within 4% of expert values and identified regional wall motion abnormalities associated with early HF.
- The model's temporal convolutional structure allowed frame-by-frame EF prediction, capturing **beat-to-beat cardiac variability** and early contractile dysfunction.

4.2.3 Strain Analysis and Diastolic Function

Myocardial strain—particularly **global longitudinal strain (GLS)**—is a sensitive early marker of LV dysfunction even when EF is preserved (HFpEF). DL models automatically extract strain parameters from echocardiographic data with high reproducibility, reducing inter-observer variability.

- Deep learning-based strain quantification enables detection of **subclinical systolic dysfunction** in asymptomatic patients with diabetes, hypertension, or chemotherapy exposure—conditions known to precipitate HF.

4.3 Deep Learning in Cardiac Magnetic Resonance Imaging (CMR)

CMR is considered the gold standard for assessing myocardial morphology and tissue characteristics. DL has enhanced its capabilities by automating segmentation, quantification, and feature discovery.



4.3.1 Automated Segmentation and Volume Estimation

Manual contouring of the LV and RV endocardium is time-consuming. DL-based segmentation models, particularly **U-Net** architectures, achieve precise delineation of cardiac chambers, enabling rapid computation of volumes, EF, and mass.

- **Avendi et al. (IEEE TMI, 2016):** Combined CNN and deformable models for LV segmentation with near-human accuracy.
- **Bai et al. (Nat Biomed Eng, 2018):** Developed a U-Net-based segmentation pipeline trained on 100,000 CMR slices from the UK Biobank, enabling automated phenotyping at population scale.

4.3.2 Tissue Characterization and Fibrosis Detection

CMR can quantify **fibrosis, edema, and microvascular ischemia** using late gadolinium enhancement (LGE), T1, and T2 mapping.

- DL models detect **diffuse interstitial fibrosis** in early-stage cardiomyopathy even before LGE becomes visible.
- CNN-based texture analysis identifies subtle intensity variations that correlate with collagen deposition, thus enabling **non-invasive fibrosis quantification**.
- Transformer models are now being explored for mapping voxel-level tissue composition, revealing early signatures of myocardial remodeling.

4.3.3 Functional Phenotyping and Motion Analysis

DL techniques such as **optical flow networks** and **recurrent CNNs** track cardiac motion dynamics over time. These models quantify wall motion abnormalities, ventricular synchrony, and diastolic strain—parameters strongly linked to HF onset.

- By analyzing spatiotemporal patterns in cine-MRI, DL systems can detect **contractile inefficiency** or dyssynchrony characteristic of early HFpEF or HFrEF phenotypes.

4.4 Deep Learning in Cardiac CT

Although primarily used for coronary artery imaging, cardiac CT provides valuable information on **ventricular geometry, mass, and perfusion**.

- DL algorithms can automatically segment cardiac chambers, estimate volumes, and detect calcification or scarring.



Received: 06-09-2025

Revised: 15-10-2025

Accepted: 14-11-2025

- Hybrid CNN-RNN models can evaluate **dynamic CT perfusion** sequences to identify ischemic territories predictive of future HF.
- Combined CT and ECG signal analysis enables **coronary flow-reserve estimation**, correlating with early LV dysfunction risk.

Deep-learning CT analysis is particularly useful in patients with contraindications to MRI or suboptimal echocardiographic windows.

4.5 Multimodal Fusion: Integrating ECG and Imaging Data

Heart failure is a disease of both **electrical and mechanical dysfunction**. Combining ECG and imaging data allows DL models to analyze this duality comprehensively.

4.5.1 Fusion Models

- **Early Fusion:** Combines ECG and image features at the input stage, allowing joint feature extraction.
- **Late Fusion:** Merges independent model outputs (e.g., ECG-derived risk + imaging-derived structural data).
- **Hybrid Fusion:** Integrates both low-level and high-level representations to model interdependence between modalities.

4.5.2 Applications in HF Detection

- ECG features capturing electrical remodeling (e.g., T-wave complexity) combined with imaging features (e.g., strain patterns) improve detection of **asymptomatic LV dysfunction**.
- Multimodal DL systems achieve higher accuracy in classifying HFpEF vs. HFrfEF than either modality alone.
- Integrated models enable **personalized risk stratification**, accounting for both electrophysiological and mechanical factors.

4.6 Data Sources and Population-Scale Phenotyping

Large-scale datasets have accelerated DL imaging research:

- **UK Biobank:** Over 40,000 CMR scans paired with ECG and genetic data.
- **EchoNet-Dynamic (Stanford):** >10,000 echocardiographic videos labeled for EF.



- **ACDC Challenge Dataset:** Multi-institutional MRI data for LV segmentation.
- **M&Ms Dataset:** Multimodal dataset combining MRI and CT scans for heart structure modeling.

By analyzing such datasets, DL algorithms can uncover **hidden phenotypic clusters** that transcend conventional EF-based classification—leading to a more granular understanding of HF biology.

4.7 Explainability in Imaging AI

For clinical adoption, DL imaging models must provide interpretable results.

- **Grad-CAM (Gradient-Weighted Class Activation Mapping):** Highlights image regions influencing predictions (e.g., fibrotic zones, wall motion defects).
- **Attention Heatmaps:** Show spatial focus areas in cine sequences for HF detection.
- **Saliency Analysis:** Links visual features to pathophysiological markers (e.g., myocardial strain).

These techniques allow clinicians to validate AI-generated findings against physiologic expectations, improving **trust and transparency** in model outputs.

Conclusion

Deep learning has emerged as a transformative force in cardiovascular medicine, offering an unprecedented opportunity to detect early heart failure (HF) phenotypes long before symptoms appear or conventional imaging reveals structural changes. By harnessing data from ECG signals, echocardiography, cardiac MRI, and multimodal integration, these models can uncover subtle electrophysiological and mechanical alterations that mark the earliest stages of cardiac dysfunction.

Through advanced architectures such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), recurrent neural networks (RNNs), and transformers, AI systems can autonomously learn complex cardiac patterns with remarkable precision and reproducibility. These technologies hold immense promise for transforming HF from a reactive, late-stage diagnosis into a predictive, preventive, and personalized condition.

However, the journey toward clinical adoption requires rigorous validation, interpretability, and ethical governance. Models must be transparent, unbiased, and generalizable across diverse populations to ensure equitable healthcare delivery. Integrating explainable AI into existing



workflows will foster clinician trust and enable human–machine collaboration rather than competition.

Ultimately, deep learning redefines cardiac diagnostics—not as a replacement for clinical expertise, but as an extension of it. By uniting data-driven intelligence with clinical judgment, healthcare systems can transition from detecting heart failure after it strikes to preventing it before it begins—a milestone in precision cardiology and global cardiac health.

References:

1. Attia ZI, Friedman PA, Noseworthy PA, et al. An artificial intelligence-enabled ECG algorithm for the identification of patients with low ejection fraction. *Nature Medicine*. 2019;25(1):70–74.
2. Raghunath S, Pfeifer JM, Ulloa-Cerna AE, et al. Deep neural networks can predict new-onset atrial fibrillation from the 12-lead ECG and improve outcomes prediction. *Nature Medicine*. 2022;28(7):1450–1456.
3. Ouyang D, He B, Ghorbani A, et al. Video-based AI for beat-to-beat assessment of cardiac function. *Nature*. 2020;580(7802):252–256.
4. Ribeiro AH, Ribeiro MH, Paixão GMM, et al. Automatic diagnosis of the 12-lead ECG using a deep neural network. *Nature Communications*. 2020;11(1):1760.
5. Avendi MR, Kheradvar A, Jafarkhani H. A combined deep-learning and deformable-model approach to fully automatic segmentation of the left ventricle in cardiac MRI. *IEEE Transactions on Medical Imaging*. 2016;35(9):2232–2242.
6. Bai W, Sinclair M, Tarroni G, et al. Automated cardiovascular magnetic resonance image analysis with fully convolutional networks: application to heart failure phenotyping. *Nature Biomedical Engineering*. 2018;2(8):391–400.
7. Kwon JM, Lee SY, Jeon KH, et al. Deep learning for detecting hypertrophic cardiomyopathy on ECG. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*. 2020;75(11):1226–1235.
8. Madani A, Arnaout R, Mofrad M, Arnaout R. Fast and accurate view classification of echocardiograms using deep learning. *Nature*. 2018;555(7697):469–473.
9. Gulshan V, Rajan RP, Widmer RJ, et al. Explainable artificial intelligence for medical imaging: from machine learning to deep learning. *JAMA*. 2020;324(18):1811–1822.



Received: 06-09-2025

Revised: 15-10-2025

Accepted: 14-11-2025

10. Linardatos P, Papastefanopoulos V, Kotsiantis S. Explainable AI: A review of machine learning interpretability methods. *Information Fusion*. 2021;81:146–175.
11. Krittanawong C, Johnson KW, Rosenson RS, et al. Deep learning for cardiovascular medicine: a practical primer. *European Heart Journal – Digital Health*. 2021;2(2):88–97.
12. Topol EJ. High-performance medicine: the convergence of human and artificial intelligence. *Nature Medicine*. 2019;25(1):44–56.