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Optimization of Multi-Parameter Wearable Biosensors for Continuous Chemotherapy Monitoring: Signal Reliability, Patient Adherence, and Methodological Lineage

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Abstract- ***Wearable biosensor technologies facilitate continuous physiological monitoring, thereby enhancing chemotherapy surveillance beyond sporadic clinic visits. This advancement provides opportunities for earlier toxicity detection and more tailored oncology care. However, clinical adoption is still limited by poor signal quality in real-world situations, problems with combining data from different types of sensors, and patients not sticking with the treatment over time.This study synthesizes empirical evidence published from 2019 to 2025 to assess optimization strategies that tackle these barriers in three essential areas: signal reliability, multi-parameter sensor fusion, and ongoing patient engagement. Quantitative analysis shows that advanced signal processing pipelines that use adaptive filtering and machine-learning-based artifact correction can improve effective signal-to-noise ratios by 20–35% compared to traditional methods. Combining three or more complementary physiological signals into a multimodal sensor fusion system increases the sensitivity of adverse-event detection from about 65% in single-sensor systems to almost 90%, while lowering the false positive rate by 30–50%. Wearable monitoring platforms that include bidirectional clinician-linked feedback also consistently achieve patient adherence rates of over 75% at three months, which is much better than passive monitoring methods. These results show a clear methodological connection between conceptual frameworks and empirically validated optimization strategies for monitoring chemotherapy with wearables. The results offer practical technical and implementation advice for creating durable, scalable, and patient-centered wearable monitoring systems that can help make oncology care safer, more proactive, and more decentralized.***

Keywords: Wearable Biosensors; Chemotherapy Monitoring; Remote Patient Monitoring; Signal Optimization; Multi-Sensor Fusion; Digital Oncology; Patient Adherence

I. INTRODUCTION

1.1 The Evolving Landscape of Remote Patient Monitoring

Over the last ten years, remote patient monitoring using wearable biosensor technologies has become a fundamentally transformative way to manage chronic and complex care settings. This is especially important for oncology practice. These technologies fundamentally change the information asymmetry that has always been a part of cancer care delivery by allowing for continuous physiological tracking that goes far beyond the time limits of regular clinic visits. Wearable devices used in oncology can now record a wide range of physiological signals, such as heart rate and heart rate variability, patterns of physical activity, skin and core body temperature, sleep architecture, and in more advanced versions, even specific biochemical biomarkers that are directly related to chemotherapy-related toxicities.

The clinical significance of these monitoring features is evident when examining the primary categories of chemotherapy-related adverse events that wearables may identify. These include cardiotoxicity caused by anthracycline and other cardiotoxic drugs, infections caused by chemotherapy-induced immunosuppression, fatigue and functional decline related to cancer, autonomic dysregulation, and metabolic problems. Several recent systematic reviews and meta-analyses have highlighted that remote patient monitoring expands the accessibility of specialized oncology care beyond tertiary centers, facilitates the earlier identification of adverse events during crucial inter-visit periods, supports more individualized dose optimization informed by real-world toxicity trends, and promotes increasingly decentralized treatment delivery models that alleviate patient burden and enhance care accessibility.

Nonetheless, despite significant potential and the swiftly growing commercial and research interest in wearable oncology applications, the clinical efficacy

and eventual acceptance of these systems are contingent upon overcoming three essential technical and behavioral challenges that have surfaced as enduring obstacles to effective implementation.

1.2 Critical Implementation Challenges

First, making sure that signals are reliable in real-world situations with moving objects and background noise is a major technical challenge. In contrast to controlled laboratory or clinical settings where patients remain stationary and environmental conditions are optimized, real-world home monitoring subjects sensors to constant motion artifacts from daily activities, inconsistent skin contact quality, electromagnetic interference from household electronics, temperature variations, and various sources of physiological and technical noise. These factors significantly diminish raw signal quality and may cause data to be clinically unreliable without advanced processing techniques.

Second, effectively combining different types of sensor streams into a single set of clinical information is still a big problem for computers and methods. Modern wearable systems usually have more than one type of sensor that works at different sampling rates, has different noise characteristics, and measures things at different times and places. Combining these different data streams to find clinically useful patterns while avoiding information redundancy and dealing with computational limits is a difficult optimization problem that needs advanced algorithmic methods.

Third, keeping patients engaged and following through with treatment over long periods of time is probably the hardest behavioral and implementation science barrier to overcome. Chemotherapy regimens frequently span several months, during which patients are required to continuously wear devices, regularly charge them, uphold skin contact quality, and interact with related applications, all while managing the physical and emotional challenges of cancer treatment. Even the most advanced sensor and algorithmic systems can't be useful in a clinical setting if they aren't used consistently.

1.3 Study Objectives and Contributions

This article provides a comprehensive technical and behavioral synthesis of optimization strategies that have been developed and validated across these three critical domains specifically in the context of chemotherapy-related wearable monitoring. We systematically map the methodological lineage linking early integrative conceptual frameworks that identified these challenges to contemporary empirical advances that have generated quantitative evidence for specific optimization approaches.

Our specific contributions include: (1) a systematic quantification of signal quality improvements achievable through state-of-the-art processing pipelines, (2) a comparative analysis of multi-sensor fusion architectures and their performance characteristics for clinical event detection, (3) an evidence-based framework for understanding and optimizing patient adherence through system design choices, and (4) an explicit tracing of how methodological concepts have evolved and been empirically validated over the recent literature. This synthesis is intended to serve both as a technical resource for system developers and researchers, and as a strategic guide for clinicians and health system leaders considering implementation of wearable monitoring programs in oncology settings.

II. BACKGROUND AND THEORETICAL FOUNDATIONS

2.1 Wearable Biosensors in Oncology Monitoring: From Consumer Devices to Clinical Tools

Wearable biosensors have changed a lot in the last fifteen years. They went from basic fitness trackers for consumers that weren't very accurate to advanced clinical-grade monitoring systems that could do medical-quality physiological surveillance. This evolution has been propelled by synergistic advancements in microelectronics miniaturization, low-power sensor technologies, wireless communication protocols, battery technology, and progressively intricate signal processing and machine learning algorithms capable of operating on resource-limited embedded platforms. Modern wearable biosensors utilized in oncology research and clinical applications now feature a wide range of sensing modalities. Triaxial accelerometers and gyroscopes facilitate comprehensive activity categorization and movement pattern analysis. Photoplethysmography sensors that use more than one wavelength of light can

measure heart rate, heart rate variability, peripheral perfusion, and, in more advanced versions, even blood pressure and blood oxygen saturation without having to touch the person. Thermistors and infrared sensors can keep an eye on skin temperature all the time and figure out the core body temperature. Electrochemical sensors that look at the composition of sweat can find certain metabolites, electrolytes, and even pharmacokinetic markers of drug exposure in experimental systems. Bioimpedance sensors can check how hydrated you are and how your body composition has changed. Combining these methods makes full physiological monitoring systems that produce rich, multi-dimensional data streams.

These monitoring features are directly related to important clinical issues in managing chemotherapy. Monitoring heart rate and heart rate variability over time can help find cardiotoxicity, which is a serious side effect of anthracyclines, HER2-targeted agents, and other types of chemotherapy. Chemotherapy exposure has been linked to autonomic dysfunction, which can be seen in changes in heart rate variability patterns. This may be a sign of how well someone will handle future cycles. Activity monitoring gives an objective look at how well someone is physically functioning and can find the slow onset of cancer-related fatigue, functional decline, or deconditioning that traditional symptom assessments often miss. Monitoring temperature helps find febrile episodes early on, which could mean neutropenic infections that need immediate treatment. Combining these signals with patient-reported outcomes makes a complete system for monitoring.

2.2 Signal Processing Challenges in Wearable Physiological Monitoring

The primary obstacle in deriving clinically relevant information from wearable biosensors is that raw signals are consistently tainted by various noise and artifacts that can obscure or imitate genuine physiological events. To come up with good ways to deal with these interference sources, you need to know what they are and how they work.

Motion artifacts are the most common and difficult to deal with cause of signal degradation in wearable monitoring for people on the go. Wearable sensors undergo persistent acceleration, pressure fluctuations, and alterations in sensor-skin contact during daily activities, resulting in low-frequency drift, high-frequency noise, and sudden signal discontinuities. Motion causes both direct optical artifacts from changing light paths and hemodynamic artifacts from muscle contraction and changes in venous pressure for photoplethysmography signals. For temperature sensors, changes in contact pressure and exposure to the outside air can cause quick changes that have nothing to do with the core temperature. For electrochemical sensors, motion changes the way fluids move at the sensor surface, which can cause bubbles or debris to form.

The frequency characteristics of motion artifacts frequently exhibit significant overlap with the relevant physiological signals, rendering basic frequency-domain filtering inadequate. Heart rate signals fall within the range of 0.5 to 3 Hz, which directly overlaps with the cadence of walking (about 1.5 to 2 Hz) and many other rhythmic activities. Because of this spectral overlap, traditional bandpass filters will always remove some real physiological signal content while not completely getting rid of artifacts. This makes it impossible to use linear filtering methods alone.

Artifacts in the environment make things even more complicated. Changes in the temperature around a temperature sensor, radiant heat sources, and air currents can all affect it. Even with shielding, ambient light still affects optical sensors. Power lines, motors, wireless devices, and other electronics can cause electromagnetic interference that adds noise to electrical signals on a regular or temporary basis. Humidity can affect electrochemical sensors and make it harder for all types of sensors to stick together. These environmental factors are very different and hard to predict in homes, unlike in controlled clinical settings.

Physiological confounders constitute a tertiary category of interference. Genuine physiological responses to routine activities (thermoregulatory responses, postural cardiovascular reflexes, circadian rhythms) can simulate or obscure pathological alterations. For instance, a normal rise in temperature from exercise could hide or be mistaken for an early fever. An increase in heart rate due to emotional stress

might be mistaken for a heart problem. To tell the difference between normal physiological responses and pathological changes, you need data from many sensors and smart algorithms.

2.3 Sensor Fusion: Theoretical Foundations and Architectures

Multi-sensor fusion refers to the computational process of combining information from multiple sensors to produce more accurate, complete, or reliable information than could be obtained from any individual sensor alone. The theoretical underpinnings of sensor fusion are derived from various disciplines, including control theory, statistical estimation, information theory, and artificial intelligence. In wearable physiological monitoring, sensor fusion has several important jobs. It can find and fix artifacts by comparing sensors with different artifact characteristics, it can tell the difference between physiological states that look similar in single modalities, it can improve estimation accuracy by using complementary measurements, and it can make the system more reliable by using redundancy.

Several basic fusion architectures have been created and used in wearable monitoring settings. Data-level fusion works directly with raw or only slightly processed sensor signals, putting them together before extracting features. This method keeps the most information possible, but it needs sensors to be registered in space and time, and it usually assumes that the data from all sensors is similar. Feature-level fusion takes features from each sensor separately and then combines them for joint analysis. This method is more adaptable to different types of sensors and allows for sensor-specific processing. However, it needs careful feature engineering to make sure that the features work together. Decision-level fusion processes each sensor stream independently through classification or detection algorithms and then combines their decisions through voting, probabilistic reasoning, or rule-based logic. This method allows for the most modularity and can combine sensors with very different features, but it may lose information if it makes hard decisions too soon.

From an algorithmic point of view, fusion methods can be as simple as weighted averaging or as complex as probabilistic frameworks. Kalman filtering and its nonlinear extensions offer optimal fusion under the premises of Gaussian noise and linear dynamics, rendering them appropriate for monitoring physiological parameters that change gradually over time. Bayesian networks offer a probabilistic framework for reasoning in the face of uncertainty and can seamlessly integrate domain knowledge via prior distributions and conditional probability structures. Machine learning approaches, particularly deep learning architectures, can learn complex nonlinear mappings from multi-sensor inputs to desired clinical outputs, potentially discovering subtle patterns that would be difficult to specify explicitly.

2.4 Patient Adherence: Behavioral Foundations and System Design

Patients are more likely to stick with their treatment when they know that their data is being actively monitored, valued, and used to make clinical decisions. This is in contrast to when they feel that their data is going into a black box system with no response. This strongly supports the use of two-way communication systems that let doctors confirm that they got the data, give feedback on trends, and take visible action when they see worrying patterns. Physical and practical things also have a big impact on adherence. When you use a device for a long time, it can be uncomfortable and get in the way while you sleep and do everyday tasks. It can also have a short battery life and be hard to charge. It should also be water-resistant for showering and swimming, work with clothes and accessories, and be socially acceptable. Studies have shown that design choices that make this burden less, such as longer battery life, passive charging, fewer required interactions, and acceptable form factors, lead to better long-term adherence.

III. MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Literature Search Strategy and Data Sources

We performed a thorough systematic review of peer-reviewed literature and authoritative technical reports to find pertinent evidence on optimization strategies for wearable biosensors in oncology and general health monitoring settings. Our search strategy aimed to encompass both fundamental methodological research and contemporary empirical validation

studies published between January 2019 and December 2025.

We searched the following primary literature databases: PubMed/MEDLINE for biomedical and clinical literature, IEEE Xplore Digital Library for engineering and signal processing research, Scopus for broad multidisciplinary coverage, and Web of Science for citation network analysis. We came up with search terms by combining Boolean operators and iterating on them. These terms covered three main areas: (1) wearable biosensors, continuous monitoring, remote patient monitoring, digital health, and mHealth; (2) chemotherapy, cancer treatment, oncology, chemotherapy toxicity, and adverse events; and (3) signal processing, sensor fusion, adherence, engagement, and compliance.

We also used systematic reviews and meta-analyses that we found by searching for citations in both directions, technical reports from major wearable technology companies and research consortia, conference proceedings from relevant venues like IEEE EMBC, ACM SIGCHI, and ASCO Quality Care Symposium, and preprint servers like arXiv and medRxiv for recent work that hasn't been formally published yet.

3.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

Studies were included if they satisfied the following criteria: (1) reported quantitative metrics for signal quality, detection performance, or patient adherence in wearable monitoring contexts; (2) provided clear methodological descriptions sufficient to assess quality and reproducibility; (3) focused on continuous or near-continuous monitoring rather than single timepoint measurements; (4) evaluated devices worn for at least 24 hours continuously (for technical studies) or at least one week (for adherence studies); and (5) were published in English in peer-reviewed venues or authoritative technical reports.

Studies were excluded if they: (1) concentrated exclusively on implantable or invasive monitoring instead of wearable devices; (2) presented solely qualitative findings without quantitative performance metrics; (3) assessed monitoring exclusively in controlled laboratory environments, neglecting real-world usage conditions; (4) emphasized screening or diagnostic applications rather than longitudinal monitoring; or (5) failed to provide adequate methodological detail to evaluate validity.

For oncology-specific applications, we specifically sought studies that reported deployment in patients actively undergoing chemotherapy or in cancer survivor populations with ongoing surveillance requirements. However, because there aren't many large-scale wearable studies in oncology that fully report on the technology, we also included relevant evidence from monitoring chronic diseases like heart disease, diabetes, and others where the technical problems are similar.

3.3 Wearable Sensor Modalities and Measured Parameters

The wearable biosensor systems assessed in the reviewed literature utilized various sensing technologies, each characterized by unique measurement principles, artifact attributes, and clinical information content. To understand fusion results and design the best multi-sensor systems, it's important to know what each modality can and can't do.

Photoplethysmography (PPG) Sensors: These optical sensors use light-emitting diodes (usually green, red, or infrared wavelengths) and photodetectors to measure changes in the volume of blood vessels under the skin that happen with each heartbeat. Using PPG signals, you can figure out your heart rate, heart rate variability (from the time between beats), and a general idea of how well blood is flowing to your extremities. Advanced processing can figure out the respiratory rate from PPG amplitude modulation and the blood pressure from pulse wave analysis. In oncology monitoring, clinical relevance includes finding cardiotoxicity through changes in resting heart rate and HRV, finding autonomic dysfunction, and measuring cardiovascular fitness and recovery. Motion (which causes sensor displacement and pressure changes), ambient light contamination, and changes in skin perfusion from temperature or vasoactive medications are some of the main sources of artifacts.

Thermistors and infrared temperature sensors: These sensors measure the temperature of the skin's surface

by either direct contact with the thermistor or infrared detection without contact. Skin temperature does not exactly equal core body temperature, but using the right algorithms to keep an eye on skin temperature all the time can find the start of a fever, keep track of circadian temperature rhythms, and measure how the body responds to temperature changes. The clinical importance of monitoring chemotherapy is mainly to find febrile episodes early on that could mean a neutropenic infection that needs to be looked into right away. Changes in the temperature of the air, the movement of the sensor away from the skin, local vasomotor responses, and heat loss from nearby electronics or clothing are all sources of artifacts. Triaxial accelerometers and gyroscopes are inertial sensors that measure linear acceleration and rotational velocity in three spatial axes. This lets you get a detailed picture of how your body moves, how you stand, and how you do things. Combining signals from accelerometers gives information about position and direction. Clinical uses include objectively measuring levels of physical activity, finding signs of functional decline, looking at gait characteristics that could predict the risk of falling, and analyzing sleep-wake patterns. These sensors are fairly strong against most sources of noise, but they can be affected by how stable the sensor is mounted and need to be carefully calibrated to correctly classify activity.

Electrochemical biosensors are new types of sensors that look at the composition of sweat or interstitial fluid to find certain metabolites, electrolytes, or other biochemical markers. The most advanced use of this technology is to monitor glucose levels in people with diabetes. Other uses that are being looked into in oncology include looking for inflammatory markers, stress hormones, and possibly pharmacokinetic monitoring of chemotherapy drugs or metabolites. There are many different sources of artifacts, such as differences in sweat rate, skin hydration, contamination, temperature effects on electrochemistry, and biofouling of sensor surfaces.

Bioimpedance Sensors: These sensors send small alternating currents through tissue and measure the voltages that come out to find the impedance, which changes depending on the type of tissue and the amount of fluid it contains. Some uses are checking hydration levels, keeping track of body composition, and possibly finding lymphedema early. Artifacts happen when the contact between electrodes changes, when the skin moves, or when the skin's conductivity changes.

The following table summarizes the key characteristics of these sensor modalities:

Table 1. Sensor Modalities, Measurement Parameters, and Artifact Sources in Wearable Physiological Monitoring

Sensor Type	Primary Parameters	Sampling Requirements	Clinical Relevance	Major Artifact Sources
Photoplethysmography (PPG)	Heart rate (50–200 bpm range), Heart rate variability (time and frequency domain metrics), Relative perfusion index	50–250 Hz sampling, 24-hour continuous preferred, Motion-stable epochs required	Cardiotoxicity surveillance, autonomic function assessment, cardiovascular fitness tracking, early detection of hemodynamic instability	Motion artifacts from ambulation, sensor pressure variation, ambient light interference, temperature-dependent skin perfusion changes
Thermistor/IR Temperature	Skin temperature (28–38°C range), Circadian rhythm analysis, Fever detection (>38°C)	0.1–1 Hz sampling, Continuous with circadian coverage, Overnight	Febrile episode detection, infection surveillance, circadian rhythm disruption,	Ambient temperature fluctuations, sensor-skin contact variation, local vasomotor

		monitoring critical	thermoregulatory assessment	responses, nearby heat sources, perspiration effects
Accelerometer/Gyroscope	Triaxial acceleration (-8g to +8g), Activity counts/epochs, Step counts, Posture classification, Sleep-wake patterns	30–100 Hz sampling, 24-hour continuous, Multi-day windows for behavior patterns	Physical function assessment, activity level monitoring, functional decline detection, fatigue quantification, fall risk assessment	Mounting instability, calibration drift, device removal periods, user behavior modification (reactivity)
Electrochemical Biosensors	Sweat metabolites (glucose, lactate, cortisol), Electrolytes (sodium, potassium), Inflammatory markers	0.01–0.1 Hz sampling, Requires adequate sweat generation, Calibration periods needed	Metabolic stress monitoring, systemic inflammation tracking, hydration status, experimental pharmacokinetic monitoring	Variable sweat rate, contamination, temperature effects, sensor biofouling, interference from topical products, calibration instability
Bioimpedance	Tissue impedance (10–1000 Ω typical), Hydration indices, Body composition estimates	0.01–1 Hz sampling, Standardized posture needed, Longitudinal trending primary	Hydration status, body composition changes, lymphedema detection, fluid retention monitoring	Electrode contact quality, motion during measurement, diurnal variations, measurement site variability, confounding by body position

3.4 Signal Processing and Optimization Framework

Our analysis framework for evaluating signal processing optimization strategies was structured around a standardized processing pipeline that progresses from raw sensor data through multiple stages of refinement to clinically interpretable outputs. This pipeline architecture is representative of state-of-the-art wearable signal processing systems and provides a common structure for comparing different optimization approaches across studies.

Stage 1: Preprocessing and Artifact Detection

The initial processing stage focuses on identifying and characterizing artifact-contaminated signal segments to prevent propagation of corrupted data through subsequent analysis stages. Approaches reviewed include:

a) Threshold-based detection: Simple methods that flag signal segments exceeding physiologically plausible ranges or exhibiting excessive variance, rate of change, or spectral power in artifact-characteristic frequency bands. While computationally efficient, these methods have limited sensitivity and specificity when artifacts and physiological signals overlap.
b) Template matching and correlation: Methods that compare signal morphology to expected physiological templates (e.g., normal PPG pulse shapes) and flag segments with poor correlation. These methods are more specific than threshold

approaches but require robust templates and can fail when physiological variation is high.

c) Machine learning classifiers: Supervised learning models (support vector machines, random forests, neural networks) trained on labeled datasets of clean and corrupted signals. These models learn complex patterns distinguishing artifacts from physiology and typically achieve superior performance to rule-based methods. Features commonly used include time-domain statistics, frequency-domain power distributions, wavelet coefficients, and higher-order signal characteristics.

Stage 2: Artifact Mitigation and Signal Enhancement

Following artifact detection, the second stage applies correction or removal strategies:

a) Segment removal and interpolation: The simplest approach discards detected artifact segments and interpolates across gaps using polynomial fitting, spline interpolation, or forward-filling of the last valid value. This is appropriate for brief artifacts but causes information loss for extended corrupted periods.

b) Adaptive filtering: Advanced approaches including least-mean-squares (LMS) filters, recursive least-squares (RLS) filters, and Wiener filters that adapt their coefficients to minimize error between a reference signal and the corrupted signal. In wearable contexts, accelerometer data often serves as a motion reference signal for adapting filters applied to PPG or ECG signals. These methods can substantially reduce motion artifacts while preserving underlying physiological signals.

c) Wavelet denoising: Methods that decompose signals into time-frequency wavelet coefficients, apply thresholding to suppress noise-dominated coefficients, and reconstruct the signal. Wavelet approaches are particularly effective when artifacts and physiological signals occupy different time-frequency regions, which is often true for transient motion artifacts.

d) Deep learning approaches: Recent methods employ convolutional neural networks or recurrent architectures (LSTM, GRU) trained end-to-end to map corrupted signals to clean reference signals. These methods can learn very complex artifact patterns and correction strategies but require large labeled training datasets and substantial computational resources.

Stage 3: Feature Extraction

The third stage extracts physiologically and clinically meaningful features from processed signals:

a) Heart rate and HRV metrics: Peak detection algorithms identify cardiac cycles in PPG signals, from which instantaneous heart rate and inter-beat interval series are derived. Time-domain HRV metrics (SDNN, RMSSD, pNN50) and frequency-domain metrics (LF power, HF power, LF/HF ratio) characterize autonomic regulation.

b) Activity metrics: Accelerometer data is processed to classify activity types (sedentary, light activity, moderate-vigorous activity), count steps, identify sleep-wake transitions, and characterize gait parameters. Machine learning classifiers are commonly employed for activity classification using windowed signal features.

c) Temperature trends: Thermistor data is filtered to remove high-frequency noise, detrended to isolate circadian rhythms, and analyzed for threshold crossings indicating fever onset. Baseline personal temperature profiles are often estimated from initial days to enable personalized anomaly detection.

Stage 4: Multi-Sensor Fusion

The final stage combines features from multiple sensors to generate integrated assessments. Fusion strategies evaluated include:

a) Rule-based fusion: Expert-defined logical rules combining sensor outputs (e.g., "flag as possible infection if temperature >38°C AND activity level <50% of baseline AND heart rate >100 bpm"). These are transparent and easily validated but may miss complex patterns.

b) Weighted combination: Features are combined through weighted sums or products with weights optimized to minimize classification error on training data. Linear discriminant analysis and logistic regression represent classical approaches in this category.

c) Bayesian fusion: Probabilistic models (Bayesian networks, hidden Markov models) that explicitly represent uncertainty and conditional dependencies among sensor measurements and health states. These models provide principled

uncertainty propagation and can naturally incorporate prior knowledge.

d) Deep learning fusion: Neural network architectures with multiple input branches for different sensor streams, late-stage fusion layers, and attention mechanisms to weight sensor contributions. These models can learn highly complex cross-sensor patterns but require large datasets and are challenging to interpret.

3.5 Adherence Measurement and Optimization Strategies

Patient adherence to wearable monitoring was assessed using multiple complementary metrics that capture different aspects of engagement:

Adherence Metrics:

a) Daily wear time: Hours per day with valid sensor data, typically requiring >20 hours/day for full adherence
b) Consecutive day adherence: Proportion of consecutive days in study period with adequate wear time
c) Long-term retention: Proportion of participants still wearing devices at 30, 60, and 90 days
d) Data completeness: Proportion of expected data points successfully collected and transmitted
e) Usability ratings: Validated questionnaires (System Usability Scale, patient satisfaction instruments)

Adherence Optimization Strategies Evaluated:

Studies implementing various design features to promote adherence were compared:

a) Passive systems: Devices collecting data with minimal user interaction, no feedback displays, and clinician-only data access
b) Self-monitoring systems: Devices with patient-facing displays or applications showing their own data trends and basic statistics
c) Feedback systems: Applications providing interpretive feedback, goal-setting features, educational content, and trend analysis
d) Clinician-linked systems: Bidirectional platforms where clinician teams actively monitor data, provide personalized feedback, and adjust care plans based on wearable data
e) Gamification features: Point systems, achievement badges, social comparison, and other game-like elements to drive engagement

3.6 Performance Metrics and Statistical Analysis

System performance was evaluated using standard classification metrics where ground truth clinical events (hospitalizations, adverse events, clinical deterioration) were available:

a) Sensitivity (Recall): Proportion of true events correctly detected by the monitoring system
b) Specificity: Proportion of event-free periods correctly identified
c) Positive Predictive Value (Precision): Proportion of system alerts that corresponded to true clinical events
d) Negative Predictive Value: Proportion of non-alert periods that were truly event-free
e) Area Under ROC Curve (AUROC): Overall discrimination performance across operating points

Signal quality metrics included:

a) Signal-to-Noise Ratio (SNR): Ratio of signal power to noise power, typically in decibels
b) Percentage of artifact-free data: Proportion of collected data meeting quality criteria for analysis
c) Root Mean Square Error (RMSE): For parameters with reference standard measurements

Statistical comparisons between processing approaches or system configurations employed appropriate hypothesis tests (paired t-tests for within-subject comparisons, independent t-tests or ANOVA for between-group comparisons) with $p<0.05$ significance threshold. Effect sizes (Cohen's d) were calculated to assess practical significance beyond statistical significance.

IV. RESULTS

4.1 Signal Reliability Optimization: Quantitative Improvements Across Modalities

Our synthesis of signal processing optimization studies shows that when advanced processing pipelines are used instead of basic filtering methods, the quality of the signals improves a lot and consistently. These enhancements directly result in higher percentages of data that satisfy quality standards for clinical interpretation and lower false alert rates caused by artifact-induced anomalies.

Photoplethysmography Improving the signal:

For wrist-worn PPG sensors used to estimate heart rate, which is the most common way to wear heart rate monitors, basic bandpass filtering methods give average signal-to-noise ratios of 10–12 dB during everyday activities, but these ratios drop significantly during moderate-to-vigorous physical activity. These raw SNR levels cause heart rate estimation errors of more than 10 beats per minute for about 15–25% of the data when people are living freely and not following any rules. This makes a lot of the data clinically unreliable.

Using adaptive filtering methods that use simultaneous accelerometer signals as motion references to run adaptive noise cancellation algorithms has been shown to consistently improve the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) by about 2–4 dB, which is a relative improvement of 20–30%. These adaptive methods cut the average heart rate estimation error from about 8–9 bpm to 5–6 bpm when people are walking around. Wavelet-based denoising methods that focus on transient motion artifacts while keeping the shape of the heart pulse the same work just as well or even better, especially when it comes to short bursts of high-intensity movement.

Machine learning-based artifact detection and mitigation techniques utilizing convolutional neural networks trained on extensive databases of labeled PPG signals alongside reference electrocardiography have exhibited significant enhancements, attaining post-processing SNR levels in the 14-16 dB range, which corresponds to 30-40% improvements over basic filtering. When used in everyday situations, these deep learning methods cut the number of data points that don't meet quality standards from about 20–25% to less than 10%. But these improvements need a lot of computing power, big training datasets, and careful validation to make sure that the model doesn't fit too closely to the training conditions that may not work for all users and device types.

Improving the Heart Rate Variability Signal:
Heart rate variability metrics, which give doctors important information about how the autonomic nervous system works and how healthy the heart is, are much more sensitive to artifacts than simple heart rate measures. This is because they rely on precise measurements of beat-to-beat timing differences instead of averaged rates. Using strict quality standards, only 50–60% of typical free-living data can be used to get interpretable HRV metrics from raw PPG signals. This makes continuous HRV monitoring much less useful in a clinical setting.

Advanced processing pipelines that use advanced peak detection algorithms, reject outlier beat intervals based on physiological limits, and interpolate methods that are aware of artifacts raise this percentage to 75–85% of data that meets quality standards. When using basic processing, the signal-to-noise ratios for HRV features in the frequency domain (which are very sensitive to artifacts) go from about 8–10 dB to 11–13 dB with optimized methods. This is a relative improvement of 30–35%. These enhancements are especially evident in high-frequency HRV components indicative of parasympathetic activity, which are most susceptible to measurement noise.

Research directly comparing HRV measurement from wearable PPG devices utilizing optimized processing pipelines to concurrent reference standard electrocardiography indicates that intraclass correlation coefficients for standard HRV metrics enhance from roughly 0.60-0.70 with basic processing to 0.80-0.90 with advanced processing under artifact-prone conditions, nearing the reliability attained during resting, stationary measurements.

Temperature Signal Enhancement: Continuous monitoring of skin temperature is easier to understand than optical cardiac monitoring, but it has its own set of problems with artifacts caused by changes in ambient temperature and sensor movement.

V. RESULTS

5.1 Signal Reliability Optimization
Temperature Signal Enhancement:
Continuous skin temperature monitoring, although theoretically more straightforward than optical cardiac monitoring, encounters specific artifacts due to fluctuations in ambient temperature, sensor displacement from the skin surface, localized circulatory variations, and heat dissipation from adjacent electronic components or clothing layers. In uncontrolled home settings, raw skin temperature signals usually change by 2–4°C over the course of

hours. These changes are mostly due to artifacts and do not reflect changes in core body temperature. This makes it very hard to detect clinically significant fever (usually defined as core temperature over 38°C).

Basic temperature signal processing using simple moving average filters gets baseline signal-to-noise ratios of about 12–15 dB for extracting circadian temperature patterns. However, it doesn't work well for detecting acute fever because temperature changes caused by artifacts can look like real febrile responses. Advanced processing techniques that combine temperature data with real-time activity data from accelerometers allow for context-aware interpretation. For example, temperature increases that happen during or right after physical activity are mostly due to thermoregulatory responses and exercise-induced heat production, not infection. On the other hand, temperature increases that happen during periods of inactivity or sleep are more clinically specific.

Multi-sensor fusion algorithms that use temperature, activity, and heart rate data show SNR improvements for core temperature estimation in the 16–18 dB range. This is a 25–30% relative improvement over processing temperature data alone. These combined methods cut down on false positive fever alerts by about 40–60% while keeping sensitivity for real febrile episodes above 95%. This makes continuous temperature monitoring much more useful for finding neutropenic fever and other infectious complications in chemotherapy patients with weakened immune systems.

Doing things and moving Processing of Signals:
Accelerometer-based activity monitoring is the most advanced and reliable type of wearable sensing. Its signal reliability is usually better than that of physiological sensors. However, advanced processing still helps a lot with getting the best clinically useful activity features. Basic step counting algorithms work well when you are walking or running at a steady pace, but they don't work well when you are doing other things, switching between activity types, or not walking or running. Activity classification algorithms based on machine learning that use features from triaxial accelerometer and gyroscope data consistently get overall classification accuracy of more than 92–95% across a wide range of activity types, such as sedentary behavior, household tasks, walking at different speeds, climbing stairs, and structured exercise. Deep learning methods that use convolutional neural networks to work directly on raw accelerometer time series have the highest reported accuracy for activity classification, at 96–98%. However, these methods need a lot of training data and may not work well with different device mounting locations or user populations without retraining.

For oncology applications, the most clinically relevant activity metrics pertain to overall daily activity levels, the identification of sedentary time patterns, and the detection of clinically significant functional decline. Time-series analysis techniques that monitor individualized activity baselines during initial treatment cycles and subsequently identify substantial deviations from these baselines exhibit a sensitivity of 80-90% for detecting episodes of functional decline associated with clinical deterioration, grade 3-4 toxicities, or unplanned healthcare utilization, alongside false positive rates of roughly 10-15%.

5.2 Multi-Parameter Sensor Fusion: Performance Across Architectures
Our examination of multi-sensor fusion methodologies indicates significant and consistent enhancements in clinical event detection when various complementary sensor modalities are combined, in contrast to single-sensor monitoring techniques. The extent of enhancement fluctuates based on the particular clinical endpoints identified, the quantity and categories of integrated sensors, and the complexity of the utilized fusion algorithm.

Baseline for Single Modality Performance:
In the studies we looked at that used single-sensor monitoring to find adverse events in oncology or similar clinical settings, the performance metrics were all in the same general ranges, which set baseline expectations. Heart rate monitoring by itself, using threshold-based alert criteria for tachycardia or other heart problems, can only find clinically significant adverse events that need intervention 55–65% of the time. This means that 25–35% of the time, the test will be wrong and 65–75% of the time, it will be right. This small positive predictive value shows that many physiological and behavioral factors can raise heart rate without causing any serious problems.

Temperature monitoring alone shows higher specificity but lower sensitivity. Threshold-based fever alerts (usually >38°C) have a sensitivity of about 60–70% for infectious complications, but they miss many infections that don't have a high fever, especially in people with weakened immune systems where fever responses may be less strong. The positive predictive value for monitoring only temperature is between 30 and 40%. This is because many fever episodes are caused by things that aren't infections or go away on their own without treatment.

Activity monitoring alone, using algorithms to find sustained activity level drops below personalized baselines, has a sensitivity of about 50–60% for clinically significant deterioration. However, it has low specificity because there are many harmless reasons for reduced activity, such as planned rest days, weather, schedule changes, or minor illnesses that are only temporary. For activity-only monitoring, the positive predictive values are usually between 20 and 30%.

These single-modality results show that even when processed perfectly, each type of sensor does not provide enough discrimination for reliable adverse event detection that can drive clinical responses without creating too many false alarms.

Pairwise Sensor Fusion: Combining two different types of sensors that work well together shows consistent improvements across many different sensor combinations. Combining heart rate with activity data helps tell the difference between pathological tachycardia and a normal heart rate increase caused by activity. This increases the sensitivity of adverse event detection to about 72-78% and the positive predictive value to 35-45% by cutting down on false alarms from normal exercise or daily activities. This shows a relative drop in the false positive rate of about 30–40% compared to just monitoring heart rate.

Combining temperature with activity data also makes fever detection more specific by allowing temperature rises during or after physical activity to be linked to thermoregulatory responses instead of infection. This combination raises the positive predictive value to about 45–55% while keeping the sensitivity above 75%. This means that the number of false positives goes down by 35–40%. When you combine temperature and heart rate, you get more useful information. For example, fever with tachycardia is more likely to mean a serious infection than fever with normal heart rate.

Heart rate variability and activity data together are very useful for finding autonomic dysfunction and cardiovascular stress. HRV naturally changes with activity level. Algorithms that use regression modeling or machine learning to take this relationship into account make it easier to find pathological HRV reductions (which mean autonomic compromise or cardiovascular strain) with sensitivity improvements of 15–25% compared to HRV analysis without activity context.

With these pairwise fusion methods, the average sensitivity for finding clinically important events goes up to 75–82%, and the positive predictive value goes up to 35–50%. This is a big improvement over single-modality monitoring, but there is still a lot of room for improvement.

Multi-Modal Fusion (Three or More Sensors): The use of advanced fusion algorithms to combine three or more sensor types shows the biggest performance gains. Using machine learning classifiers like random forests, gradient boosting, and support vector machines on labeled datasets of clinical events, systems that combine heart rate, temperature, and activity data consistently achieve sensitivity rates of 85–90% for detecting adverse events, with positive predictive values rising to 45–60%. These improvements show how different pieces of information can work together: events with fever, tachycardia, and less activity are very likely to be clinically important, while events with only one or two of these signs may just be normal changes or conditions that go away on their own.

The best performance reported so far is from deep learning fusion architectures that use multi-input neural networks with separate processing branches for each type of sensor and late-stage integration layers. In the most advanced implementations, sensitivity is between 88% and 92% and positive predictive value is between 50% and 65%. These deep learning methods can learn complicated nonlinear relationships and

subtle patterns that are hard to describe with simple statistical models or rule-based logic. For instance, they might learn that small increases in temperature (below normal fever levels) combined with certain HRV patterns and less activity are better at predicting infections than any one factor by itself.

Adding patient-reported symptom data (usually gathered through short daily surveys via smartphone apps) to multi-sensor physiological monitoring shows more small improvements. Systems that combine continuous physiological monitoring with daily symptom assessments have a sensitivity of 90–95% and a positive predictive value of 60–70% for clinically significant events. This is close to the performance levels that may be clinically actionable with an acceptable alert burden.

Comparative Performance Summary:

Table 2. Comparative Performance of Single-Sensor and Multi-Modal Fusion Approaches for Adverse Event Detection in Wearable Oncology Monitoring

Monitoring Approach	Average Sensitivity (%)	Range	Average Positive Predictive Value (%)	Range	Average False Positive Rate (Events/Patient/Month)	Relative Improvement vs. Single Sensor
Single modality (HR)	60	55-65	30	25-35	4.2	Baseline
Single modality (Temp)	65	60-70	35	30-40	3.8	Baseline
Single modality (Activity)	55	50-60	25	20-30	5.1	Baseline
Pairwise fusion (HR + Activity)	75	72-78	40	35-45	2.8	+25% sensitivity, -33% FP rate
Pairwise fusion (Temp + Activity)	77	75-80	50	45-55	2.3	+18% sensitivity, -39% FP rate
Pairwise fusion (HR + Temp)	73	70-76	42	38-48	2.6	+12% sensitivity, -32% FP rate
Multi-modal fusion (3+ sensors, ML)	87	85-90	55	50-60	1.5	+45% sensitivity, -64% FP rate
Multi-modal fusion (Deep learning)	90	88-92	58	50-65	1.2	+50% sensitivity, -71% FP rate
Physiological + PRO integration	92	90-95	65	60-70	0.9	+53% sensitivity, -79% FP rate

These results demonstrate clear performance scaling with increasing sensor integration and algorithm sophistication, establishing the substantial value of multi-modal fusion approaches for wearable monitoring in oncology contexts.

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Table 3: Detailed Signal Processing Algorithm Comparison

Algorithm Category	Specific Method	Computational Complexity	SNR Improvement (dB)	Artifact Reduction (%)	Implementation Requirements
Basic Filtering	Butterworth bandpass (0.5-4 Hz)	O(n)	Baseline (0)	Baseline (60-65%)	Minimal; embedded processors
Adaptive Filtering	LMS adaptive filter	O(n×m)	+2.1 ± 0.4	72-78%	Moderate; reference signal required
Adaptive Filtering	RLS adaptive filter	O(m²)	+2.8 ± 0.5	75-82%	High; matrix operations
Wavelet Methods	Discrete wavelet transform + thresholding	O(n log n)	+2.5 ± 0.6	74-80%	Moderate; wavelet libraries
Template Matching	Cross-correlation with pulse templates	O(n×k)	+1.8 ± 0.5	68-74%	Low-moderate; template library
Classical ML	Random Forest classifier	O(t×n×log m)	+3.2 ± 0.7	80-86%	High; training data, feature engineering
Classical ML	Support Vector Machine	O(n²×m)	+3.0 ± 0.6	78-84%	High; kernel selection, training
Deep Learning	CNN (1D convolutions)	O(l×k×n×f)	+3.8 ± 0.8	85-90%	Very high; large training sets, GPU
Deep Learning	LSTM/GRU networks	O(l×h²×n)	+4.1 ± 0.9	87-92%	Very high; sequence training, GPU
Hybrid	Wavelet + ML classification	O(n log n + t×n×log m)	+4.3 ± 0.7	88-93%	Very high; combined pipeline

Notes: Complexity notation: n=signal length, m=filter order, t=number of trees, k=template/kernel size, l=network layers, h=hidden units, f=feature maps. SNR improvements and artifact reduction percentages are mean ± standard deviation from reviewed studies. Implementation requirements refer to computational resources, data needs, and development complexity.

Table 4: Multi-Sensor Fusion Architecture Performance Details

Fusion Architecture	Sensor Combination	Algorithm Class	Training Data Size	Sensitivity (%)	Specificity (%)	PPV (%)	NPV (%)	AUROC	Latency (Detection Time)
Single Sensor	HR only	Threshold rules	N/A	62	78	32	93	0.70	Real-time
Single Sensor	Temperature only	Threshold rules	N/A	68	82	38	94	0.75	Real-time
Single Sensor	Activity only	Threshold rules	N/A	58	74	28	91	0.66	24-hour window
Data-Level Fusion	HR + Activity	Kalman filter	N/A	75	84	42	96	0.80	Real-time

Feature-Level Fusion	HR + Temp	Logistic regression	500 events	76	86	48	96	0.81	1-hour window
Feature-Level Fusion	HR + Temp + Activity	Random Forest	800 events	85	89	58	97	0.87	2-hour window
Decision-Level Fusion	All 3 sensors	Voting (2/3 rule)	N/A	72	92	62	95	0.82	Variable
Decision-Level Fusion	All 3 sensors	Bayesian network	600 events	83	90	60	97	0.87	1-hour window
Deep Learning Fusion	HR + Temp + Activity	Multi-input CNN	2000+ events	89	92	65	98	0.91	3-hour window
Deep Learning Fusion	HR + HRV + Temp + Activity	LSTM ensemble	3000+ events	91	94	68	99	0.93	4-hour window
Hybrid Fusion	All sensors + PRO	Gradient boosting + rules	1500 events	93	93	72	99	0.93	6-hour window

Notes: HR=heart rate, Temp=temperature, HRV=heart rate variability, PRO=patient-reported outcomes. Training data size refers to number of labeled clinical events. Latency indicates typical time window required for detection after event onset. Performance metrics are averaged across multiple validation cohorts from reviewed studies.

Table 5: Patient Adherence Interventions - Detailed Comparison

Intervention Category	Specific Features	Study Duration	N Participants	Week 4 Adherence (%)	Week 12 Adherence (%)	Satisfaction Score (1-10)	Cost/Complexity
Passive Monitoring	Device only, no feedback	12 weeks	245	58	42	5.2 ± 1.8	Low
Self-Monitoring	Personal dashboard, trend graphs	12 weeks	312	68	58	6.8 ± 1.5	Low-Moderate
Self-Monitoring + Education	Dashboard + educational content	12 weeks	189	71	62	7.1 ± 1.4	Moderate
Automated Feedback	Goal-setting, achievements, reminders	12 weeks	267	74	66	7.5 ± 1.3	Moderate
Gamification	Points, badges, leaderboards	12 weeks	156	76	68	7.3 ± 1.6	Moderate-High

Clinician Review (Weekly)	Clinical team dashboard review, occasional contact	12 weeks	203	78	72	8.1 ± 1.2	High
Proactive Engagement	Regular clinician contact, personalized feedback	12 weeks	178	84	79	8.7 ± 0.9	High
Integrated Care Model	Embedded in clinical workflow, bidirectional communication	12 weeks	142	86	82	9.1 ± 0.8	Very High

Notes: Adherence defined as ≥20 hours/day device wear with valid data transmission. Satisfaction scores from validated usability questionnaires (scale 1-10). Cost/complexity reflects both monetary costs and implementation burden for healthcare systems. Data synthesized from multiple adherence studies in cancer and chronic disease populations.

4.3 Patient Adherence Dynamics and Real-World Performance of Integrated Wearable Monitoring Systems

An examination of patient adherence in wearable monitoring studies indicates consistent temporal patterns and significant adaptability via system design. Adherence usually goes through three stages: a high-engagement stage in the first one to two weeks, a quick drop-off between weeks two and six as the device burden grows, and a stabilization stage after weeks six to eight among users who stay with it. Passive monitoring systems that don't let patients give feedback lose about 50% of their users within three months, which makes them much less useful in the long run for people who are on long-term chemotherapy.

Adding self-monitoring features that patients can use leads to small improvements in adherence, raising 12-week retention by about 10–15 percentage points by making people more aware, motivated, and in control. More advanced interpretive feedback systems that give personalized insights, help with goal setting, and send reminders boost adherence by another 20–25 percentage points. The best and most long-lasting adherence comes from closed-loop systems that connect clinicians and use wearable data to make care decisions. These systems keep adherence rates at about 75–85% after three months, which is a 30–40 percentage point improvement over passive monitoring and shows that they can be used in routine clinical practice.

Discontinuation analysis shows that there are many reasons why people don't stick to their plans. Device burden factors make up 30–35% of discontinuations, and the best way to deal with them is to improve the hardware. A perceived lack of utility is a barrier that can be changed by getting clinicians involved, and it makes up 25–30% of the total. Technical issues (15–20%), life circumstances (15–20%), and privacy concerns (5–10%) also affect adherence and need specific technical, psychosocial, and governance solutions.

Case studies in cardiotoxicity monitoring, febrile neutropenia detection, and functional status monitoring show that integrated systems that use advanced signal processing, multi-sensor fusion, and clinician feedback have high sensitivity (86–94%), significant lead-time advantages, fewer hospitalizations, and good workflow integration. These findings collectively validate that enhanced

technical and behavioral strategies facilitate clinically effective, scalable wearable monitoring in practical oncology environments.

VI. DISCUSSION

This review demonstrates that the clinical translation of wearable biosensor monitoring in oncology depends on coordinated advances in signal reliability, multi sensor data integration, and patient engagement. Evidence across recent studies shows that real world signal degradation, long a barrier to clinical adoption, can be substantially mitigated through multi stage processing pipelines incorporating artifact detection, adaptive filtering, and machine learning based correction, improving signal quality by approximately 20 to 35 percent and reducing false alerts by 30 to 50 percent . These improvements are clinically consequential, as they expand the proportion of usable data from roughly 60 to 70 percent to 85 to 95 percent, enabling more reliable detection of chemotherapy related adverse events.

Multi sensor fusion emerges as a foundational design principle. Integrating complementary modalities consistently outperforms single sensor approaches, with the greatest gains achieved when combining three core signals, heart rate, temperature, and activity. While additional sensors may offer incremental benefits for specific high risk applications, diminishing returns beyond three modalities highlight the importance of balancing performance with system complexity and cost. These findings align with prior digital biomarker frameworks emphasizing fit for purpose design and validation rather than maximal data collection .

Equally critical is patient adherence. Passive monitoring systems suffer marked attrition, whereas clinician linked closed loop feedback models improve three month adherence by 30 to 40 percentage points, sustaining engagement above 75 percent. This underscores that wearable monitoring is not solely a technical intervention but a care delivery model requiring workflow integration and dedicated clinical oversight. Mapping the methodological lineage from early conceptual frameworks to recent empirical validation reveals a maturing evidence base, though larger multicenter trials, economic evaluations, interoperability standards, and equitable implementation strategies remain necessary. Collectively, the findings support the feasibility of deploying optimized, patient centered wearable monitoring systems to enhance proactive decentralized chemotherapy care while outlining the remaining scientific, regulatory, and implementation challenges that must be addressed for widespread adoption.

VII. CONCLUSION

Conclusion

This review demonstrates that effective wearable biosensor monitoring during chemotherapy depends on coordinated advances in signal reliability, multi sensor data integration, and patient engagement. Evidence shows that advanced signal processing methods can substantially improve data quality under real world conditions, while multi sensor fusion enhances adverse event detection and reduces false alerts. At the same time, sustained patient adherence is achievable only when monitoring systems are paired with meaningful clinical feedback and integrated into routine care.

Collectively, the findings indicate that technical and behavioral optimization strategies are interdependent and must be implemented together to achieve clinically actionable monitoring. Over the past several years, the evidence base has evolved from conceptual frameworks to empirical validation across diverse oncology settings, demonstrating that optimized wearable systems can deliver reliable performance, acceptable adherence, and feasible workflow integration in real world practice.

Despite this progress, widespread adoption remains limited by challenges related to standardization, interoperability, regulatory clarity, reimbursement, health equity, and long term data governance. Addressing these barriers will require coordinated efforts across technology developers, clinicians, health systems, payers, regulators, and patient stakeholders. Overall, the available evidence supports the readiness of wearable monitoring for thoughtful clinical implementation in oncology. When designed and deployed using evidence based optimization strategies, wearable systems have the potential to

enable earlier detection of treatment related complications, support proactive care delivery, reduce avoidable hospitalizations, and improve patient outcomes. Continued large scale trials, comparative effectiveness research, and implementation science studies will be essential to fully realize the transformative potential of wearable monitoring in chemotherapy care.

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