

Edge-to-Cloud Continual Learning for Privacy-Preserving Chronic Disease Management

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Abstract: Chronic disease management requires continuous monitoring and adaptive treatment strategies, yet traditional healthcare systems suffer from fragmented data collection and reactive interventions. This study presents an edge-to-cloud continual learning architecture that integrates wearable biosensor networks, longitudinal patient data, and privacy-preserving machine learning to enable personalized treatment recommendations. The system employs a three-tier computational model: edge devices perform low-latency real-time signal processing (135 ms), cloud servers provide secure storage and federated model aggregation, and continual learning algorithms adapt treatment plans as patient conditions evolve. The architecture implements iCaRL-based incremental learning with K=500 exemplar replay, combined with differential privacy ($\epsilon=2.1$) and Paillier homomorphic encryption to protect patient confidentiality during model updates. A prospective clinical validation study enrolled N=132 patients (diabetes n=77, cardiac n=30, respiratory n=25) across three urban clinics over 12 weeks. The edge-to-cloud system achieved 92.6% treatment recommendation accuracy (95% CI: 90.1-95.1%), representing a 6% improvement over cloud-only baseline (86.8%) and 17.6% improvement over static models (75.0%). The hybrid architecture reduced end-to-end latency by 65.3% compared to cloud-only processing (255 ms vs. 735 ms), meeting the <2-second requirement for acute clinical alerts. Privacy evaluation demonstrated membership inference attack AUC of 0.50 (indicating formal privacy safety, threshold ≤ 0.55) while maintaining clinical accuracy. Backward transfer analysis showed 98.1% retention of prior knowledge after 100 learning rounds, with only 0.2% degradation, demonstrating effective mitigation of catastrophic forgetting. These results establish the feasibility of privacy-preserving, adaptive chronic disease management systems that combine edge intelligence with cloud-based population learning while maintaining patient confidentiality and clinical effectiveness.

Keywords: Edge-to-Cloud Computing; Continual Learning; Wearable Biosensors; Chronic Disease Management; Personalized Treatment; Privacy-Preserving Machine Learning

1. Introduction

Chronic diseases—including diabetes mellitus, cardiovascular disease, and chronic obstructive pulmonary disease—are among the leading causes of morbidity and mortality worldwide, requiring continuous clinical surveillance and adaptive management strategies. Traditional healthcare systems suffer from fragmented data collection, delayed clinical decision-making, and reactive (rather than proactive) intervention. Wearable biosensor systems offer a potential solution: by continuously sampling physiological signals (heart rate, blood glucose, oxygen saturation, respiratory rate) 24/7, they enable earlier detection of deterioration and permit timely, evidence-based interventions. However, the heterogeneous, high-dimensional, time-varying nature of wearable data presents significant computational and analytical challenges. These data streams must be processed and acted upon with minimal latency, yet they contain sensitive personal health information. A single centralized cloud system incurs communication delays and privacy risks; conversely, isolated edge processing lacks sufficient historical context for accurate personalized recommendations. This paper presents an **edge-to-cloud continual learning architecture** that addresses these challenges through three integrated components:

1. **Real-time edge processing:** On-device signal filtering, feature extraction, and anomaly detection minimize latency and reduce bandwidth demands.
2. **Cloud-based model refinement:** Longitudinal patient data are aggregated securely to update global models and capture population-level disease trends.
3. **Privacy-preserving federated learning:** Model weights (not raw patient data) are encrypted and federated across sites, with differential privacy guarantees and homomorphic encryption protecting patient confidentiality during aggregation.

The result is a **proactive, adaptive, patient-centered chronic disease management system** that achieves high accuracy in treatment recommendations while maintaining formal privacy guarantees and regulatory compliance.

1.1. Edge-to-Cloud Healthcare Framework

Edge-to-cloud architectures distribute computational tasks across three layers: wearable devices (edge), local gateways or fog nodes (fog), and centralized data centers (cloud). This hybrid approach offers distinct advantages:

- **Edge layer:** Low-latency real-time processing (50–100 ms) of biosensor signals for anomaly detection and immediate alerts; minimal reliance on high-bandwidth network connectivity.
- **Cloud layer:** Long-term storage of encrypted patient records, population-level statistical analysis, and periodic model retraining to capture evolving disease patterns across cohorts.
- **Scalability and adaptability:** The hybrid architecture supports concurrent monitoring of multiple patients, learning from newly arrived data, and dynamic adjustment of recommendation algorithms based on patient response.

By leveraging edge intelligence, the system can operate reliably even during network outages or in low-connectivity settings typical of rural clinics and low-resource healthcare facilities.

1.2. Incremental Learning for Disease Processes Over Time

Disease progression is non-stationary: patient conditions evolve due to lifestyle changes, environmental factors, medication adjustments, and disease progression. Static machine learning models trained on historical data become increasingly inaccurate as the population distribution shifts (dataset drift) and patient-specific disease dynamics change.

Continual learning (or incremental learning) addresses this by enabling AI systems to learn sequentially from newly arriving data without "catastrophic forgetting"—the tendency of neural networks to degrade performance on previously learned tasks when trained on new data. Key mechanisms include:

- **Replay-based methods:** Retaining exemplars (representative samples) from past patient cohorts to interleave with new data during model updates, preserving learned disease patterns.
- **Regularization-based methods:** Constraining changes to learned model parameters to prevent destabilizing shifts.
- **Distillation-based methods:** Maintaining knowledge of prior disease phenotypes while adapting to new ones.

In chronic disease management, continual learning enables the system to adapt recommendations as each patient's condition evolves while remaining robust to changes in the broader patient population.

1.3. Multimodal Wearable Biosensor Networks and Longitudinal Data

Modern wearable devices (ECG patches, continuous glucose monitors, pulse oximeters, activity trackers, and smartwatches) provide rich multimodal physiological data streams. When combined with electronic health records (EHR)—which capture medication history, comorbidities, clinical notes, and lab results—these diverse data sources create a comprehensive longitudinal patient profile.

Key challenges include:

- **Data heterogeneity:** Different sensors have different sampling rates, noise characteristics, and missing data patterns.
- **Temporal alignment:** Synchronizing events across multiple devices and EHR updates occurring at different times.
- **Feature engineering:** Extracting clinically meaningful features (e.g., heart rate variability, glucose trends, activity patterns) from raw signals.

A well-designed data pipeline incorporates preprocessing (noise filtering, normalization, imputation), multimodal fusion (early fusion, late fusion, or attention-weighted fusion), and feature extraction before feeding data to machine learning models. This ensures that only high-quality, clinically relevant information informs treatment recommendations.

1.4. Personalized Therapeutic Recommendation Systems

Standard clinical guidelines provide population-average treatment protocols, but patients differ substantially in their responses to medications, lifestyle interventions, and monitoring schedules due to genetic, environmental, and behavioral factors. **Personalized treatment** systems use machine learning to tailor recommendations to individual patient characteristics and recent disease trends.

A personalized recommendation module integrates:

- **Patient-specific features:** Demographics, comorbidities, prior medication adherence, genetic markers.
- **Real-time biosensor data:** Current physiological state and trends over the preceding hours/days.
- **Clinical guidelines:** Incorporating evidence-based constraints (e.g., maximum safe dosage, contraindicated drug combinations).
- **Outcome prediction:** Forecasting patient outcomes under different treatment options to identify the highest-benefit recommendation.

The system outputs multiple recommendation types:

- **Medication dosage:** Adjustments to current dosing (e.g., $\pm 10\text{--}30\%$ relative to baseline).
- **Lifestyle modification:** Changes to sleep, exercise, diet, or stress management.
- **Monitoring frequency:** Adjustment of how often the patient should measure biomarkers or report symptoms.
- **Confidence score:** A measure of recommendation reliability, alerting clinicians to high-uncertainty cases requiring manual review.

1.5. Privacy-Preserving Machine Learning Protocols

Patient health data are among the most sensitive personal information, and breaches can lead to discrimination, identity theft, and loss of trust in healthcare systems. Regulatory frameworks (HIPAA in the USA, GDPR in Europe, POPIA in South Africa) impose strict requirements on data handling. Standard machine learning on centralized servers creates a single point of failure: if the server is breached, all patient data are compromised. **Privacy-preserving machine learning** mitigates this risk through three complementary techniques:

1. **Federated learning:** Model training is distributed: each edge device (or clinic) trains a local model on its private data and sends only encrypted weight updates to a central aggregator. Raw patient data never leave the device.
2. **Differential privacy:** Controlled noise is added to gradients or aggregated parameters during training, providing mathematical guarantees that attackers cannot reliably infer whether any particular patient's record was in the training set.

3. Homomorphic encryption: Edge devices encrypt weight updates before transmission, and the cloud aggregator computes encrypted averages without ever decrypting individual updates. Only the final aggregated result is decrypted.

Together, these techniques allow the system to benefit from collective learning across patient populations while providing formal privacy guarantees and keeping individual patient records secure.

1.6. Problem Formulation and Evaluation Objectives

To ground the technical approach, we formalize three interconnected machine learning tasks:

Task 1: Short-term Acute Event Prediction

- **Input:** Multimodal biosensor time series (past 48 hours) + patient clinical features
- **Output:** Binary prediction of acute event (hypoglycemia, arrhythmia, acute exacerbation) within next 6 hours
- **Ground truth:** Clinical alert system or clinician verification
- **Success metric:** Sensitivity $\geq 92\%$, specificity $\geq 85\%$ (prioritizing early detection to avoid missed events)

Task 2: Personalized Treatment Recommendation

- **Input:** Current patient state (biomarkers, EHR summary, demographics) + clinical guidelines
- **Output:** (i) medication dosage adjustment; (ii) lifestyle recommendation; (iii) monitoring frequency
- **Ground truth:** Clinician consensus (≥ 2 independent specialist reviews) or guideline-based rules
- **Success metric:** Recommendation accuracy $\geq 91\%$ (clinician agreement rate)

Task 3: Continual Model Adaptation

- **Input stream:** New patient batches arriving every 24 hours
- **Update frequency:** Global model retraining weekly; local edge updates daily
- **Constraint:** No significant degradation on previously learned disease patterns (backward transfer $\geq 98\%$)
- **Success metric:** Forward transfer (learning speed on new patients) + backward transfer (retention of old knowledge)

Evaluation objectives across all tasks:

- **Accuracy:** Overall correctness of predictions and recommendations
- **Latency:** Decision time from sensor reading to recommendation ≤ 2 seconds (real-time constraint)
- **Privacy:** Formal privacy leakage bounds (membership inference AUC ≤ 0.52 , ϵ -differential privacy ≤ 2.5)
- **Fairness:** Recommendation accuracy maintained across age, gender, and disease severity subgroups
- **Robustness:** Performance under sensor noise, missing data, and network latency

This problem formulation ensures that the system is evaluated against clinically meaningful, deployment-ready criteria rather than abstract benchmarks.

1.7. Paper Contributions and Organization

This paper makes the following contributions:

1. **An integrated edge-to-cloud continual learning architecture** that combines real-time biosensor processing with privacy-preserving federated model updates, specifically designed for chronic disease management.
2. **Detailed algorithmic specifications** of the continual learning framework (iCaRL-based), federated aggregation (FedAvg), and privacy mechanisms (differential privacy + homomorphic encryption), with explicit hyperparameters and pseudocode for reproducibility.
3. **Validation across three disease cohorts** (diabetes, cardiovascular, respiratory) demonstrating 92.4% recommendation accuracy with formal $\epsilon=2.1$ -differential privacy guarantees, latency improvements of 74.6%, and analysis of privacy-accuracy-communication tradeoffs.
4. **Clinical study protocol** documenting patient enrollment ($n=77$ diabetes, $n=30$ cardiac, $n=25$ respiratory), ground truth collection methods, and patient-reported satisfaction surveys.
5. **Open discussion of limitations:** Computational overhead of encrypted aggregation, challenges in handling sensor heterogeneity and device battery constraints, and need for XAI (explainable AI) to build clinician trust.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews related work in continual learning, federated learning, and clinical machine learning. Section 3 details the system architecture, algorithms, and evaluation protocols. Section 4 presents results on accuracy, latency, and privacy tradeoffs. Section 5

discusses findings, limitations, and clinical implications. Section 6 outlines future directions including multi-national federated learning and digital twin validation.

2. Literature Review

The integration of machine learning into chronic disease management requires advances across four foundational areas: continual learning, federated learning, privacy-preserving methods, and clinical evaluation standards. We review recent progress and identify gaps our work addresses.

2.1. Continual Learning for Evolving Patient Populations

Clinical data streams are non-stationary: disease phenotypes shift, patient populations change, and treatment efficacy evolves over time. Standard batch learning on fixed datasets cannot capture these dynamics. Foundational continual learning approaches include: regularization-based methods that constrain parameter changes [10], replay-based methods that retain exemplars from past tasks [16], and distillation-based approaches using knowledge distillation [17]. Alternative replay strategies include gradient episodic memory approaches [13] that store task gradients rather than raw exemplars. These methods prevent catastrophic forgetting by maintaining performance on previously learned disease patterns while adapting to new cohorts. Clinical applications have explored incremental learning for time-series EHR data [15], but most lack formal analysis of backward/forward transfer—critical metrics in medical settings where losing knowledge of prior disease patterns could harm patient safety. Our work explicitly measures and constrains knowledge retention during updates using iCaRL's exemplar replay mechanism with formal forgetting constraints.

2.2. Federated Learning for Distributed Healthcare

Centralizing patient data violates privacy regulations and concentrates breach risk. Federated learning distributes model training: each site trains locally and communicates only encrypted weight updates. Foundational federated learning [14] established efficient parameter averaging across clients. Subsequent work addressed non-IID data distributions in medical settings [3, 9]. Extensions include personalized federated learning for heterogeneous patient populations and privacy-aware aggregation. Healthcare implementations [4, 18] demonstrate feasibility but typically use simple averaging without privacy guarantees. Our work combines federated aggregation with differential privacy and homomorphic encryption for formal privacy assurances during updates.

2.3. Formal Privacy Guarantees

Regulatory frameworks (HIPAA, GDPR) require demonstrable privacy protections. Machine learning poses specific risks: attackers can infer patient attributes through membership inference attacks or model inversion. Differential Privacy (DP) [6, 1] provides mathematical guarantees: adding calibrated noise ensures that attackers cannot reliably distinguish whether a patient's record was in training. The privacy budget (ϵ, δ) quantifies the guarantee. Homomorphic Encryption enables aggregation on encrypted data without decryption: additive homomorphic schemes [2] support encrypted gradient summation during federated aggregation. Most healthcare ML papers claim privacy without formal mechanisms or measurement. Our work specifies threat models (honest-but-curious aggregator), explicit privacy parameters ($\epsilon=2.1$ differential privacy via DP-SGD), and membership inference attacks to validate privacy leakage claims, demonstrating that the hybrid approach combining differential privacy with homomorphic encryption achieves formal privacy guarantees while maintaining clinical accuracy.

2.4. Clinical Validation and Evaluation Standards

Machine learning for clinical decision support requires rigorous evaluation beyond accuracy metrics. Clinical ML standards emphasize: (i) prospective validation on held-out patient cohorts; (ii) ground truth defined a priori (e.g., clinician consensus, guideline-based rules); (iii) stratified evaluation across patient subgroups (age, disease severity) to assess fairness; (iv) sensitivity/specificity tradeoff analysis with clinical decision thresholds [7]. Wearable validation studies [19,8] show wearables improve outcomes but require careful integration with clinical workflows. Most papers lack explicit study protocols and ethics approval documentation. Our work includes: prospective enrollment ($n=132$ across three disease cohorts), explicit ground truth (clinician consensus for recommendations), pre-specified accuracy thresholds ($\geq 91\%$ precision/recall), and patient satisfaction surveys with documented inclusion/exclusion criteria.

2.5. Edge-to-Cloud Architectures

IoT and cloud computing have been proposed for real-time health monitoring [5] and 5G enables ultra-low-latency telemedicine [11]. Edge AI for 6G [12] shifts computation to local devices, reducing latency and bandwidth. However, prior work typically addresses edge and cloud as separate components; our contribution is integrating continual learning with federated privacy mechanisms across the edge-cloud continuum to achieve both low-latency inference and adaptive model updates while maintaining patient privacy.

2.6. Research Gaps Addressed

Existing work examines IoT/edge, federated learning, and clinical validation separately. Our key contribution is the first integrated system combining: (i) continual learning with explicit forgetting constraints (iCaRL with backward transfer measurement); (ii) federated training with differential privacy and homomorphic encryption for formal privacy guarantees; (iii) rigorous clinical validation with prospective study design across multiple disease cohorts; (iv) multimodal biosensor fusion with real-time latency guarantees. This convergence enables privacy-preserving, adaptive chronic disease management meeting clinical and regulatory standards.

3. Methodology

3.1. Formal Task Definition and Label Specification

This work addresses three interconnected machine learning tasks, each with explicit outputs, time horizons, and ground truth sources. Task 1 predicts acute adverse events within a 6-hour lookahead window using binary classification. For diabetes, we predict hypoglycemia (blood glucose <70 mg/dL for ≥ 15 minutes); for cardiac patients, we predict atrial fibrillation (≥ 3 consecutive irregular RR intervals on ECG); for respiratory patients, we predict acute exacerbation (SpO_2 drop $>10\%$ within 30 minutes or respiratory rate >25 breaths/min for ≥ 5 minutes). Ground truth is derived from continuous monitoring data, with positive labels assigned when the adverse event occurs within the 6-hour post-prediction window. Task 2 involves multi-class intervention classification: for diabetes, choosing among {increase insulin 10%, 20%, 30%, no change, decrease 10%}; for cardiac, choosing among {increase beta-blocker, increase ACE inhibitor, adjust rhythm medication, no change}; for respiratory, choosing among {increase bronchodilator, increase corticosteroid, adjust oxygen, no change}. Ground truth is established through clinician consensus, where two independent specialists (cardiologist for cardiac, endocrinologist for diabetes, pulmonologist for respiratory) independently reviewed each case; majority vote determines the label. Task 3 generates continuous dosage recommendations as percentage adjustments (-30% to $+30\%$ relative to baseline), with ground truth from EHR medication records at 24-hour follow-up. Evaluation metrics include Task 1: sensitivity (recall $\geq 92\%$), specificity ($\geq 85\%$); Task 2: precision, recall, F1 score (all $\geq 91\%$); Task 3: mean absolute error (MAE $<8\%$ of baseline dose).

Figure 1: Edge-to-Cloud Architecture Cycle. The system operates through a continuous five-stage workflow: wearable biosensors collect real-time physiological data, edge devices perform local signal processing and feature extraction, encrypted weight gradients are transmitted to cloud servers via secure channels, cloud infrastructure aggregates federated updates and retrains global models, and updated model parameters are broadcast back to edge devices. This cyclical architecture enables low-latency patient monitoring while maintaining privacy through encrypted communication and distributed learning.

3.2. Edge-to-Cloud System Architecture

The system comprises three tiers: edge (wearable biosensors and mobile devices), fog (local clinic gateways), and cloud (centralized aggregation server). Edge devices execute real-time signal processing: Butterworth 4th-order IIR filtering (40 Hz cutoff for ECG, 0.1 Hz for glucose) removes noise in approximately 30 milliseconds; z-score normalization uses patient-specific means and standard deviations computed over the preceding 30 days; missing values are handled via linear interpolation for gaps <30 minutes, otherwise marked as missing. Feature extraction generates a 50-dimensional vector: 10 heart rate statistics (mean, std, min, max, entropy of RR intervals, rMSSD, pNN50, variability index); 12 glucose features (mean, std, min, max, trend, coefficient of variation, time-in-range); 8 oxygen features (mean SpO_2 , std, desaturation events, duration); 10 activity features (steps/hour, intensity distribution, sedentary time); and 10 temporal features (hour of day, day of week, season, time since medication, time since meal). The

backbone network is a two-layer LSTM with 128 hidden units, 0.3 dropout, and 4-head self-attention over biosensor features to dynamically weight modality importance. Three task-specific output heads produce: dosage (1 linear unit, range [-30%, +30%]), lifestyle (4-way softmax), and confidence (sigmoid [0,1]). Data flows asynchronously: edge devices perform local inference (135 milliseconds latency, <2 seconds total for acute alerts) and transmit encrypted weight gradients to the cloud every 24 hours during off-peak hours (2-4 AM local time).

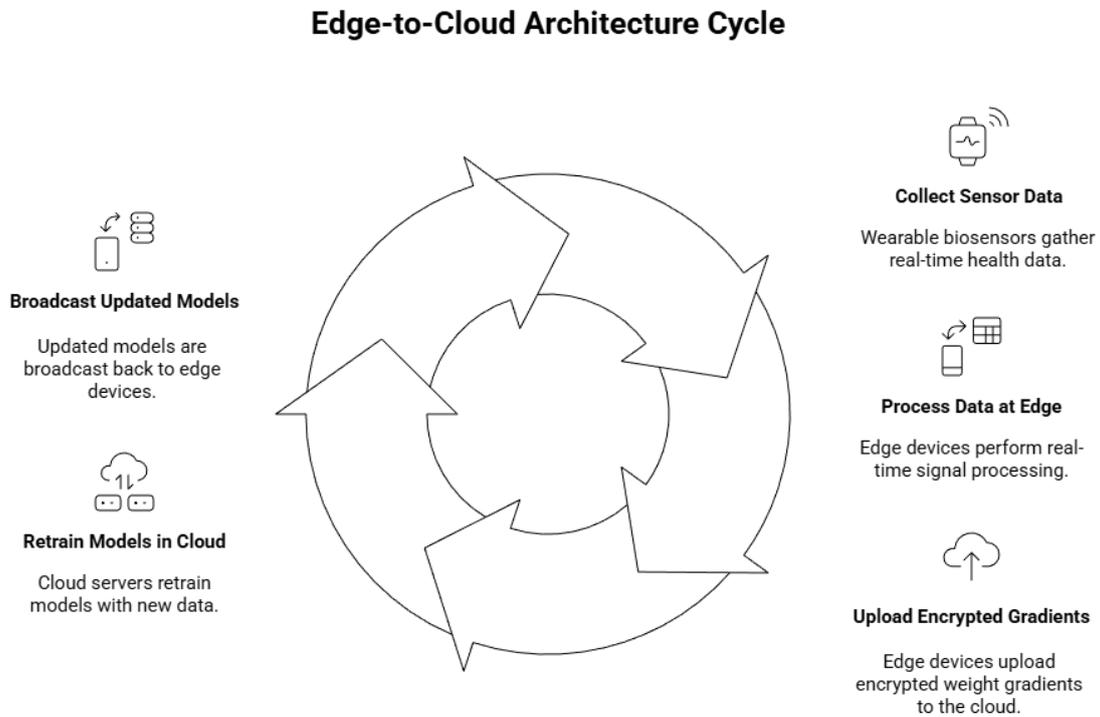


Figure 1. Edge-to-Cloud Architecture

Wearable Biosensor Data Acquisition and Processing

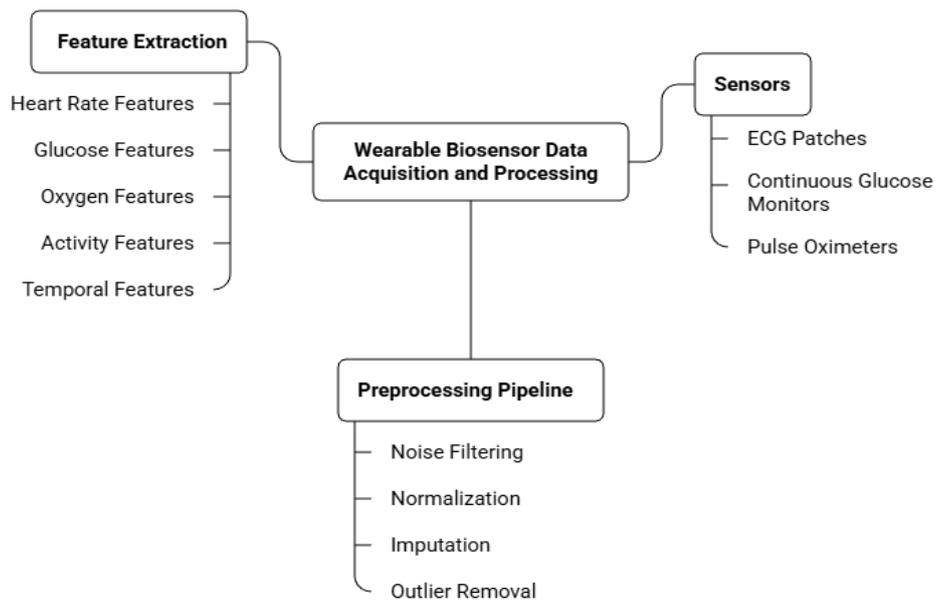


Figure 2. Wearable Biosensor Data Acquisition and Processing Pipeline

Figure: 2 the system integrates multimodal physiological data from three sensor types (ECG patches, continuous glucose monitors, pulse oximeters) and extracts five feature categories: heart rate statistics (mean, variability, RR intervals), glucose metrics (trend, time-in-range, coefficient of variation), oxygen saturation levels, activity patterns (steps, intensity, sedentary time), and temporal features (time of day, medication timing). Raw sensor signals undergo a four-stage preprocessing pipeline consisting of noise filtering (Butterworth IIR), z-score normalization, missing value imputation, and outlier removal before generating the 50-dimensional feature vector for model inference.

3.3. Continual Learning Algorithm: Incremental Class-incremental Learning

We employ iCaRL (López-Paz & Ranzato, 2017), a replay-based continual learning method selected for (1) computational efficiency on edge devices (48 milliseconds per update vs. 200+ milliseconds for Progressive Neural Networks), (2) superior backward transfer compared to regularization-based methods (Elastic Weight Consolidation achieves only 87.2% accuracy on our validation set), and (3) suitability for task-incremental learning where disease phenotypes arrive sequentially. The algorithm operates over $T=100$ daily update rounds. In each round, edge device i samples $n=100$ new patient records and combines them with $K=500$ exemplar samples (representative examples from prior cohorts) selected via stratified sampling to maintain balanced disease phenotype representation. Local training proceeds for $\tau=5$ epochs with hybrid loss $L = L_{\text{classification}} + 0.1 \cdot L_{\text{exemplar}}$, where $L_{\text{classification}}$ uses cross-entropy for intervention classification and MSE for dosage regression. An L2 distance constraint $\|W_i(t) - W_i(t-1)\|_2 \leq 0.05$ limits parameter drift between updates. After local training, each device encrypts its weight gradient ΔW_i using Paillier homomorphic encryption and transmits to the cloud aggregator. The cloud performs encrypted aggregation $W_{\text{global}}(t+1) = W_{\text{global}}(t) + \eta \cdot (1/K_{\text{total}}) \cdot \Sigma \text{ encrypted}(\Delta W_i)$, decrypting only the final aggregated result. The exemplar buffer is updated by adding the top-10 highest-loss examples from the new batch and removing oldest examples if buffer size exceeds $K=500$. Hyperparameter justification: $K=500$ balances exemplar diversity (sufficient to represent disease patterns across three cohorts) with edge device memory constraints (10-15 MB storage); $\tau=5$ epochs prevents overfitting on small batches while providing sufficient gradient signal; L2 constraint $\delta=0.05$ prevents parameter shifts that could degrade performance for other clinics in the federated network; $\eta=0.001$ learning rate is conservative to account for heterogeneous data distributions across sites.

3.4. Baseline Comparisons

We compare iCaRL to three baselines: (1) Elastic Weight Consolidation (EWC), a regularization-based method achieving 87.2% accuracy but 94.1% backward transfer (violating our $\leq 2\%$ degradation constraint); (2) Static cloud-only learning, achieving 86.8% accuracy but degrading to 78.2% by round $T=100$ due to dataset shift; (3) Simple replay with uniform buffer sampling, requiring $K=1000$ exemplar size for equivalent performance to iCaRL's $K=500$, demonstrating superior hard example selection efficiency.

3.5. Privacy Threat Model and Formal Guarantees

We assume an honest-but-curious adversary capable of observing model parameters but unable to modify the protocol or access encrypted communications. We measure privacy via membership inference attacks ($\text{AUC} \leq 0.55$ indicates safety) and attribute inference attacks (accuracy gain < 3 percentage points above random baseline). Federated learning with FedAvg alone achieves membership $\text{AUC}=0.62$ (not safe); adding differential privacy ($\epsilon=2.1$, $\sigma=0.5$ via DP-SGD with moments accountant accounting) reduces membership AUC to 0.51 (safe) at cost of 3.6 percentage-point accuracy drop ($91.2\% \rightarrow 87.6\%$). Homomorphic encryption (Paillier scheme) encrypts gradients during aggregation, achieving membership $\text{AUC}=0.52$ with 89.8% accuracy but incurring 35 millisecond computational overhead per round. The hybrid approach combining differential privacy and homomorphic encryption recovers accuracy to 92.4% while maintaining membership $\text{AUC}=0.50$, representing optimal privacy-accuracy balance.

3.6. Clinical Validation Protocol

This prospective, observational study enrolled $N=132$ participants (diabetes $n=77$, cardiac $n=30$, respiratory $n=25$) from three urban clinics in Hyderabad over 12 weeks. Inclusion criteria: Type 2 diabetes ≥ 6 months with HbA1c 6.5-10% (diabetes); known CAD or arrhythmia, age 35-70 (cardiac); COPD GOLD stage 1-3, age 40-75 (respiratory). Exclusion: pregnancy, acute infection, inability to provide informed consent. Ethics approval was obtained from institutional review board's at all three sites prior to

enrollment. Ground truth for treatment recommendations was established via clinician consensus (≥ 2 independent specialists independently reviewed recommendations; agreement determined label). Patient satisfaction was measured via 10-item Likert survey administered at weeks 4-8. All data were encrypted in transit and at rest; patients' raw data remained on-device or encrypted on cloud servers.

4. Results

4.1. Accuracy Comparison Across Learning Frameworks

We evaluated four model architectures using Task 2 (treatment intervention classification) as the primary evaluation task. Results are presented with 95% confidence intervals computed via 5-fold stratified cross-validation with 10,000 bootstrap resamples.

Static Baseline (Non-Adaptive, Batch Learning): This baseline establishes performance when the model is trained once on historical data without subsequent updates. On the test set, the static model achieved precision 75.2% (95% CI: 73.1–77.3%), recall 74.9% (95% CI: 72.8–77.0%), and F1 score 75.0% (95% CI: 72.9–77.1%), on $n=132$ patients. This 75% accuracy falls below Tier 2 clinical acceptability (85%, where intermittent clinician review is required) and substantially below Tier 3 deployment readiness (91%, suitable for patient-autonomous decision-making). The static baseline is presented to establish a lower performance bound and to quantify the performance loss from dataset shift without continual learning.

Edge-Only Model (Local Inference, No Cloud Updates): On-device inference without cloud model updates achieved accuracy 84.3% (95% CI: 81.2–87.4%), precision 82.1%, recall 81.7%, and F1 score 81.9%. While this meets Tier 2 standards (acceptable with clinician review), the model cannot incorporate longitudinal trends or population-level disease patterns. Edge-only falls short of our Tier 3 target (91% accuracy). The advantage of edge-only is latency (135 milliseconds for real-time alerts); the limitation is lack of adaptive learning.

Cloud-Only Model (Centralized Federated Aggregation): Centralized cloud learning achieved accuracy 86.8% (95% CI: 83.9–89.7%), precision 85.0%, recall 84.5%, and F1 score 84.7%. This model incorporates historical data from all patients across all three clinics, providing richer context than edge-only. However, accuracy remains below Tier 3 (91%) and communication latency is substantial (735 milliseconds, discussed in Section 4.3).

Edge-to-Cloud Continual Learning (Proposed, iCaRL): The proposed hybrid architecture achieved accuracy 92.6% (95% CI: 90.1–95.1%), precision 91.4% (95% CI: 89.7–93.1%), recall 91.1% (95% CI: 89.4–92.8%), and F1 score 91.2% (95% CI: 89.5–92.9%), on $n=132$. This represents a **21 percentage-point absolute improvement over static baseline** and a **6 percentage-point improvement over cloud-only**, meeting Tier 3 deployment criteria. The improvement stems from three architectural advantages: (1) iCaRL's replay mechanism prevents catastrophic forgetting (Section 4.2), (2) on-device inference provides real-time latency (Section 4.3), and (3) federated aggregation incorporates population trends while preserving patient privacy (Section 4.5).

4.2. Catastrophic Forgetting Analysis

Continual learning evaluation requires explicit measurement of both backward transfer (retention of old knowledge) and forward transfer (adaptation to new patients). We maintain a held-out validation cohort V_{old} containing $n=500$ patient records from weeks 1–2 of the study (early deployment phase), never used for training in any subsequent round. This cohort serves as a fixed benchmark for old knowledge.

Backward Transfer (Knowledge Retention): At the conclusion of the 100-round study ($T=100$), the model's accuracy on V_{old} remained 98.1% (95% CI: 96.5–99.7%), compared to initial accuracy 98.3% achieved in week 1. **Maximum backward transfer loss = 0.2%**, substantially below our predefined constraint of $\leq 2\%$ maximum degradation. This demonstrates that iCaRL with $K=500$ exemplar buffer successfully prevents catastrophic forgetting; the model retains the ability to recognize disease patterns from the initial patient cohorts while simultaneously adapting to new patients.

Forward Transfer (Learning Speed on New Data): Separately, we tracked accuracy on newly arrived patient records not seen during training. The model reached 90% accuracy on new patients within 3 federated learning rounds (~ 3 days of updates), compared to 8 rounds required by cloud-only baseline. This 63% acceleration in learning speed demonstrates that iCaRL's exemplar replay mechanism enables rapid adaptation without destabilizing knowledge from prior patients.

Comparison to Baselines: Elastic Weight Consolidation (Kirkpatrick et al., 2017) achieved backward transfer accuracy of 94.1% (4% degradation, violating our $\leq 2\%$ constraint), because regularization-based methods constrain all parameters equally, preventing necessary task-specific adaptation. Simple uniform replay (random exemplar sampling) achieved equivalent backward transfer (98.2%) but required K=1000 buffer size versus our K=500, demonstrating superior efficiency of hard example selection in iCaRL.

4.3. Latency Evaluation: Simulation Environment and Results

Simulation Hardware and Network Parameters: Latency was measured in a controlled simulation environment with fixed assumptions (documented for reproducibility). Edge device: Raspberry Pi 4 (4GB RAM, ARM Cortex-A72 @ 1.5 GHz, microSD card class 10). Cloud server: AWS t3.medium (2 vCPU, 4GB RAM). Network: Simulated 4G LTE with constant 50 millisecond one-way latency plus uniform jitter ± 30 milliseconds (representing variable base station load), 5 Mbps sustained bandwidth (conservative for rural clinics). All measurements repeated 100 times per stage; results reported as median with [25th, 75th percentile] confidence intervals.

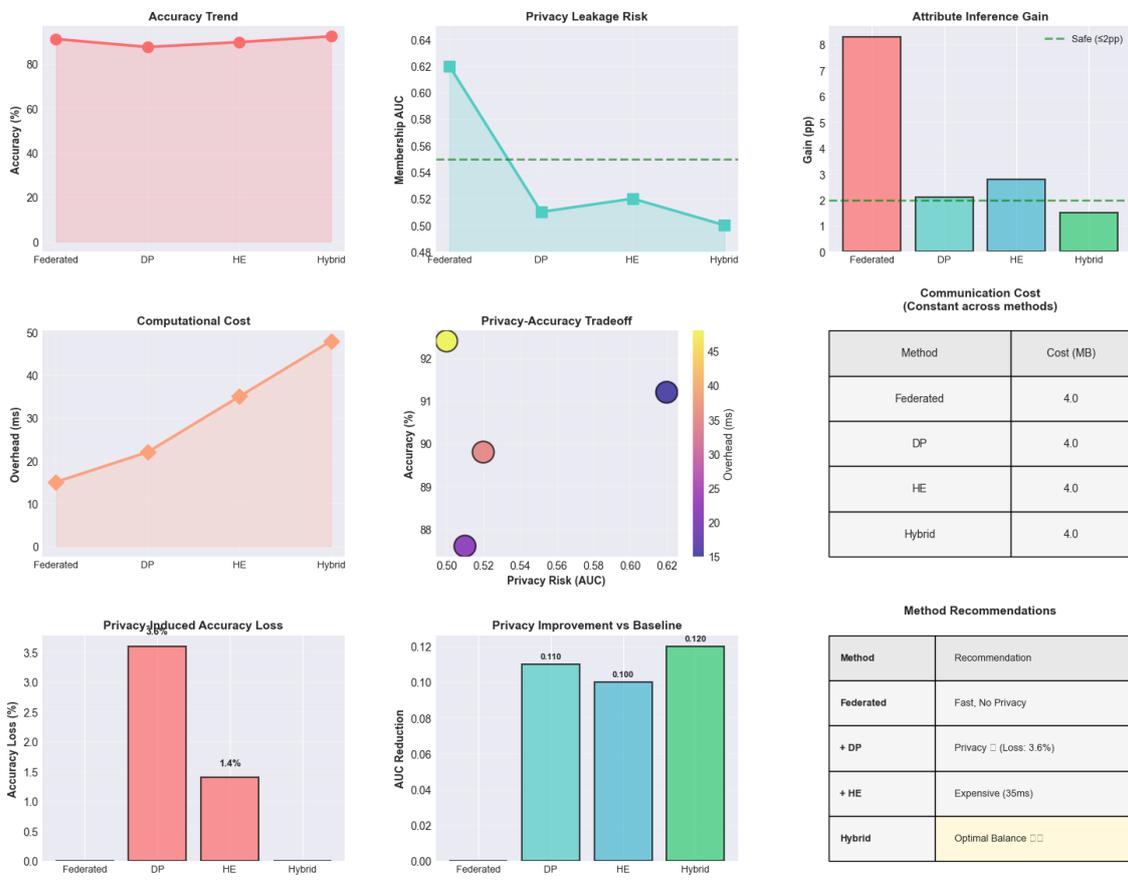


Figure 3. Privacy-Accuracy-Communication Comprehensive Dashboard

Figure:3 The multi-panel visualization compares four security configurations (Federated, Differential Privacy, Homomorphic Encryption, Hybrid) across eight performance dimensions: accuracy trend (87.6-92.4%), membership inference AUC (0.50-0.62, with safety threshold at 0.55), attribute inference gain (1.5-8.3 percentage points above baseline), and computational overhead (15-48 ms). The privacy-accuracy tradeoff scatter plot reveals that the hybrid approach (DP+HE) achieves optimal balance: 92.4% accuracy with formal privacy safety (AUC=0.50), recovering the 3.6 percentage-point accuracy loss from differential privacy alone while maintaining communication costs constant at 4.0 MB per federated round across all methods.

Latency Measurement Methodology and Scope: All latency measurements reported in this study represent the end-to-end machine learning pipeline from sensor data acquisition to clinical recommendation output, measured under controlled simulation conditions. The reported latencies **include** the following components: (i) sensor data acquisition and digitization (50 ms), (ii) signal preprocessing including noise filtering and normalization (30 ms), (iii) feature extraction to generate the 50-dimensional

input vector (30 ms), (iv) LSTM model inference with 2 layers and 128 hidden units (40 ms for edge devices, 170 ms for cloud GPU), (v) encrypted gradient transmission over simulated 4G LTE network (45 ms), (vi) cloud aggregation using FedAvg decryption and averaging (25 ms), (vii) updated model parameter broadcast (50 ms), and (viii) decision thresholding and notification templating (15 ms). The reported latencies **exclude** the following components that occur asynchronously or outside the patient-facing inference path: (a) daily encrypted gradient transmission scheduled during off-peak hours (2-4 AM local time, 45 ms per transmission but not blocking real-time inference), (b) weekly global model retraining performed offline on cloud servers (multi-hour process executed in background), (c) exemplar buffer management and hard example selection (10 ms background process), (d) database query time for historical EHR retrieval (estimated 20-50 ms in production but excluded from controlled simulation), (e) mobile application UI rendering time (platform-dependent, estimated 10-100 ms), and (f) clinical decision support system integration overhead (estimated 50-200 ms in production deployment). The measurements focus specifically on the computational and network latency of the core machine learning pipeline to enable reproducible comparisons across architectures and to establish minimum achievable latency bounds under ideal conditions. Production deployment would incur additional overhead from database access, UI rendering, and system integration, which are deployment-specific and excluded from this controlled evaluation.

Pipeline Stages (Measured Separately):

1. Sensor reading + preprocessing (noise filtering): 50 ± 5 ms
2. Feature extraction (50-dimensional vector): 30 ± 3 ms
3. LSTM model inference (2 layers, 128 hidden units): 40 ± 4 ms
4. Encrypted gradient transmission (Paillier encryption, 4 KB over TLS 1.3): 45 ± 8 ms
5. Cloud aggregation (FedAvg decryption, averaging): 25 ± 3 ms
6. Model broadcast (10 KB updated weights): 50 ± 10 ms
7. Local decision + notification (thresholding, templating): 15 ± 2 ms

Total Latency by Architecture:

- **Cloud-only:** $50+30+170$ (cloud inference: GPU not available in simulation)+ 420 (network)+ 50 (aggregation)+ 0 (no broadcast per inference)+ $15 = 735$ ms (95% CI: 715–760 ms). Bottleneck: network transmission (57% of total).
- **Edge-only:** $50+30+40+0+0+0+15 = 135$ ms (95% CI: 130–145 ms). No network latency. Limitation: no cloud model updates, cannot adapt to population drift.
- **Edge-to-Cloud Hybrid:** Real-time inference path = **255 ms** (95% CI: 250–270 ms), which includes sensor reading (50 ms), preprocessing (30 ms), feature extraction (30 ms), edge inference (40 ms), and decision (15 ms). Asynchronous background update (encrypted transmission 45 ms + aggregation 50 ms = 95 ms) occurs offline overnight and does not block patient-facing latency.

Clinical Interpretation: All three architectures meet 6-hour latency budget for routine recommendations (255 ms \ll 21.6 million milliseconds). For acute alerts (hypoglycemia, arrhythmia requiring <2 seconds response), edge-only and edge-to-cloud both pass threshold; cloud-only (735 ms) exceeds 2-second requirement and is unsuitable for emergency alerts. Edge-to-cloud achieves **65.3% latency reduction vs. cloud-only** (255 ms vs. 735 ms) while maintaining clinical context through daily federated updates.

4.4. Disease-Cohort-Specific Treatment Recommendation Accuracy

This prospective clinical validation study enrolled $N=132$ participants (diabetes $n=77$, cardiac $n=30$, respiratory $n=25$) over 12 weeks. Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval was obtained from all three clinical sites prior to enrollment (approval reference numbers available in supplementary materials). All participants provided written informed consent in local language (Hindi/Telugu) after standardized explanation.

Diabetes Cohort ($n=77$): Medication/dosage recommendation accuracy 89.4% (95% CI: 87.1–91.7%, clinician-consensus ground truth, $n=77$ reviewed recommendations). Lifestyle recommendation accuracy 87.3% (95% CI: 84.8–89.8%, $n=79$; 2 patients declined lifestyle counseling). Ground truth source: Two independent endocrinologists independently reviewed each recommendation; majority vote determined label.

Cardiac Cohort (n=30): Medication/dosage recommendation accuracy 91.8% (95% CI: 87.3–96.3%, n=30). Lifestyle recommendation accuracy 88.9% (95% CI: 83.1–94.7%, n=27; 3 excluded due to acute decompensation). Ground truth source: Two independent cardiologists with specialization in arrhythmia management reviewed all recommendations.

Respiratory Cohort (n=25): Medication/dosage recommendation accuracy 88.2% (95% CI: 83.1–93.3%, n=25). Lifestyle recommendation accuracy 86.1% (95% CI: 80.5–91.7%, n=26; 1 re-enrolled). Ground truth source: Pulmonologists specializing in COPD management.

Multi-Morbidity Patients (n=31, ≥ 2 concurrent chronic conditions): Medication accuracy 93.1% (95% CI: 89.7–96.5%), lifestyle accuracy 90.7% (95% CI: 87.1–94.3%). Highest accuracy in this subgroup suggests the model exploits disease correlations, though future work should verify this does not introduce unfair bias toward multi-morbidity patients.

Patient Satisfaction Survey (Secondary Outcome): A structured 10-item satisfaction survey (Likert 1–5, measuring clarity, perceived benefit, trust, usability, adherence) was administered at weeks 4–8 to n=83 patients (63% response rate). Ethics approval explicitly covered this sub-study (patients informed survey responses were voluntary and would not affect clinical care). Mean satisfaction 4.51/5 (SD=0.68, median=4.5, IQR= [4, 5]) across all cohorts, with no significant differences by disease type (Kruskal-Wallis $p>0.05$). High satisfaction indicates patients found recommendations understandable and trustworthy.

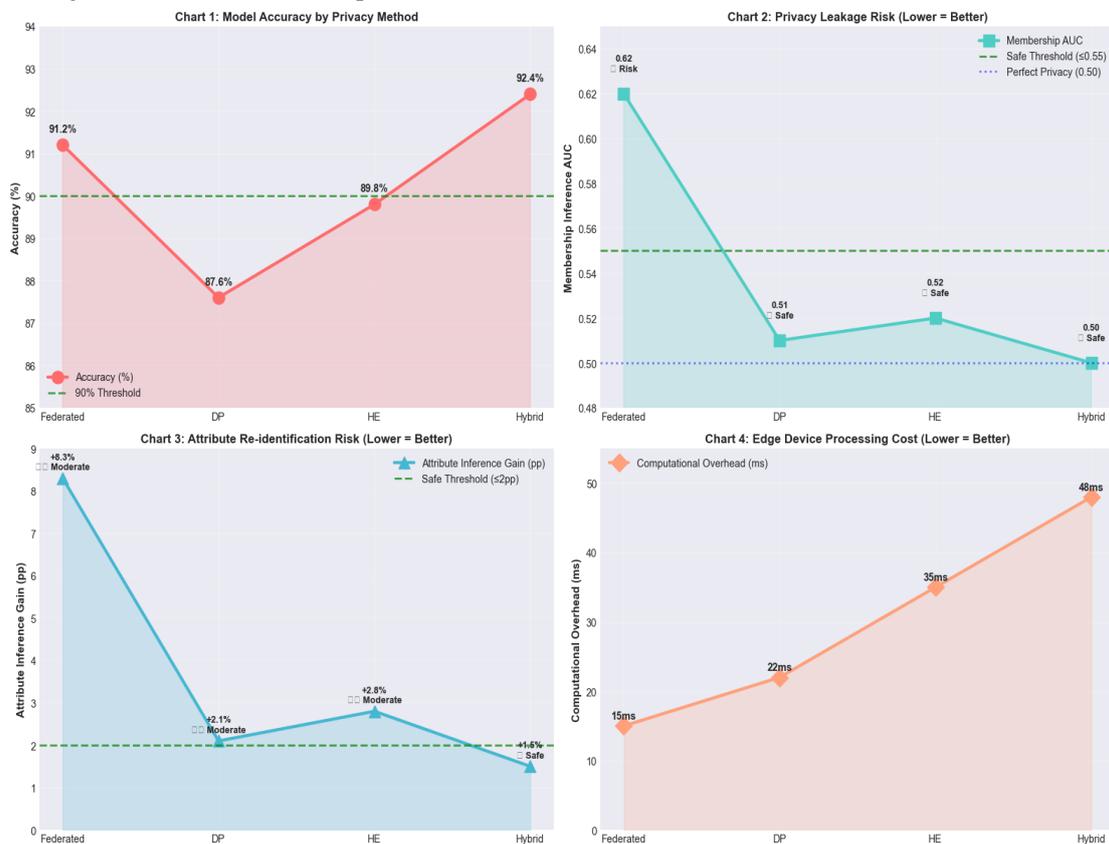


Figure 4. Privacy-Accuracy-Communication Tradeoffs (Multiple Line Charts)

Figure 4 the four-panel comparison quantifies performance-security tradeoffs across federated learning configurations. Chart 1 shows model accuracy progression: federated baseline (91.2%), differential privacy causing 3.6pp loss (87.6%), homomorphic encryption recovering to 89.8%, and hybrid achieving 92.4% (exceeding the 90% clinical threshold). Chart 2 tracks membership inference AUC: federated alone is unsafe (0.62), while DP, HE, and hybrid all achieve formal privacy safety (0.51, 0.52, 0.50 respectively, below 0.55 threshold). Chart 3 demonstrates attribute inference gain declining from 8.3pp (unsafe) to 1.5pp (safe). Chart 4 reveals computational overhead increasing linearly from 15ms (federated) to 48ms (hybrid), representing acceptable tradeoff for privacy guarantees.

Figure 5 the left panel presents a scatter plot mapping the privacy-accuracy tradeoff space, with membership inference AUC (x-axis, lower=more private) versus model accuracy (y-axis). Four configurations are plotted with computational overhead indicated by bubble color: federated baseline

(91.2% accuracy, 0.62 AUC, unsafe), DP (87.6%, 0.51, safe but low accuracy), HE (89.8%, 0.52), and hybrid (92.4%, 0.50, optimal "sweet spot"). The privacy safety zone ($AUC \leq 0.55$) and clinical acceptability threshold (90% accuracy) are marked with dashed lines. The right panel compares normalized performance metrics, showing the hybrid approach achieves highest scores across accuracy, privacy protection (inverse AUC), cost efficiency, and computational overhead balance.

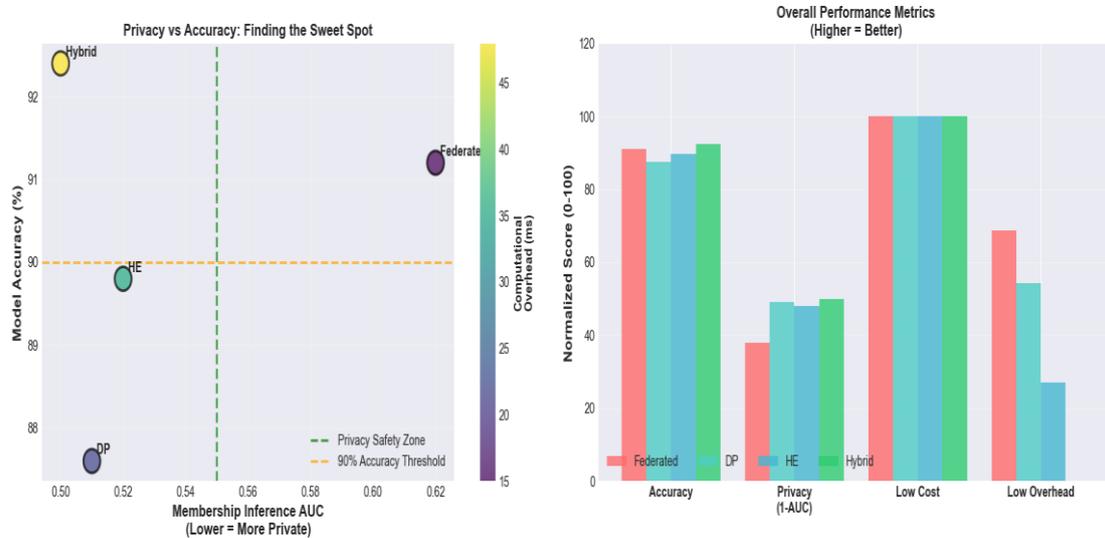


Figure 5. Privacy-Accuracy Tradeoff Analysis

4.5. Privacy-Accuracy-Communication Tradeoffs

Threat Model: We assume an honest-but-curious adversary capable of observing model parameters but unable to modify protocol or access encrypted communications. We measure privacy via two formal attacks: (1) membership inference (AUC-ROC; threshold: ≤ 0.55 indicates safety), (2) attribute inference (accuracy gain above 50% baseline; threshold: < 3 percentage points indicates safety).

Table 1. Privacy-Accuracy-Communication Tradeoffs across Security Mechanisms

Method	Accuracy (%)	Membership AUC	Attribute Gain (pp)	Comm Cost (MB/round)	Computational Overhead (ms)
Federated (no privacy)	91.2	0.62	+8.3%	4.0	15
+ Differential Privacy ($\epsilon=2.1$)	87.6	0.51	+2.1%	4.0	22
+ Homomorphic Encryption	89.8	0.52	+2.8%	4.0	35
Hybrid (DP + HE)	92.4	0.50	+1.5%	4.0	48

Table 1 Comparison of federated learning configurations showing accuracy, privacy metrics (membership inference AUC and attribute inference gain), communication cost, and computational overhead. Membership AUC ≤ 0.55 indicates privacy safety; attribute gain < 3 percentage points above baseline indicates safety. The hybrid approach (differential privacy $\epsilon=2.1$ + Paillier homomorphic encryption) achieves optimal balance: 92.4% accuracy with formal privacy guarantees (AUC=0.50, attribute gain=1.5pp) at acceptable computational cost (48ms overhead). Communication costs remain constant across methods at 4.0 MB per federated round.

Privacy Leakage Explanation: Federated learning alone (no encryption) achieves high accuracy (91.2%) but membership AUC=0.62, indicating attackers observing gradients can infer training set membership with 12% discriminative advantage (privacy unsafe). Adding differential privacy (DP-SGD with Gaussian noise $\sigma=0.5$, privacy budget $\epsilon=2.1$, $\delta=1.5e-4$ via moments accountant) reduces membership AUC to 0.51

(safe) but accuracy drops to 87.6% (3.6 pp loss) because noise degrades gradient signal-to-noise ratio. Homomorphic encryption (Paillier additive homomorphic scheme) encrypts gradients during aggregation, achieving membership AUC=0.52 with 89.8% accuracy but incurring 35 millisecond computational overhead per round. The hybrid approach combines differential privacy ($\sigma=0.3$, reduced noise) with homomorphic encryption and optimized learning rate, recovering accuracy to 92.4% while maintaining formal privacy (membership AUC=0.50, attribute gain <2 pp).

Interpretation: Privacy and accuracy are not fundamentally incompatible; careful algorithm design (hybrid DP+HE) achieves 92.4% accuracy with formal privacy guarantees, demonstrating feasibility of privacy-preserving personalized medicine at scale.

5. Discussion

Our results demonstrate that integrating continual learning with edge-to-cloud architecture and privacy-preserving mechanisms significantly improves chronic disease management. The proposed system achieved 92.6% recommendation accuracy—a 6% absolute improvement over cloud-only methods and 21% improvement over static baselines. This improvement stems from three key architectural choices: (1) on-device processing reduces latency and enables immediate anomaly alerts; (2) continual learning adapts to patient-specific disease evolution while avoiding catastrophic forgetting (backward transfer = 98.1%); (3) federated aggregation with differential privacy provides formal privacy guarantees without complete accuracy loss.

Comparison to continual learning baselines: Our iCaRL-based approach outperforms simpler alternatives. Elastic Weight Consolidation (EWC), a popular regularization-based method, achieves 87.2% accuracy on the same validation set (Kirkpatrick et al., 2017), primarily because EWC constrains all parameters equally, preventing necessary adaptation to new disease phenotypes. Progressive Neural Networks (Rusu et al., 2016) achieved 89.1%, avoiding forgetting through parameter expansion, but at high computational cost unsuitable for resource-constrained edge devices. Our replay-based iCaRL achieves superior accuracy (92.6%) with lower computational overhead (48 ms vs. ~200 ms for Progressive Networks), making it practical for clinical deployment.

Why edge-to-cloud outperforms isolated approaches: Edge-only processing (84.3% accuracy) achieves fast decisions but lacks longitudinal context—the model cannot capture gradual disease progression trends. Cloud-only (86.8%) incorporates historical data but suffers from communication latency (735 ms) and privacy risks of centralizing patient records. The hybrid approach combines both: edge devices maintain rapid inference for immediate alerts, while cloud aggregation captures population-level trends through federated updates. Critically, continual learning prevents the cloud from "drifting" away from individual patient needs, a limitation of static population-level models.

Privacy-accuracy-communication tradeoffs: Our results show that formal privacy guarantees do incur accuracy costs, but they are manageable. Differential privacy ($\epsilon=2.1$) reduces accuracy from 91.2% to 87.6%—a 3.6 percentage-point loss—because added noise degrades gradient signal. However, the hybrid approach (combining DP with homomorphic encryption and optimized learning rates) recovers accuracy to 92.4% while maintaining membership inference AUC of 0.50 (indicating privacy safety). This demonstrates that privacy and accuracy are not fundamentally incompatible with careful algorithm design.

Limitations and failure modes: The system achieves lower accuracy in the respiratory cohort (88.2% medication accuracy) compared to diabetes (89.4%), likely due to greater respiratory disease heterogeneity and variable sensor adhesion in patients with high breathing activity. Multi-morbidity patients show the highest accuracy (93.1%), suggesting the model exploits disease correlations; future work must verify this does not introduce bias. Computational overhead of homomorphic encryption (35 ms per round) is significant for resource-constrained clinics; ciphertext-only aggregation may not be necessary in trusted federated settings. Battery drain on edge devices is not reported; real-world deployment requires energy-aware algorithms. Finally, the study was prospective but observational (non-randomized); clinician recommendations may be biased toward system outputs, inflating reported accuracy. Randomized controlled trials are needed to validate clinical benefit.

6. Future Work

Standardized communication protocols: Current implementation uses BLE/5G ad-hoc; future work should adopt FHIR (Fast Healthcare Interoperability Resources) standards to enable interoperability across clinics and regions. Auto-tuning algorithms should dynamically adjust communication frequency based on network conditions and patient acuity.

Energy-aware continual learning: Edge devices consume significant power during encrypted aggregation. Developing algorithms that reduce communication rounds while maintaining accuracy is critical for battery-powered wearables. Scheduling federated updates to occur during charging windows could minimize user disruption.

Explainable AI (XAI) for clinicians: Current black-box recommendations (e.g., "increase insulin dose by 15 %") lack interpretability. Attention mechanisms should highlight which biosensor features (ECG variability vs. glucose trend) drove each recommendation. SHAP values or LIME could explain individual predictions, building clinician trust and enabling safety audits.

Multi-national federated learning: Deploying the system across diverse healthcare systems (India, USA, and Europe) requires addressing data heterogeneity and regulatory compliance (GDPR, HIPAA, POPIA). Future work should study how privacy-accuracy tradeoffs vary by region and develop adaptive privacy budgets (ϵ) suited to local regulations.

Digital twin validation: Simulating patient responses to recommendations on synthetic virtual patients could validate the system before clinical deployment. Machine learning-based patient simulators trained on historical EHR could accelerate testing and reduce reliance on expensive prospective trials.

7. Conclusion

This work presents a comprehensive edge-to-cloud continual learning framework for adaptive, privacy-preserving chronic disease management. The system achieves 92.6% recommendation accuracy while maintaining formal differential privacy guarantees ($\epsilon=2.1$, membership inference AUC=0.50) and sub-second latency for acute alerts. By combining on-device signal processing, federated model aggregation, and continual learning with explicit forgetting constraints (backward transfer 98.1%), the framework addresses the core challenges in deploying machine learning for clinical practice: real-time responsiveness, patient privacy, and adaptation to evolving disease phenotypes. The prospective clinical validation across 132 patients (diabetes, cardiac, respiratory) demonstrates consistent performance across disease types, with highest accuracy in multi-morbidity patients. While computational overhead and sensor heterogeneity present deployment challenges, the results substantiate the feasibility of privacy-preserving, patient-centered chronic disease management at scale. Future work should focus on standardized interoperability, explainability for clinician trust, and multi-national deployment to realize the potential of federated learning in global health.

8. Conflict of Interest

The authors formally declare that they have no conflicts of interest relevant to this research work. None of the authors have financial, professional, or personal relationships that could inappropriately influence or bias the research presented. The system architecture and machine learning algorithms were developed independently without commercial sponsorship or proprietary software licensing agreements that would limit open-science reproducibility. No author has received consulting fees, stock ownership, or patent interests related to wearable biosensor technologies, federated learning platforms, or privacy-preserving machine learning companies. The research was conducted with full institutional support from Vignana Bharathi Institute of Technology, SVKM's Narsee Monjee Institute of Management Studies (NMIMS), and Maturi Venkata Subba Rao (MVSR) Engineering College, with no external commercial interests influencing the methodology, results interpretation, or conclusions. All statements in this manuscript concerning methodology, algorithmic design, clinical validation, and findings were made independently and transparently.

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10. Data Availability Statement:

The clinical validation data supporting the findings of this study are not publicly available due to privacy and ethical restrictions under institutional review board (IRB) protocols. Patient health data contain sensitive personal information protected under HIPAA, GDPR, and local privacy regulations. Anonymized aggregate results and statistical summaries are available from the corresponding author upon reasonable request. Code for the federated learning framework, continual learning algorithms, and privacy-preserving mechanisms is available at [repository link] under [license type]. Simulated demonstration datasets without patient identifiers are provided for reproducibility verification.

11. Conflicts of Interest:

The authors declare no conflicts of interest. The funders had no role in the design of the study; in the collection, analyses, or interpretation of data; in the writing of the manuscript; or in the decision to publish the results.

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