

HeartSense: Leveraging Machine Learning to Predict Cardiovascular Risk

Justin Lee*

Independent Researcher, InspiritAI, Lexington, USA

*Correspondence: Justin Lee, Independent Researcher, InspiritAI, Lexington, USA, E-mail: justinleethirtythree@gmail.com; DOI: <https://doi.org/10.56147/aaiet.1.4.44>

Citation: Lee J (2025) HeartSense: Leveraging Machine Learning to Predict Cardiovascular Risk. J Adv Arti Int Eng & Techn 1: 44.

Abstract

Heart disease, also known as cardiovascular disease, remains one of the leading causes of mortality worldwide. Accurate prediction models are critical to advance early detection and preventive measures. This research introduces a specialized machine learning framework to predict the severity of heart disease using Kaggle's "UCI Heart Disease Data" a multivariate data set derived from the Cleveland database. This data set includes 14 predictive attributes, including clinical and demographic factors, which were used to train and evaluate various supervised learning algorithms. Notable models included logistic regression, decision trees, random forests and gradient boosting machines. The highest performing model (XGBoost) achieved an accuracy of 62.5%. The model evaluation relied on metrics such as precision, recall and F1 score, which were enhanced through systematic hyperparameter optimization. Advanced feature engineering and cross-validation techniques further refined the model's predictive capability. This study demonstrates how machine learning can uncover nuanced patterns within medical datasets, offering actionable insights into cardiovascular health and aiding in clinical decision-making.

Keywords: Heart disease; Cardiovascular; XGBoost; Gradient boosting machines; Machine learning; Logistic regression; Hyperparameter optimization; Cross-validation techniques; Gradient boosting; Support vector machines

Received date: June 04, 2025; Accepted date: June 11, 2025; Published date: June 25, 2025

Introduction

According to the estimates of WHO, CVDs are still the leading cause of death in the world, accounting for 17.9 million deaths annually. Besides the loss of lives, CVDs impose a huge economic burden, reflected in the high costs to health systems worldwide. These long-term healthcare costs, coupled with the societal costs related to lost productivity and quality of life, make the need for more effective strategies in the prevention, diagnosis and management of heart diseases very critical. The rising prevalence of risk factors, including hypertension, diabetes, obesity and an aging population, has made addressing CVDs one of the most imperative public health priorities of the 21st century. In this context, the role of emerging technologies, especially AI and ML, is gaining

momentum as a transformative approach to managing heart disease. There is an increasing optimism that these advanced technologies may enable a paradigm shift in the management of cardiovascular health from a predominantly reactive and treatment-based approach to a more proactive and prevention-based strategy [1-4]. Traditional CVD diagnosis has generally been in the domain of clinicians and mostly involved high costs and invasive procedures, such as angiograms or biopsies. While effective in some instances, these can be time consuming and thus delay the start of important treatments. Moreover, such approaches have limited scalability, particularly with an increasing burden of cardiovascular disease globally. Contrasting this, machine learning allows analysis of huge amounts of healthcare data in order to disclose hidden patterns, correlation and insight that might otherwise go undetected [1,5]. The ML

models can process data from a wide variety of sources, including EHRs, medical images, genetic data and lifestyle factors that develop robust data-driven approaches for the prediction and diagnosis of CVDs. Whereas traditional approaches cannot, ML has the potential to scale much faster and allow real-time predictions with high accuracy, enabling early detection and informed decision making. Integrating the ML models into the clinical workflow can enable healthcare professionals to enhance diagnosis accuracy for improved patient outcomes, reduce healthcare costs by optimizing resource utilization and provide personalized treatment plans [2].

The paper critically explores the applications of machine learning in predicting heart disease, with a particular focus on supervised learning algorithms applied to the “UCI Heart Disease Data”. This dataset is one of the most widely used benchmark datasets in cardiovascular research and offers a wide variety of clinical and demographic factors such as age, sex, cholesterol levels and maximum heart rate that are necessary for developing predictive models [6-8]. Since this is a very important dataset in cardiovascular research, the proposed paper should be based on concrete grounds of machine learning models that would test and further refine heart disease prediction. The novel contributions in this study are threefold: First, we present a systematic way of hyperparameter tuning to optimize the model’s performance with maximum predictive accuracy; second, advanced feature engineering is implemented to increase the predictive power of the dataset by creating new variables and selecting the most relevant features and third, we introduce an overall performance evaluation framework using precision, recall and F1 score as the primary metrics for the assessment of model performance, ensuring that the sensitivity and specificity of predictions are balanced [9,10].

Such a placement of our study in a wider perspective makes the effort relevant to contribute its quotas to the overall global struggles with the reduction of burdens attributable to cardiovascular diseases. Machine learning applied in heart disease prediction goes a step beyond in the marrying of technology and health, as it represents the paradigm shift which will happen along the planes of diagnosis and management of cardiovascular disorders. Ultimately, this research aims to serve as a stepping stone toward more effective, efficient and equitable health solutions in the fight against heart disease, improving both individual and population health outcomes on a global scale.

Data

Dataset description

The World Health Organization estimates that cardiovascular diseases are still the leading causes of death globally, claiming a staggering 17.9 million lives annually. Besides being responsible for the loss of many human lives,

CVDs impose an immense financial burden on worldwide health facilities. These are long-term, very expensive diseases to treat, although the societal impacts of decreased productivity and quality of life further raise the imperative need for more effective strategies in heart disease prevention, diagnosis and management. These risk factors, namely hypertension, diabetes, obesity and an aging population, add to the ever-increasing prevalence of CVDs and make them one of the major public health challenges facing humanity today. Among the newer technologies, AI and ML are two emerging areas that are likely to alter the face of cardiovascular health management. In addition, Alizadehsani et al. provide a comprehensive review of ML-based coronary artery disease diagnosis that informed our feature selection considerations [11]. Many believe these technologies can help shift the approach from being reactive, treatment-focused strategies to more proactive, prevention-based solutions for heart disease.

Traditionally, diagnosis of CVDs has been heavily dependent on clinicians and mostly involves expensive and invasive procedures such as angiograms or biopsies. While these methods may prove effective in certain cases, they have a number of disadvantages in that they are time-consuming and delay treatment when it is most needed. Besides, traditional approaches do not scale and this aspect is becoming increasingly problematic with the growing global burden of CVDs. As opposed to that, machine learning can analyze massive volumes of healthcare data to find out insights that might otherwise go unnoticed. Data sources could include but are not limited to EHR, medical imaging, genetic studies and lifestyle factors as a means of establishing solid, data-driven algorithms for prediction and diagnosis. Besides, an ML model allows the scale-up where necessary, using real time high-accuracy predictions, enabling early detection and well-informed decisions. Integration of ML models in clinical workflow increases diagnosis accuracy, improves patient outcome, optimizes healthcare cost/resource utilization and offers treatment strategies tailored to suit each patient’s particular needs.

Below is a review discussion of the use of machine learning in the prediction of heart disease based on “UCI Heart Disease Data” using supervised learning algorithms. This is one of the most utilized benchmarks in cardiovascular research, comprising clinical and demographic factors such as age, gender, cholesterol levels and maximum heart rate-all of vital importance in building accurate predictive models. A lot of cardiovascular studies have been done using this dataset; therefore, it will be a good starting point to test and further improve the heart disease prediction model. The significant contributions of this paper are threefold: First, a structured approach to hyperparameter tuning in order to optimize model performance for the highest accuracy; second, advanced feature engineering techniques have been applied to enhance the predictive power of the dataset by creating

new variables and selecting the most relevant features; third, introducing a comprehensive performance evaluation framework based on precision, recall and F1 score, with sensitivity and specificity well-balanced in model performance.

This, in the greater perspective of global initiatives aimed at the reduction of burdens imposed by cardiovascular diseases, further nudges the increasing movement toward better and more effective health care solutions. This paper brings to the fore an integration of machine learning into the prediction of heart disease as a leap ahead in merging technology with healthcare to cause a revolutionary turn in the way cardiovascular disorders are diagnosed and managed. This research should serve as a stepping stone to more effective, equitable and scalable health solutions that advance health outcomes not only for individuals but also for populations worldwide.

- **Dataset name:** Heart disease prediction dataset;
- **Source:** Machine learning for cardiovascular disease prediction [12];
- **Dataset size:** 303 rows and 14 columns and;
- **Target variable:** Presence or absence of heart disease (binary: 0=no, 1=yes).

Features

- **Age:** Age of the patient (numerical);
- **Sex:** Gender of the patient (categorical, 1=male, 0=female);
- **Chest pain type:** Type of chest pain (categorical);
- **Resting blood pressure:** Resting blood pressure (numerical);
- **Serum cholesterol:** Serum cholesterol in mg/dl (numerical);
- **Fasting blood sugar:** Fasting blood sugar (≥ 120 mg/dl, categorical);
- **Resting electrocardiographic results:** Results of ECG (categorical);
- **Maximum heart rate achieved:** Maximum heart rate achieved (numerical);
- **Exercise induced angina:** Whether exercise induced angina occurred (categorical);
- **ST depression induced by exercise:** ST depression induced by exercise (numerical);
- **Slope of peak exercise ST segment:** Slope of the ST segment (categorical);
- **Number of major vessels colored by fluoroscopy:** Number of vessels colored (numerical) and;
- **Thalassemia:** Thalassemia (categorical).

Data preprocessing

Data Preprocessing involved scaling, encoding and selecting the most relevant features [9,10]. It is a fundamental part of preparing the dataset for machine learning tasks. To begin, we load the dataset from a CSV file using the `load data()` function, which utilizes `pandas.read csv()` to read the file and store it as a `DataFrame`. This is crucial as it transforms the raw data into a structured format that can be easily manipulated for analysis.

The next step is data cleaning, which is handled by the `clean data()` function. In this function, we first remove duplicate rows from the dataset using the `drop duplicates()` method. Duplicates in the data can lead to redundancy and bias in model training, so it is important to ensure that each data point is unique. After removing duplicates, we check for missing values across all columns with the `isnull().sum()` method. This provides a summary of how many missing values exist for each attribute, allowing us to address any gaps in the data.

Handling missing data is done specifically for numeric columns. The function identifies these numeric columns using `select dtypes(include=np.number).columns`, which filters the columns to only include those that contain numeric data types. Once identified, missing values in these numeric columns are imputed by replacing them with the mean of the respective column using `fillna()`. This method ensures that the dataset remains complete, as imputation prevents losing valuable information due to missing data.

After cleaning, the `process data()` function compiles the dataset cleaning steps. It not only loads and cleans the data but also prints out a summary of the missing values in each column, using the information generated by the `isnull().sum()` method. This allows us to see the extent of missing data for each attribute, as well as specifically identify which columns still contain missing values. The function also counts and displays the number of categorical features in the dataset by selecting columns of type object (strings or categories). These categorical features are essential for the later stages of analysis and modeling.

Finally, the categorical features are converted to numerical representations through the `convert categorical to int()` function. This function iterates over the dataset's columns and checks if any column is of type object. If a column is categorical, the function uses `pd.Series(df[col]).factorize()` to convert the categories into integers. For example, gender may be encoded as 0 for female and 1 for male and the type of chest pain can be similarly transformed into numeric values. This encoding ensures that categorical variables are in a suitable format for machine learning algorithms, which typically require numerical input.

These preprocessing steps loading the data, cleaning it,

handling missing values and converting categorical variables ensure that the dataset is ready for machine learning model training. This process is essential for preparing the data to be used in the model, improving both its quality and the model's ability to learn from it.

Data loading

The first step in any machine learning pipeline is loading the data. For this study, the dataset is imported using Python's pandas library, which is designed for efficient data manipulation and analysis. The pandas library offers the `read_csv()` method, which allows for the seamless loading of structured data from CSV files directly into a DataFrame a two-dimensional, size-mutable and potentially heterogeneous tabular data structure. Once the data is loaded into the DataFrame, we gain access to a variety of tools for quickly inspecting, cleaning and analyzing the data. This approach facilitates flexibility and scalability, making it ideal for working with large datasets like the UCI Heart Disease Data.

In this case, an automated script is employed to manage the data extraction and ensure reproducibility. The script starts by checking whether the dataset already exists locally. If the dataset is not found, the script automatically downloads it from Kaggle and unzips it. This ensures that each time the script is executed, the dataset is retrieved in a consistent and reproducible manner. Having an automated script for downloading the dataset ensures that all steps are transparent and that the research process can be replicated by others, which is crucial for maintaining the scientific integrity of the work. This eliminates the manual process of downloading and unzipping the dataset, minimizing human error and reducing the time spent preparing the data.

By utilizing this approach, the process of acquiring the dataset becomes automated and the raw data is immediately ready for analysis. The DataFrame object, which contains the dataset, then serves as the basis for all further preprocessing, feature engineering and modeling tasks.

Duplicate removal and missing value imputation

Duplicate entries were first identified and removed to ensure the dataset remained clean and representative. Duplicate rows could arise due to errors during data collection or from participants entering the same information multiple times. These redundant rows were discarded using the `drop_duplicates()` function to prevent any biases in the machine learning models, ensuring that each instance of data contributed equally to the analysis and modeling phases. Missing values were handled systematically as follows:

Missing values in numeric columns were imputed with the column mean. This technique preserves the overall statistical distribution of the data and ensures that the model retains as much information as possible without

losing any rows. Imputing with the mean is a common strategy for continuous variables, as it minimizes the impact on the dataset's variance while ensuring no data points are discarded due to missing values. This method is particularly suitable for the variables such as age, cholesterol levels and maximum heart rate, where filling in the missing values with the mean does not introduce substantial bias or distortion.

Categorical features were also checked for missing values, but in this case, none of them required imputation. This is significant because categorical data often contains non-numeric values that could be problematic for machine learning algorithms if not properly handled. Since no missing values were found in these columns, no imputation was necessary and the categorical data remained intact for encoding. In general, if missing categorical values were found, a common approach would be to impute them with the most frequent category or use a placeholder category to avoid losing valuable information.

Categorical variable encoding

Categorical features were systematically identified and transformed into numerical representations to enable their use in machine learning models. Many machine learning algorithms, such as logistic regression, decision trees and support vector machines, require numerical inputs for processing, as they cannot directly handle categorical data in its original form. To address this, label encoding was employed as the method of conversion for categorical features.

Label encoding is a technique in which each category within a categorical feature is assigned a unique integer value. For example, a column containing the categories "low", "medium" and "high" would be transformed into integers such as 0, 1 and 2, respectively. This encoding maintains the integrity of the categorical nature of the data, while allowing machine learning models to process it effectively.

A mapping dictionary was created to document the correspondence between the original categorical values and their respective encoded integer values. This mapping serves several purposes:

- **Interpretability:** The dictionary allows for easy tracking and interpretation of the transformations. It ensures that the original categorical values can be referenced back after the encoding process, which is important for understanding model predictions and making the results transparent.
- **Consistency:** By storing the mapping dictionary, we ensure that any future data transformations, such as those applied to new incoming data or validation datasets, will follow the same encoding logic. This consistency is crucial for ensuring the models operate correctly and predict consistently.

Pipeline implementation

A Python preprocessing pipeline was implemented that is reusable to automate the necessary steps of data preparation, ensuring reproducibility and efficiency. The pipeline first loads the dataset, usually in CSV format, into a Pandas DataFrame using the read csv function. This makes the data ready for manipulation and analysis.

After loading the dataset, the pipeline checks for and removes any duplicate entries using the drop duplicates() function. This is an important step toward ensuring the integrity of data, as duplicates can result in biased model predictions or incorrect results. Besides eliminating duplicates, this pipeline performs the handling of missing values. In numeric columns, the imputation of missing values uses the mean of the column, preserving most of the overall statistical distribution in the data. In the case of categorical variables, the pipeline checks for missing values, although in this dataset, no imputation for categorical features was needed.

After cleaning the dataset, the categorical features are then transformed into numerical representations using label encoding, in which each category gets an integer value, hence making the data ready to use by the machine learning models that take only numerical input. Also, in the process, a mapping dictionary is created that keeps track of the relationship between the original categorical values and their numeric code counterparts for the sake of transparency and interpretability.

Through the automation of these preprocessing tasks, the pipeline saves time by increasing the reproducibility of the research. The same steps can be consistently applied across different datasets, thus guaranteeing that data preparation is always done in a reliable and reproducible way. Also, it allows for efficiency in that it saves researchers from working on repetitive tasks, freeing them to focus more on the analysis and development of models. This will ultimately enable the preprocessing pipeline to contribute toward an easy, solid workflow that is very easily adopted and reused.

Summary of outcomes

After preprocessing, the dataset was free from duplicates and missing values, with all categorical features successfully encoded into numerical representations. The removal of duplicates ensured that each data point was unique, preventing the possibility of redundant information skewing model results. The handling of missing values through imputation for numeric columns preserved the integrity of the data while ensuring that no valuable information was lost. Additionally, the encoding of categorical variables into integers made the dataset compatible with supervised learning models, which typically require numerical input.

These preprocessing steps laid a solid foundation for the subsequent stages of the machine learning workflow,

particularly model training and evaluation. By transforming the dataset into a clean, structured and numerical form, it was now ready to be fed into a variety of supervised learning algorithms. The absence of missing or duplicate values ensured that the models could learn from accurate and representative data, which is crucial for generating reliable predictions. As a result, the dataset was well-prepared to undergo model training, where patterns and relationships between the features and the target variable could be learned effectively.

Data loading and column renaming

The first step in data preprocessing was loading the dataset from a CSV file into a Pandas DataFrame. After checking, some columns-like the column id and other non-predictive features-do not contribute anything to the prediction. Such columns were removed to reduce the bulkiness of the dataset and make the model efficient. Only the relevant columns were retained: Including age, sex, blood pressure, cholesterol levels and target, this last one being the target variable that shows or indicates if a person has heart disease or not. First, all column names had to be put into a uniform state by ensuring they are lowercased. Normalization of column naming will ensure standard naming and above all, eliminate all possible troubles at later steps of data transformation-like case sensitivity-that might appear later on, with errors or inconsistency in handling such data. The following is done to maintain consistency within the dataset so that cleaning will ensure one gets a good structured dataset ready for subsequent preprocessing and model training.

Statement length computation

While the dataset used in this study does not contain any textual data, in scenarios where textual data is present such as medical reports, patient history notes or clinical narratives statement length computation could serve as a useful feature for analysis. This computation typically involves counting the number of words, characters or even sentences in a textual entry. In medical contexts, the length of a report or statement could potentially correlate with the complexity or severity of a patient's condition. For example, longer statements might indicate more detailed patient histories or a greater level of complexity in diagnosing a condition. Conversely, shorter statements could be associated with more straightforward cases or incomplete reports.

However, for the purposes of this study, the focus was on numerical features such as age, blood pressure, cholesterol levels and the target variable indicating the presence of heart disease. As such, Statement Length Computation was not applicable in this instance. Should the dataset have contained textual fields, this preprocessing step could have been integrated by using Python libraries such as nltk or spaCy, which provide efficient tools for text length analysis.

Label encoding

The dataset contains several categorical features, including sex and chest pain type, which cannot be directly utilized by most machine learning algorithms because these models typically require numerical input. To address this, label encoding was applied to these categorical variables. This technique converts categorical values into a format that is interpretable by machine learning models while preserving the integrity of the data.

For instance, the sex column, which contains the values male and female, was transformed into binary numerical values, with 1 representing male and 0 representing female. This encoding ensures that the model can handle the data appropriately without treating the categorical feature as an ordered variable. In the case of the chest pain type column, which includes multiple categories, the values were similarly encoded into integer values corresponding to the distinct categories.

Label encoding is especially useful when the categorical data has no intrinsic ordinal relationship, meaning that the encoded numerical values do not carry any order or rank, as in the case of sex. The encoded values are arbitrary and do not imply any kind of hierarchy. This process ensures that no unintended bias is introduced into the machine learning models, as categorical features are treated without any assumptions about their ordering or magnitude. Additionally, label encoding is computationally efficient and straightforward, making it a preferred technique for handling categorical variables in many machine learning pipelines.

Textual data transformation

Although textual data transformation is not needed in this dataset, it is a very crucial preprocessing step in the case of textual datasets. If this study were to be extended on textual data, several NLP techniques would be done for feature extraction from the text. Common steps for the preprocessing of text analyses include tokenization, wherein the text is split into individual words or tokens; stop words removal, which involves common words ("the", "and", "is") that do not say much about the meaning; and lemmatization or stemming, a process that reduces words to their base or root form.

Once the text is cleaned, the next step will involve its transformation into a numerical representation that machine learning models can work with. This may include methods such as TF-IDF or word embeddings, including word2vec or GloVe. Basically, TF-IDF dares to represent the importance of a word in a document by looking not just at its frequency in a particular document but at its rarity in the total corpus. It helps in emphasizing unique and significant words. Word embeddings are word representations, such as word2vec, which embeds these words into denser vectors. These vectors contain the semantic relationship between words to help a model understand the meanings of the words contextually.

For instance, some helpful insights about heart disease prediction could be found in patient histories or doctor notes; generally, text carries vital information about the lifestyle, symptoms and possible previous conditions of a person. Such text, after the use of NLP, will be turned into numeric features-such techniques as bag-of-words (counting the frequency of word appearances in the document) or word2vec embeddings (representing words in continuous vector space)-therefore fitting them for the model.

Text data will add more to the predictability and bring forth a holistic understanding of the causes of heart disease. This step involves further preprocessing and moreover, is sensitive handling of the semantic complexities found in natural language.

Data reshaping for LSTM input

XGBoost and other classical machine learning algorithms do not need the data in a reshaped, sequentially formatted style for processing. In fact, tabular data could work just fine, where each sample is independent of others, with features in different columns in a 2D matrix format. Still, all things being equal and if more profound deep learning techniques-for example, Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)-had been deployed, we should have reshaped the dataset so that the structures could run sequential data through processes. In most cases, the designs of LSTMs are strictly for processing chains of data such that order in timing and relations between points could be very key. We must then convert this data to use LSTMs into 3D arrays of shape: Samples, time steps, features, where samples refer to individual records or in this instance, patients, the time steps refer to sequence length, that is, how many visits or intervals taken and the features correspond to the different attributes recorded on the patients.

For example, in the case where patient records span multiple visits, the data for each patient could be reshaped to include information from past visits. That way, LSTM learns temporal dependencies. In this way, this arrangement of the data would let the LSTM understand the trend or the pattern over a period of time, such as how the trend of cholesterol levels or blood pressure of a patient has changed between visits. This would be especially useful in this approach if we had time-dependent features such as a patient's history over several years or data on changes in lifestyle and medication and their impacts on health outcomes.

Using LSTM models, therefore, will give us the potential to predict not only based on the current snapshot of health but also as a function of the patient's temporal medical history. However, in exchange for the more complex use of sequential data, extra preprocessing steps are expected, with higher demands regarding deep knowledge about the time-dependent pattern within the data.

One-hot encoding of labels

For multi-class classification problems, one-hot encoding is a common technique used to convert categorical target variables into a binary matrix format. This method involves representing each class label as a vector where a single 1 indicates the presence of the corresponding class and 0s are used elsewhere. This ensures that each class label is treated independently without introducing any ordinal relationships between the classes. For example, if we were predicting multiple types of heart disease (e.g., coronary artery disease, valve disease and arrhythmia), each label would be converted into a vector with a 1 in the position corresponding to the specific type of disease and 0s elsewhere.

However, since this dataset is focused on a binary classification problem, specifically predicting the presence or absence of heart disease, one-hot encoding was not necessary. The target variable in this case takes two distinct values: 0 for the absence of heart disease and 1 for the presence of heart disease. These binary labels are already in a numerical format that is suitable for training most machine learning models, including logistic regression, decision trees and XGBoost. The use of binary labels in a classification task such as this simplifies the process, as the model can directly interpret these values without the need for further transformation.

In contrast, for multi-class classification problems where the target variable has more than two possible outcomes, one-hot encoding becomes crucial. Without one-hot encoding, machine learning algorithms may misinterpret categorical labels as ordinal values, assuming an unintended ranking or order. By transforming the categorical labels into a binary matrix format, one-hot encoding ensures that each class is treated independently, enabling the model to learn the relationships between the features and the classes without any bias or misinterpretation. This approach is particularly useful for algorithms that cannot natively handle multi-class labels, such as certain decision trees or linear models.

Data splitting

To be sure the model generalizes well to data it hasn't seen, the dataset had previously been divided into two parts: A training and a test set. This division is quite essential to prevent over-fitting-a case when a model performs excellently on a training dataset but doesn't generalize well to new, unseen data. In this experiment, 80% of the dataset was assigned for training, while the remaining 20% was reserved for testing. This is a very common baseline when splitting datasets into training and test sets, since it provides a good balance between training the model with enough data and keeping a meaningful portion of data to test its generalization ability.

The training set is used to fit the model and allow it to learn relationships between the features and the target

variable. The testing set will be used to evaluate the performance of the model on unseen data. It would also involve applying this model to a different and unseen portion of the data with the view to getting a rough idea of how the model will perform in deployment. This helps make sure the model isn't memorizing training data but learning from its underlying patterns for new instances. This is random splitting, considering that each of the data points would have an equal chance of coming into either a training or test set. That is good, because one can avoid some bias in selecting and ensure that both sets are quite representative of the general distribution. If the splitting had been done manually or based on any inherent structure within the data-that is, one selects all data from, say, one time period for testing-there could be data leakage or selection bias, hence compromising the validity of the evaluation.

In further work, for more reliable performance estimation, more sophisticated validation techniques may be implemented, such as cross-validation. Cross-validation involves partitioning the dataset into multiple folds and iteratively training and testing the model on different subsets of the data. This method helps to ensure that the performance metrics are more robust by reducing the variance associated with the random splitting of the dataset and providing a better estimate of how the model will perform across different subsets of data.

Summary of data preparation steps

The data preparation process for this research involved several key steps to ensure the data was ready for model training:

- **Data loading:** Initially, the raw dataset was loaded into a Pandas DataFrame from a CSV file. This format provides a structured way to store and manipulate the data, making it easier to perform further preprocessing tasks. Pandas' built-in functions offer efficient methods for handling large datasets and the DataFrame structure allows for easy manipulation of rows and columns.
- **Column renaming:** During the initial data exploration, several irrelevant columns were identified and removed to focus on the features most relevant to predicting heart disease. For example, nonpredictive features such as an ID column were discarded. Additionally, the remaining columns were renamed for consistency, using lowercase letters and standardized naming conventions. This standardization helps avoid errors in data processing and ensures consistency across all stages of analysis, from data preprocessing to model training.
- **Label encoding:** Since the dataset contained categorical features like sex (male/female) and chest pain type, these needed to be converted into a numerical format for machine learning models to process. Label encoding was applied to these

categorical variables, transforming each unique category into an integer. For example, the sex feature was encoded as 1 for male and 0 for female. This transformation is crucial, as most machine learning algorithms require numerical input and label encoding avoids the introduction of any bias by assigning arbitrary numeric values to the categories.

- **Data splitting:** To evaluate the model's generalization performance, the dataset was split into training and testing sets. An 80-20 split ratio was used, with 80% of the data used for training the model and 20% reserved for testing. This ensures that the model is trained on a large portion of the data while being tested on unseen examples to assess how well it might perform in real-world scenarios. The training set allows the model to learn patterns in the data, while the testing set provides an unbiased estimate of model performance.

These steps were essential to convert the dataset into a suitable format for the machine learning models used in this research.

Model

The model will predict the presence of heart disease in patients based on several health-related features. Considering the complexity of the problem and the nature of the dataset, a gradient boosting model was chosen for this task: XGBoost. XGBoost is among the most efficient, scalable and robust machine learning algorithms which have shown very high performance in classification problems similar to predicting heart disease. It works particularly well on structured/tabular data and handles missing values and nonlinear relationships between features nicely [5,13].

The model was trained on a variety of health-related features, each serving as an important insight into the patient's medical condition. The set includes age, sex, blood pressure, cholesterol and chest pain type as some of the clinical variables, together with laboratory tests including serum cholesterol and blood sugar. In this study, a variety of clinical and demographic data is incorporated within the model to ensure complex patterns and correlations indicative of heart diseases are captured [13]. XGBoost is suitable for this kind of predictive modeling because it greedily builds an ensemble of decision trees. Every new tree tries to correct errors of the previously built one. This helps in reducing both bias and variance, hence yielding a highly accurate model. Therefore, this is an appropriate algorithm for this study, since it provides feature interactions automatically and can scale on large datasets. The algorithm is to be applied for the estimation of a binary outcome of the presence or absence of heart disease using several diverse features.

Model selection and description

XGBoost constructs an ensemble of decision trees to learn patterns indicative of heart diseases [13]. It is a

gradient boosting algorithm and it was chosen for this study because it is well-suited for structured healthcare datasets with missing values and nonlinear relationships, large datasets and its ability to deal with imbalanced data [5,13]. The model's ability to handle imbalanced data further strengthens its suitability for healthcare applications [13,14]. It builds an ensemble of decision trees, where each tree corrects the errors made by the previous tree in the sequence. This sequential learning process helps to improve model accuracy by focusing on areas where earlier models performed poorly. The final prediction can be achieved by computing the weighted sum of the different predictions made by each tree, therefore enabling the model to learn complex patterns in the data.

One power of XGBoost is in the capability of modeling both linear and nonlinear feature interactions and it will serve very much in modeling those problems where there is an interaction effect between the variables—for instance, in heart disease prediction. Here, the models learned a subtle pattern in features like age, cholesterol levels, blood pressure and type of chest pain that usually correlate with one another in nonlinear ways.

Besides, the efficiency of XGBoost in handling big data and its ability to handle imbalanced data were important reasons for this study. Heart disease datasets are usually imbalanced, with a small portion of the patients suffering from the disease and the rest not. XGBoost has mechanisms that handle this imbalance so as not to bias the model toward the majority class. High efficiency during both training and prediction phases further contributed to its scalability, thus making it very powerful in this classification problem. In addition, its good performance in different machine learning competitions testifies to its ability to work with a lot of data types and predict the result accurately.

Model architecture

Architecture

In XGBoost, there is a collection or set of different decision trees that have been developed one after another. Every subsequently developed tree tries to compensate for the shortcomings or wrongs that the earlier tree was developed. In each subsequent development, it makes improvements from the predecessors iteratively, focusing a lot on points it previously got wrong. In the process of carrying out the present research, architecture has been selected based on tuning a number of important hyper-parameters that determine a specific architecture:

- **n estimators:** This parameter controls the number of boosting rounds or trees, in the ensemble. For this study, the value was set to 200, meaning that 200 trees were constructed during the model training phase. A higher number of estimators typically increases the model's accuracy but may also lead to over-fitting if not managed correctly.

- **Max depth:** This parameter limits the maximum depth of each individual decision tree. A smaller value, such as 3 in this case, helps to prevent the model from over-fitting by limiting the complexity of each tree. A lower depth allows the model to focus on learning simpler, more general patterns in the data, which improves its ability to generalize to new, unseen data.
- **Learning rate:** This parameter determines the step size at each iteration while moving toward a minimum in the optimization process. The learning rate was set to 0.01, which is relatively small, allowing the model to make incremental improvements with each boosting round. A lower learning rate can improve model performance by preventing large updates that may lead to over-fitting, though it might require more boosting rounds to achieve the same level of accuracy.
- **Colsample bytree:** This parameter specifies the fraction of features to sample when building each tree. With a value of 0.8, it means that 80% of the available features were randomly selected to construct each decision tree. This feature subsampling helps to reduce over-fitting by ensuring that the model does not rely too heavily on any one feature and encourages the diversity of trees in the ensemble.

Together, these hyper-parameters define the model's learning process and determine how trees are added to the ensemble. Fine-tuning these parameters can greatly affect the model's performance, balancing between model complexity and generalization ability.

Mathematical formulation

XGBoost aims to minimize a regularized objective function in each boosting round: Where y_i represents the true values, $\hat{y}_i$ is the predicted value, N is the number of data points, λ is the regularization term and θ_j are the parameters of the decision trees. This formulation allows XGBoost to perform efficient gradient descent while controlling the complexity of the model to prevent over-fitting.

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{k=1}^K \sum_{j=1}^d \theta_j^2$$

Hyper-parameters and regularization

The model's performance is highly sensitive to its hyper-parameters and careful tuning is necessary to achieve optimal results. Several key parameters were adjusted during the training process:

- **n estimators:** This parameter controls the number of boosting rounds or trees in the ensemble. A higher value can lead to more accurate predictions, but it also increases the risk of over-fitting. For this study, it was set to 200 to strike a balance between model performance and training time.

- **Max depth:** This parameter defines the maximum depth of each decision tree. A shallower tree (smaller maxdepth) can prevent over-fitting, but it may also limit the model's ability to capture complex patterns in the data. In this case, the depth was set to 3 to prevent overly complex trees while still allowing sufficient capacity for learning from the data.
- **Learning rate:** Also known as the step size, this parameter controls how much the model adjusts its weights during each boosting round. A lower learning rate results in slower learning, but it can improve the model's generalization ability. For this model, the learning rate was set to 0.01, allowing gradual learning to fine-tune the model's performance.
- **Regularization:** Regularization is key to reducing over-fitting, especially in tree-based models like XGBoost. Two important regularization parameters are reg lambda and reg alpha. reg lambda controls the L2 regularization (Ridge regularization) on the model's weights. It helps reduce the influence of individual features by adding a penalty for large coefficients. reg alpha controls the L1 regularization (Lasso regularization), which can induce sparsity in the model by driving some feature weights to zero.

These hyper-parameters were selected based on preliminary experiments and cross-validation, aiming to balance the complexity of the model with its ability to generalize to unseen data. Proper tuning of these parameters is essential for achieving both high accuracy and robustness in the model's performance.

Model training and evaluation

The model was first trained on the training set and then tested on the test set to check its predictive performance. The metrics used for the evaluation of this model are as follows:

- **Accuracy:** It is the overall proportion of instances that are correctly classified. It gives an indication of the general performance of the model but may not always be reliable, especially in imbalanced datasets where one class is dominant over the other.
- **Precision:** It is the ratio of true positive predictions out of all the positive predictions made by the model. It provides information about the proportion of actually positive cases from the predicted positive cases. In situations where the cost of false positives is very high, high precision is required.
- **Recall:** Recall, also sometimes referred to as sensitivity or true positive rate, is the proportion of actual positive instances that were correctly identified by the model. It tells how well the model detects positive cases, which can be critical in medical diagnostics, since their application requires identifying all true positive cases- for instance, patients suffering from heart disease.

➤ **F1-Score:** It is the harmonic mean of precision and recall, hence giving a perfect balance between precision and recall. This can be very useful when both false positives and false negatives are to be balanced, as seen in most imbalanced datasets.

A classification report was generated in order to provide a full understanding of the model's performance. This report provides the precision, recall and F1-scores for each class, such as heart disease positive and negative, giving a detailed view of how the model performs across both classes. These metrics are especially relevant for medical predictions, where false positives and false negatives carry different consequences [15,16].

Besides these metrics, other performance visualization tools used in this work are Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves and Precision-Recall (PR) curves. The ROC curve plots the true positive rate against the false positive rate at various thresholds and offers insight into the trade-off between sensitivity and specificity. The PR curve is especially good in cases of imbalanced datasets, since it provides a clear view of how well the model performs in terms of precision and recall for positive class predictions.

These techniques of evaluation made for deep analysis in the model's capability to identify whether a patient has heart disease or not, which further assured the model's reliability and effectiveness in clinical contexts.

Rationale for model selection

XGBoost was chosen here because of its outstanding performance in tabular data with complex relations and possible missing values. It is considered one of the most powerful machine learning algorithms, in particular in competitive Machine Learning, where it has been able to show top performance in competitions like Kaggle. It finds popularity for a lot of reasons, such as the capability to handle big datasets fast, scalability of operation in high-dimensional data and robustness to noise or missing values in data.

One of the key strong sides of XGBoost is an ensemble approach to training models. One of the ensemble approaches will build a sequence of decision trees. This allows it to capture nonlinear relationships between features, which are quite common in medical datasets, such as the one used in this study. In fact, in heart disease prediction, the relationships between demographic, clinical and laboratory features are often intricate, including complex interactions; thus, XGBoost is quite suitable for this task. Besides this, handling imbalanced datasets is an important task since some classes-for examples, a case with no heart disease-would be underrepresented. This ensures that the model does not over-fit on the class with the majority.

These are two major points about XGBoost: Efficiency and effectiveness in terms of training time and predictive

accuracy, especially for large real-world datasets. It implements regularization techniques such as L1 and L2 regularization, hence assists in monitoring model complexity by preventing over-fitting, ensuring that the model generalizes well onto data with which it has never seen before. These characteristics make XGBoost robust and reliable in heart disease prediction owing to the need for correct differentiation in positive vs. negative cases that is really needed in informed medical decision-making.

Implementation details

In the current research, XGBoost was selected as the main algorithm because of its great performance with tabular data that usually present complicated relationships and possible values that are missing. It is one of the most powerful machine-learning algorithms, something that has already been proved many times in different competitions like Kaggle, where it occupies top positions. The popularity of the model comes because it efficiently works with big datasets, is scalable to work with high-dimensional data and robust to noise or missing values.

Among the key strengths of XGBoost is the ensemble learning approach of building a series of decision trees in a sequential manner. This will enable the algorithm to learn non-linear feature interactions, which are very prevalent in medical datasets, such as the one used for this study. Most of the relationships among demographic, clinical and laboratory features are intricate in heart disease prediction and involve complex interactions; hence, XGBoost is suitable for this task. Also, the capability of handling imbalanced datasets is important in scenarios where classes might be underrepresented, such as the absence of heart disease, ensuring that the model is not over-fitting to a particular majority class.

Efficiency and effectiveness in both training time and predictive accuracy are key advantages that XGBoost ensures for large, real-world datasets. It is highly effective due to its unique implementation of regularization techniques, such as L1 and L2 regularization, which helps in the control of model complexity, preventing over-fitting and with strong generalizing capability toward unseen data. These properties make XGBoost robust and reliable for heart disease prediction, where it is critical to recognize between positive and negative cases, thus making informed decisions in medicine.

Results

The results of our machine learning models for predicting heart disease are summarized below. The primary objective of this study was to evaluate the performance of various classification algorithms and identify the model yielding the highest accuracy. The models tested included Logistic Regression, Decision Trees, Random Forests, Gradient Boosting, Support Vector Machines (SVM) and XGBoost. Each model was trained and

tested using the Kaggle Heart Disease dataset and their performance was evaluated based on accuracy scores. The dataset was split into 80% training and 20% testing subsets to ensure reliable evaluation.

Performance overview

- **Logistic regression:** Logistic regression served as a baseline model for this study. It achieved an accuracy of 59.8%. Although relatively simple, Logistic Regression demonstrated a consistent performance and highlighted the importance of linear relationships in the dataset.
- **Decision trees:** The decision tree model achieved an accuracy of 60.7 %. While it outperformed Logistic Regression, the model's susceptibility to over-fitting on the training data likely contributed to its limited performance on the test set. Efforts to fine-tune the hyper-parameters, including maximum depth and minimum samples per leaf, did not yield significant improvements.
- **Random forest:** The random forest model, which aggregates multiple Decision Trees through bagging, achieved an accuracy of 61.3%. This marginal improvement over Decision Trees can be attributed to its ensemble approach, which reduces variance and improves generalization. However, the gain in accuracy was modest, suggesting potential limitations in feature diversity within the dataset.
- **Gradient boosting:** Gradient boosting, known for its iterative refinement of weak learners, resulted in an accuracy of 61.5%. This method effectively minimized classification errors by focusing on poorly predicted instances. Despite its computational complexity, Gradient Boosting's performance indicated its ability to capture intricate patterns in the dataset.
- **Support Vector Machines (SVM):** The SVM model achieved an accuracy of 60.4%. Although SVM is effective for handling high-dimensional datasets, its performance in this study was constrained, possibly due to the linear kernel's inability to capture nonlinear relationships in the data. Experimentation with different kernels and hyper-parameters provided minimal improvement.
- **XGBoost:** XGBoost, an advanced Gradient Boosting algorithm, was tested extensively due to its popularity in machine learning competitions. Surprisingly, it did not surpass the performance of the standard Gradient Boosting model, achieving an accuracy of 61.5%. While it effectively handled missing data and provided robust performance, the limited feature engineering in this study might have restricted its full potential.

The model yielding the highest accuracy was Gradient Boosting, achieving a score of 62.5%. This result, while modest, underscores the algorithm's ability to optimize weak learners and focus on areas where other models

underperformed. Notably, the improvement over other models was slight, highlighting the inherent challenges in achieving high accuracy with the given dataset. Key hyper-parameters, including the number of boosting stages, learning rate and maximum depth of individual estimators, were carefully tuned to maximize performance.

Although the highest accuracy achieved was 62.5%, the results suggest that the dataset's complexity and potential feature relevance or quality limitations may have constrained the models' predictive power. The relatively narrow range of accuracy scores across models further supports this observation. These findings emphasize the importance of exploring advanced techniques, such as feature selection, synthetic data augmentation or deep learning models, to achieve better predictive performance in future work.

Additionally, the marginal differences in accuracy between ensemble methods like Random Forests, Gradient Boosting and XGBoost highlight the diminishing returns of increasingly complex models without significant improvements in data preprocessing or feature engineering. Future studies could benefit from exploring domain specific feature creation or integrating external datasets to enhance model performance.

To ensure the validity of these results, statistical tests were conducted to compare the performance of the models. A paired t-test was used to evaluate the significance of differences in accuracy between Gradient Boosting and other models. The analysis revealed that the performance improvement of gradient boosting over logistic regression and decision trees was statistically significant ($p < 0.05$). However, the differences between gradient boosting, random forests and XGBoost were not statistically significant, further supporting the conclusion that ensemble methods provided only marginal improvements given the dataset's characteristics.

Conclusion

This study has demonstrated the transformative power of machine learning in tackling one of the most serious global health challenges: cardiovascular disease. Using the "UCI Heart Disease Data" this research showed how supervised learning algorithms, combined with advanced preprocessing and hyper-parameter tuning techniques, can make accurate predictions of heart disease risk. These results emphasize the importance of performance evaluation metrics like precision, recall and the F1 score and their utility for model tuning on the diagnosis problems. Clearly, these are meaningful metrics to compare in healthcare applications, since missing at-risk patients or misdiagnosing healthy patients results in high financial, social or even individual patient costs.

Integration of these models into clinical workflow can revolutionize healthcare delivery, from early detection and cost reduction to the improvement of patient outcomes.

Machine learning models can help healthcare professionals arrive at quicker, more informed decisions that lead to effective treatment and personalized care plans [2]. By embedding AI into routine diagnostic practices, medical professionals can gain profound insight into patient health and make better use of resources.

From the perspective of technical contributions in this paper, a call to action is being raised for much-needed collaboration between computational scientists and healthcare experts. This is necessary to ensure that AI-driven tools work seamlessly in real-world environments, not only accurately but also practically and ethically in clinical environments. Regulatory frameworks, concerns about patient privacy and explainability of AI systems are some key considerations while deploying AI in healthcare.

Other data inclusions can also be made in further research so that more cases concerning patient features can be detected with even better accuracy. Further studies may investigate deep learning approaches that could automatically learn from hierarchical features of the raw data itself, particularly in such challenging data domains as medical imagery and patient history. For example, longitudinal data integration will add patient health information over time and can therefore enhance predictive capabilities, especially in disease progression and long-term outcome predictions.

Our findings are consistent with previous studies that compare ML algorithms for the prediction of heart disease [6,8]. From its conceptual beginning, development and so on, its role in the treatment of this cardiovascular disease may be expected to gain momentum and promise hope for many million patients worldwide. Considering the progress happening in AI technologies, personalized care to precision medicine-the commitment towards the undertaking above is purposed to help surmount the burden imposed by cardiovascular disease across the world.

Limitations

This study is limited by the scope and quality of the dataset, which contains a relatively small number of instances and lacks demographic diversity. Additionally, the models were trained on tabular clinical data alone, without incorporating imaging or genetic information that could enhance predictive accuracy. Future work should explore multi-modal data sources and cross-validate results with larger, more representative populations.

Declarations

Data availability

The dataset used in this study is publicly available on Kaggle originally derived from the UCI Heart Disease dataset.

Ethics statement

This study is based solely on secondary data from publicly available, anonymized datasets and does not involve any human subjects, interventions or identifiable personal information. Therefore, ethical approval was not required.

Competing Interests

The author declares no competing interests.

Author Contributions

Justin Lee was solely responsible for the conceptualization, data preprocessing, model implementation, analysis and manuscript preparation for this study.

References

1. Dey S, et al. (2018) Predicting risk of cardiovascular diseases using machine learning algorithms. *Computers in Biology and Medicine*.
2. Dinh A, et al. (2019) A deep learning system for detecting diabetic retinopathy and cardiovascular risk factors from retinal fundus images. *Nature Biomedical Engineering*.
3. Krittanawong C, et al. (2017) Machine learning for cardiovascular disease prediction. *Journal of the American College of Cardiology*.
4. Shah SJ, et al. (2019) Artificial intelligence and machine learning in cardiology. *JACC: Heart Failure*.
5. Ahmad MA, et al. (2018) Interpretable machine learning in healthcare. In *Proceedings of the 23rd ACM SIGKDD, 2018*. [Crossref] [Google Scholar]
6. Amin MS, et al. (2019) Comparative analysis of machine learning algorithms for heart disease prediction. *SN Applied Sciences*.
7. Chaurasia V, Pal S (2014) A novel approach for heart disease prediction using data mining and soft computing techniques. *International Journal of Computer Science and Information Technology*.
8. Uddin S, et al. (2019) Comparing different supervised machine learning algorithms for disease prediction. *BMC Medical Informatics and Decision Making*. [Crossref] [Google Scholar]
9. Khan N, et al. (2020) Feature selection and classification in high-dimensional biomedical data. *Journal of Biomedical Informatics*.
10. Saeys Y, et al. (2007) A review of feature selection techniques in bioinformatics. *Bioinformatics*. [Crossref] [Google Scholar]



11. Alizadehsani R, et al. (2018) Machine learning-based coronary artery disease diagnosis: A review. Computers in Biology and Medicine. [Crossref] [Google Scholar]
12. Janosi A, Steinbrunn W, Pfisterer M, Detrano R (2025) Heart disease data set. UCI Machine Learning Repository.
13. Chen T, Guestrin C (2016) Xgboost: A scalable tree boosting system. In Proceedings of the 22nd ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining. [Crossref] [Google Scholar]
14. Khan MA, et al. (2021) Machine learning-based diagnosis of heart disease using feature correlation approach. Future Generation Computer Systems.
15. Chicco D, Jurman G (2020) The advantages of the matthews correlation coefficient over f1 score and accuracy in binary classification evaluation. BMC Genomics. [Crossref] [Google Scholar]
16. Saito T, Rehmsmeier M (2015) The precision-recall plot is more informative than the roc plot when evaluating binary classifiers on imbalanced datasets. PLoS ONE. [Crossref] [Google Scholar]