PPVFL-SplitNN: Privacy-Preserving Vertical Federated Learning with Split Neural Networks for Distributed Patient Data

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Abstract:

Medical data privacy regulations pose significant challenges for sharing raw data between healthcare institutions. These challenges are particularly critical when the data is vertically partitioned. In such scenarios, each healthcare provider holds unique but complementary patient information. This makes collaborative learning challenging while protecting patient privacy. As a result, developing effective machine learning models that require integrated data becomes unfeasible. This leads to fragmented analyses and less effective patient care. To address this issue, we developed a vertical federated learning framework using split neural networks to enable secure collaboration while preserving privacy. The framework comprises three main stages: generating symmetric keys to establish secure communication, aligning overlapping patient records across institutions using a privacy-preserving record linkage algorithm, and collaboratively training a global machine learning model without revealing patient privacy. We evaluated the framework on three well-known medical datasets. Our evaluation focused on two critical scenarios: varying degrees of overlap in patient records and differing feature distributions. The proposed framework ensures patient privacy and compliance with strict regulations, providing a scalable and practical solution for real-world healthcare networks. It effectively addresses key challenges in privacy-preserving collaborative machine learning.

1 INTRODUCTION

Over the past decade, the rapid digitization of health systems and the exponential growth of digital medical data have transformed the healthcare landscape. This evolution offers new opportunities to revolutionize medical research and improve patient care delivery. Machine learning (ML) algorithms provide researchers with new ways to efficiently analyze and manage medical data. These advances drive innovations that improve outcomes and streamline healthcare processes. Such algorithms enable predictive, personalized, and cost-effective data management. They can analyze medical images and patient records to predict diseases and help healthcare providers develop effective treatment plans. Moreover, they help prevent complications by enabling early disease detection through advanced medical systems. For example, Riedel et al. (2023) employed ResNetFed, a modified ResNet50 model, to deilarly, Mali et al. (2023) used artificial neural models to predict heart disease.

The integration of ML algorithms into medi-

tect COVID-19 pneumonia on chest radiographs. Sim-

rne integration of ML algorithms into medical systems delivers significant benefits to healthcare providers, patients, and society. Despite their potential, ML applications in medical research face significant challenges. One key challenge is the distribution of medical data. Privacy regulations, such as HIPAA and GDPR, restrict data sharing across healthcare providers, preventing the creation of centralized repositories (Antunes et al., 2022). Hence, the data remain within organizational boundaries.

In fact, patient records are distributed across multiple healthcare providers or institutions rather than centralized in a single repository (Allaart et al., 2022). Allaart et al. also believed that the distribution of medical data generally follows two patterns: horizontal or vertical, as shown in Figure 1. The horizontal distribution involves sharing similar features across different population groups. In contrast, the vertical distribution involves sharing data about the same individuals, but with

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(b) Vertical. Figure 1: Data Distribution Types.

different attributes. For example, in the vertical distribution, a data provider might store attributes such as patient ID, gender, and heart attack status. Another might have details such as gender, age, and ST slope. This distributed nature of medical data highlights the need for a decentralized ML framework that enables collaborative model training without sharing raw data. This framework ensures the privacy and security of sensitive medical information.

Therefore, McMahan et al. (2017) introduced a new decentralized approach to collaboratively train the global model without compromising data privacy, known as federated learning (FL). FL has two main categories based on the data distribution: horizontal federated learning (HFL) and vertical federated learning (VFL). In HFL, each training sample shares the same feature space. As a result, each data provider creates its own local model independently based on its local training samples. These local models are then used to iteratively train a global model. This kind of learning improves the performance of the global model and resolves the data-shortage problem when the data size is limited. Since HFL requires all data providers to access the same feature space, it cannot be directly applied to vertically distributed data.

To address the limitations of HFL for vertically partitioned data, a VFL was introduced. Unlike HFL, VFL enables collaboration between institutions that hold different but complementary feature sets. To facilitate deep learning in VFL, split neural networks were introduced (Vepakomma et al., 2018). This architecture partitions the neural network layers among participants, ensuring privacy by exchanging only intermediate outputs and gradients instead of full neural network updates. Since data providers possess distinct feature sets, this method allows collaborative model training without exposing raw data. Recent research has widely adopted this architecture as a baseline for VFL frameworks. For example, Sun et al. (2023) optimized communication efficiency in split learning, while Anees et al. (2024) explored its application in scenarios with limited overlap between participants, addressing realworld data sharing challenges.

These studies often ignore practical implementation

details. They also fail to evaluate split learning performance on diverse datasets, feature distributions, and overlap conditions, leaving key VFL challenges unresolved. Data heterogeneity is one of the main challenges in the VFL framework. It requires handling diverse feature distributions, which can degrade model performance. In addition, incomplete overlap between healthcare providers complicates the record linking and training process in the VFL framework. Moreover, none of the existing studies provides systematic evaluations across diverse datasets and real-world scenarios.

Therefore, to address these limitations, we propose a novel privacy-preserving VFL framework using split neural networks (PPVFL-SplitNN). It is designed to enable secure and efficient collaboration among healthcare providers while preserving patient privacy. PPVFL-SplitNN incorporates three key stages. First, symmetric key generation establishes a secure communication channel among participants, preventing unauthorized data access during the linking and training process. Next, record linkage uses privacypreserving algorithms to accurately align overlapping patient records across institutions while enabling errortolerant comparisons. Finally, split model training exchanges intermediate embeddings and gradients instead of raw data to collaboratively train a global model. These components address data heterogeneity, limited participant overlap, and strict privacy constraints, offering a practical solution for vertically partitioned medical data.

The proposed framework has been evaluated on three diverse medical datasets under varying overlap percentages and feature distributions. The results show that the framework achieves predictive performance comparable to centralized learning (CL) while preserving privacy. This makes it a robust and secure solution for collaborative model training. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first work to systematically evaluate split learning across a broad range of distributed patient data scenarios. It highlights the potential of split learning to enable effective collaborative learning in real-world healthcare networks. The main contributions of this paper are summarized as follows:

- Development of a Privacy-Preserving VFL
 Famework: The proposed framework trains split
 neural networks that are distributed among a server
 and a number of healthcare providers. This framework is significant as it enables collaborative model
 training on vertically partitioned medical data while
 preserving patient privacy. It ensures compliance
 with data protection regulations and addresses challenges such as incomplete overlap and data heterogeneity.
- Implementation of Key Stages: The framework

includes three core stages: symmetric key generation, record linkage, and training split learning model. These stages ensure secure communication, accurate alignment of overlapping patient records, and collaborative training without sharing raw data. Together, they address critical challenges such as privacy preservation, data heterogeneity, and limited overlap. This enables secure and efficient model training on vertically partitioned datasets.

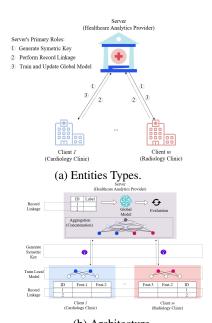
Comprehensive Evaluation and Identification of Challenges: We evaluated the framework's predictive performance on three diverse medical datasets with varying overlap percentages and feature distributions. The results demonstrate its robustness in real-world conditions. The results show that the framework achieves predictive accuracy and F1 scores comparable to CL while preserving privacy. However, the evaluation reveals key challenges in current VFL frameworks, including communication overhead, suboptimal performance under limited overlap, and sensitivity to heterogeneous feature distributions. These findings highlight areas for future research, such as improving record linkage algorithms, optimizing communication efficiency, and enhancing robustness against feature heterogeneity.

2 SYSTEM OVERVIEW

2.1 System Design

This study proposes a privacy-preserving VFL framework designed to address the challenges of training ML models on vertically partitioned medical data. The system consists of two types of entities: a central server and multiple clients (healthcare providers), as illustrated in Figure 2a.

- A. Server: In a medical context, the server acts as a central authority, such as a hospital group or analytics provider. It ensures data privacy during collaborative training. Figure 2a highlights the server's primary roles including:
 - Symmetric Key Generation: It is responsible for generating and distributing cryptographic keys for secure communication during the record linkage and training process.
 - **Record Linkage**: The server identifies overlapping patients across participating hospitals using their identifier attributes. Techniques like the Bloom filter are used to align patient records while safeguarding privacy.
 - Training and Updating Global Model: It has the capability to store all the labels and the global model, as shown in Figure 2b. In addition,



(b) Architecture. Figure 2: Framework Overview.

it has the computing power to train and analyze the distributed model and make predictions by aggregating the embeddings from healthcare providers. The server is also responsible for updating the global model and calculating the gradients to update the local model.

B. Client: Each client corresponds to a healthcare provider, such as hospitals and laboratories, that holds complementary patient attributes. For example, in Figure 2a, Client 1 is a Cardiology Clinic holding data on patient's heart and blood vessels. Client m stores radiological images, like chest Xrays and MRIs, to help diagnose diseases and plan treatments. Each healthcare provider can usually store a large number of training samples that can be used to train the ML model locally, as shown in Figure 2b. As feedback, each client receives from the server the indices of the overlap records and the gradients to shuffle its local data and update the local model, respectively. Note that any client can act as a "VFL server" if it has the labels. We commonly refer to it as an active party, while a passive party refers to the client holding features only.

In this paper, we adopt a semi-honest model in which all entities honestly follow the protocol but exploit any opportunity to extract private data from intermediate results generated during the execution of the proposed system. Therefore, each client cannot interact with each other directly.

2.2 Proposed Framework

The proposed framework has been divided into three main stages: symmetric key generation, record linkage,

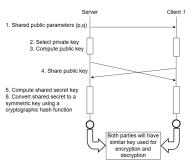


Figure 3: Symmetric Key Generation.

and training and updating a global model. Each stage involves the roles of the server and the clients.

• Stage 1: Symmetric Key Generation. The server agrees first on two public parameters (*g* and *p*) where *p* should be a large prime number and *g* is a primitive root modulo *p* (Rodriguez-Henriquez et al., 2007), as follows:

$$g^k \mod p, \ \forall k \in \{1, 2, \dots, p-1\}.$$
 (1)

Then, each participant chooses a secret key and exchanges its public key with the server only. Next, each participant computes the shared secret key using the shared public key. The secret key should be the same for both parties (server and health-care provider). Then, each participant converts the shared secret key to a symmetric key using a secure cryptographic hash function such as SHA-256 (Suman et al., 2022).

Figure 3 shows the complete process of the symmetric key generation. After generating the symmetric key, all messages between the server and the client will be encrypted and decrypted using the generated key. Adding this stage to the proposed system helps enhance its security level during the record linkage and model training.

• Stage 2: Record Linkage. The first preprocessing step in VFL to start a collaboration training process is to link distributed records that belong to the same sample ID anonymously using a privacy-preserving algorithm. This algorithm is called a long-term cryptographic key (CLK) and was proposed in (Hardy et al., 2017) and (Nock et al., 2018). It uses Bloom filters to preserve the privacy of identifier attributes while enabling error-tolerant comparisons.

At this stage, each participant must securely receive a hashing secret key from the server, along with essential identifier attributes that uniquely distinguish each patient. These attributes, including patient ID, age, and gender, are critical for ensuring accurate and reliable identification throughout

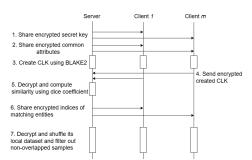


Figure 4: Record Linkage Process.

the process. The server encrypts these information using the generated symmetric key and shares them with all participants. Each client decrypts these information using the same symmetric key and starts clustering the training sample using the K-means algorithm to minimize the mean distances between the user data points and their closest cluster centers. Followed by creating a set of CLKs for each entity using a BLAKE2 hash function. Then, each client encrypts and exchanges the created CLKs with the server only. The server decrypts and computes the similarity between the three sets of CLKs using a dice coefficient. It then extracts the indices of all possible pairs above the given threshold. After aligning the overlapping patient records using the privacy-preserving algorithm, the server encrypts the indices of the matched records and securely shares them with all clients. This ensures that each client can identify and use only the aligned records for collaborative training without compromising patient privacy.

Figure 4 shows the complete process of the record linkage between three parties, a server and two clients, in order to find matching records without revealing patient privacy. It is important to note that all participants must formalize a combination of personal characteristics, such as age and gender, in the same data formats and presentations before starting the linking process. The data formalization process ensures that similar records are matched accurately while maintaining the confidentiality of the data involved.

• Stage 3: Training Split Learning Model. Due to the medical data heterogeneity problem in VFL, split learning is used to enable collaborative model training while preserving patient privacy. This approach offers several advantages, including enhanced privacy, efficient communication, and adaptability to heterogeneous data distributions. At this stage, each client trains the bottom model of the global model using the overlapped samples only. Then, each client shares only the output of the trained model, known as embed-

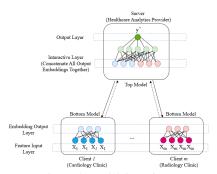


Figure 5: Model Overview.

dings, with the server instead of sharing the complete model parameters or the patient raw data in order to preserve the patient's privacy, as shown in Figure 5. The server concatenates all the received embeddings and feeds them as input to the serverside top model. It completes the training process, makes predictions, and computes the gradients required to update the global model. To maintain the privacy-preserving advantage, the server splits the computed gradients for each client and shares them individually. Each client then updates its local model using its respective gradients. This process ensures that raw data and client-side model details remain private throughout the training process. Split learning reduces communication overhead by avoiding the need to share complete model parameters. It also works well with vertically partitioned datasets, where healthcare providers hold different features.

Figure 6 illustrates the complete process of training and updating the global model that splits into two sub-models: the bottom and the top models located at the clients and the server side, respectively. This training process iterates until the model converges or a maximum number of iterations is met.

3 PRIVACY-PRESERVING ALGORITHM

This section presents the formalization process of the privacy-preserving record linkage algorithm and the practical implementation of the split learning algorithm.

3.1 Record Linkage Algorithm

Several solutions have been proposed to link the medical record, including traditional merging techniques, record linkage toolkit (De Bruin, 2019), dedupe (Gregg and Eder, 2022), and splink (Linacre et al., 2022). However, these solutions do not guarantee the preservation of patient privacy when performing the record linkage process. Therefore, to address this issue, we select the CLK algorithm to link matching records without

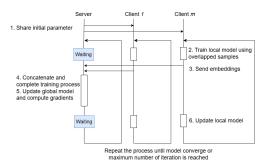


Figure 6: Training Split Learning Model.

compromising individual privacy. This method was introduced by Hardy et al. and Nock et al. to link related records anonymously. It encodes identifier attributes using BLAKE2, which is a family of hash functions (Aumasson et al., 2014). This method also uses Bloom filters to construct a set of CLKs as follows:

$$clk = \sum_{j=1}^{k} (l_j), \tag{2}$$

where k represents the number of different independent hash functions to compute the indices for an entry, and l is the length of the bit array. Using the BLAKE2 hash function to encode identifier attributes, the possibility of a collision attack is minimized (Aumasson et al., 2014).

Next, the constructed CLKs are used by the server to assess the similarity between the two clients (A and B) as follows:

$$m_i = \begin{cases} 1 & if \ D_A^{clk} \sim D_B^{clk}, \ and \\ 0 & otherwise \end{cases} , \qquad (3)$$

where the operator \sim can be interpreted as "the most likely match".

More precisely, the server uses the Dice coefficient algorithm to compare between bit strings as follows:

$$D_{A,B} = \frac{2h}{a+b} , \qquad (4)$$

where h represents the number of bit positions that are set to 1 in both bit strings, a denotes the number of bit positions set to 1 in A, and b denotes the number of bit positions set to 1 in B (Schnell et al., 2009).

Figure 7 shows how the identifier attributes in client I are hashed using the BLAKE2 hash function along with the secret hash key to add an additional level of security to the record linking algorithm. After creating the CLKs, each participant sends its own set of CLKs to the server. The server then measures the similarity between the two sets of CLKs to extract the indices of the overlapped samples x_{m_o} .

In this paper, we consider that there are common identifier attributes shared between all clients to uniquely identify the same sample ID using the method

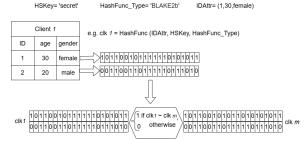


Figure 7: Compute the Similarity between Two sets of CLKs.

proposed in Hardy et al. and Nock et al.. This assumption is often considered in real-world healthcare systems to match similar records across institutions accurately (Sun et al., 2022). Therefore, the training sample set of each client is divided into overlapped samples $X_{m_o} \in R^{N_{m_o} \times d_m}$ and non-overlapped samples $X_{m_n} \in R^{N_{m_n} \times d_m}$, where N_{m_o} and N_{m_n} represent the number of training samples in the two datasets, respectively $N_m = N_{m_o} + N_{m_n}$. In addition, the server stores the ground truth labels $Y_o \in 0, 1^{N_o \times C}$ for the overlapped samples, where C represents the possible number of classes

Algorithm 1 describes a general procedure of record linkage using CLK. The server first generates the secret hash key and calculates the encryption parameters, which are distributed to all clients, as shown in Figure 4. The server also selects and specifies identifier attributes to uniquely identify each sample and shares the encrypted attribute with the participants. Then, using the K-means algorithm, each participant clusters its own data to minimize the mean distances between the user data points and their closest cluster centers. Next, each client uses a BLAKE2 hash function to implement Bloom filters and create the set of CLKs with Equation (2) and sends it to the server. The server computes the similarity between the three sets of CLKs using the dice coefficient method according to Equation (4) and returns the results X_{m_o} to all participating clients to reshift their local data using reshiftDataFrame function.

After the record Linkage process, each participant has to delete the non-overlap samples $X_{m_n} \in R^{N_{m_n} \times d_m}$ and uses only the overlapped samples $X_{m_o} \in R^{N_{m_o} \times d_m}$ to train the local neural network. Finally, using this algorithm, which combines personally identifiable attributes, the proposed system is able to link individual records and extract machining records while preserving patient privacy.

3.2 Split Learning Algorithm

Each client at this stage can start training the split learning model using the overlapped samples X_{m_o} only in the privacy-preserving setting. The server initializes the training parameters θ_s and sends them to all clients. Each client trains the local model h_{m_o} with parameters

Algorithm 1: Privacy Preserving Record Linkage Algorithm

```
Input: hashing secret key (HSKey) and identifier attributes (IDAttr)

Output: X_{m_o} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_{m_o} \times d_m}

Server:;

\|HSKey\|, \|IDAttr\| \leftarrow \text{encrypt}(HSKey, IDAttr);

Send \|HSKey\| and \|IDAttr\| to all clients;

for each client m = 1, 2, \dots, M in parallel do

\|HSKey, IDAttr\| = \text{decrypt}(\|HSKey\|, \|IDAttr\|);
\text{clusterDataframe} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \min(||x_i - \mu_j||^2);
\text{clks} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} l_j;
Send \text{clks} to the server;

Server:;
X_{m_o} = \frac{2h}{a+b} \leftarrow \text{Equation (4)};
Send the index of X_{m_o} to all clients;

for each client m = 1, 2, \dots, M in parallel do

X_{m_o} \leftarrow \text{reshiftDataFrame}(X_{m_o});
```

 $\theta_{m_o} = \{x_{m_o}^i, b_{m_o}^i\}$. The output of the local model train is called *embedding or feature embedding*, which represents the data patterns within each client. h_{m_o} is defined as follows:

$$u_{m_o}^0 = x_{m_o},$$

$$u_{m_o}^i = \sigma_i \left(w_{m_o}^i u^{i-1} + b_{m_o}^i \right), \quad i \in \{1, 2, \dots, I\}, \quad (5)$$

$$h_{m_o} = u_{m_o}^I,$$

where $\sigma\odot$ is a linear function and $u^i_{m_o}$ is the ith layer of the neural network (Li et al., 2023). The server receives and concatenates all client embedding vectors in a weighted manner (i.e. $w=[h_1\odot;...;h_m\odot]$). Concatenated embedding vectors act as input to the server top model θ_0 that is connected to the interactive layer to predict \hat{y}_{n_o} . The server then calculates the loss function $L\odot$ as follows:

$$f(\Theta) = L(h_s(\theta_0, w); y_n),$$
with $w = \begin{bmatrix} h_1(\theta_1; d_1) \\ \vdots \\ h_m(\theta_m; d_m) \end{bmatrix}, m \in \{1, 2, \dots, M\},$ (6)

where $\Theta = \theta_{i=0}^{M}$ represents the global model that contains M local models $(\theta_1, ..., \theta_M)$ and the top model θ_0 (Li et al., 2023).

The server calculates the gradients of the global model $\frac{\alpha t}{\alpha \Theta^{(t)}}$ to update the global model Θ^{t+1} . It also computes the gradients for each client $\frac{\alpha t}{\alpha h_{m_o}}$ and sends them back to all the clients. Then, each client performs a backward propagation and updates its local model as follows:

$$\nabla_{\theta_m} \iota = \frac{\partial \iota}{\partial \theta_m} = \sum_i \frac{\partial \iota}{\partial h_m^{i-1}} \frac{\partial h_m^{i-1}}{\partial \theta_m}, \tag{7}$$

Next, each client obtains the new $h_{m_o}^{t+1}$ and sends it to the server. The server repeats the process until

Algorithm 2: Training Split Learning Model

```
Input: Feature data \{X_m\}_{m=1}^M, learning rate \eta, batch size \beta, number
          of rounds T
Output: Global model parameters Θ
Server: Initialize top model parameters \Theta^{(0)} and send \Theta^{(0)} to all
  clients:
for each round t = 0, 1, ..., T - 1 do
       for each client m = 1, 2, ..., M in parallel do
              Client m computes h_m = \sigma(\theta_m \cdot X_m);
              Client m sends h_m to the server;
       Server: w = \{h_m\}_{m=1}^{M};
       L^{(t)} = L(f(\Theta^{(t)}, w), y);
       \Theta^{(t+1)} = \Theta^{(t)} - \eta \nabla_{\Theta} L^{(t)};
       \nabla_{h_m} L^{(t)} for each client's output;
       Send \nabla_{h_m} L^{(t)} to all clients;
       for each client m = 1, 2, ..., M in parallel do
              Client m \nabla_{\theta_m} L^{(t)};
               Client m \theta_m^{(t+1)} = \theta_m^{(t)} - \eta \nabla_{\theta_m} L^{(t)};
```

the global model converges or the maximum number of iterations is met.

Algorithm 2 describes the pressure for standard VFL training based on split neural networks using adaptive moment estimation (ADAM). The server first initializes the top model θ_0 and sends the initialization parameters to all clients. Each client then trains and computes the local model output $h_{m_o} = \sigma(\theta_m, x_{m_o})$ in a mini-batch β of samples X_{m_o} and sends h_{m_o} to the server. With all $\{h_{m_o}\}_{(m=1)}^M$, the server concatenates the embeddings in a weighted manner ($w = [h_1 \odot; ...; h_m \odot]$) and computes the loss function following Equation (6). It also updates its global model Θ using the calculated gradients $\frac{\alpha t}{\alpha \Theta}$. Next, the server computes the gradients $\frac{\alpha t}{\alpha D_m}$ for each client and sends them back to all clients. Finally, each client computes and updates its local model θ_m with Equation (7). This procedure iterates until the global model Θ converges or the maximum number of iterations is met.

4 Performance Evaluation

The effectiveness of the proposed framework is evaluated on three well-known medical datasets. The first section describes the simulation setups, including the setting of three datasets and training parameters. We then discuss the obtained results in detail. All experiments are performed on a single machine using an Intel (R) Core (TM) i7-8565U CPU.

4.1 Experimental Setups

4.1.1 Datasets

General information is provided on the three datasets that were used to train and test the split learning model: Diabetes Prediction Dataset (Mustafa, 2023), Breast Cancer (Wolberg, 1990) and Gliomas (Tasci, Erdal et al., 2022). The description of each dataset is as follows.

- **Diabetes Prediction:** This dataset is a public collection of medical and demographic data from the Kaggle website. It is used to predict the possibility of developing diabetes in patients based on their medical history and demographic records. It initially contains 100,000 records, each with eight features along with the patient's diabetes status that is categorized as "Yes" and "No" indicating the presence or absence of diabetes. For this dataset, the learning rate is set to 0.001, and the batch size is 256. Furthermore, the dataset is significantly imbalanced, which can lead the model to disproportionately favor the majority class (e.g., non-diabetic cases) during training. To address this issue and ensure fair representation, it is crucial to reduce the volume of data in the majority class, thereby achieving a balanced distribution with the minority class (e.g., diabetic cases).
- Breast Cancer: This database was obtained from the University of Wisconsin Hospitals in 1992. It is used to classify the cell nuclei of breast masses as malignant or benign. Initially, it contains 699 records, each with nine multivariate attributes, along with the target value that describes whether breast cancer is benign or malignant. For this dataset, the learning rate is set to 0.001, and the batch size is 32.
- Glioma: This dataset represents the histological medical records of patients with brain tumor (i.e., glioma) grading. It initially contains 839 records, each with 20 mutated genes and three clinical features along with the grade value that determines whether a patient is a lower grade glioma or a multiforme glioblastoma. For this dataset, the learning rate is set to 0.001, and the batch size is 32.

To train the ML model efficiently, the quality of the input data must be maintained because it significantly impacts the output results. Therefore, it is essential to preprocess the selected datasets before making predictions by cleaning the data, checking for missing data and duplicate records. There are no missing data for the diabetes prediction dataset. However, it has 3854 duplicated records. Therefore, duplicated records have been deleted. Furthermore, records that do not provide valuable information, such as a person with unclear gender information or records with "no information" in the smoking history variable, were not included. However, the breast cancer dataset has some missing data and duplications. Due to the limitation of the dataset size, the missing values were filled in with the mean, and duplicate records were kept the same as in the Glioma dataset. Finally, the datasets are divided into two portions: training and testing using the following ratio 8:2.

4.1.2 Training Details

The proposed framework is designed to handle vertically partitioned data efficiently while ensuring data privacy. In this setup, the training features are split vertically between two healthcare providers and the labels are stored exclusively on the server side. Each participant is equipped with specific neural network components tailored to the dataset being trained.

For the Diabetes Prediction and Breast Cancer datasets, each healthcare provider trains a bottom model consisting of two fully connected layers with Linear-ReLU activations. The server holds the top model, which comprises a single Linear-Sigmoid layer. The units of these fully connected layers are 16, 8 and 1, respectively.

For the Glioma dataset, which has a higher feature dimensionality, the architecture is expanded to accommodate the complexity of the data. Each client's bottom model consists of two fully connected Linear-ReLU layers, while the server's top model includes three Linear-ReLU layers followed by a sigmoid output layer. The units of these fully connected layers are 32, 16, 16, 8, and 1, respectively.

The models are initialized with random weights using PyTorch's default initialization method to ensure consistent starting conditions across all training rounds. The ADAM optimizer is used for training, with a learning rate of 0.001 to balance convergence speed and stability. Binary cross-entropy is used as the loss function to handle binary classification tasks effectively.

The training process involves 200 rounds of communication between the clients and the server. During each round, the clients process their local data and compute intermediate embeddings, which are sent to the server. The server concatenates these embeddings, trains the top model, and computes gradients that are propagated back to update global and local models. This iterative process ensures the privacy of raw data while enabling collaborative model training.

4.2 Performance Metrics

The performance of the proposed system is evaluated using three key metrics: Accuracy, F1 Score, and the Confusion Matrix.

- 1. **Accuracy**: Measures the proportion of correctly predicted samples to the total predictions, reflecting the overall performance of the model.
- 2. **F1 Score**: It captures the model's ability to balance precision and recall, minimizing false positives (FP) and false negatives (FN). This is crucial in healthcare applications due to the challenges posed by imbalanced datasets.
- 3. **Confusion Matrix**: Visualizes the performance of the classification model, showing the distribution of true positives (TP), true negatives (TN), FP, and FN.

4.3 Evaluating Split Learning Algorithm

The performance of the proposed PPVFL-SplitNN framework is evaluated against four scenarios:

- **Baseline** (CL): In this scenario, all data are integrated into a single repository to train a CL model and achieve optimal performance. However, this approach violates privacy regulations by requiring raw data sharing (**Blue line** in the plots).
- PPVFL-SplitNN (Stander): The proposed framework incorporates privacy-preserving techniques such as symmetric key generation, record linkage, and split learning. It represents the ideal scenario with fully overlapping records and consistent feature distributions (Orange line in the plots).
- PPVFL-SplitNN + Varying Overlap Percentage: Evaluates the framework in conditions with limited overlap among participants, simulating real-world healthcare challenges (Green line in the plots).
- **PPVFL-SplitNN + Differ Feature Distribution:** Tests the framework's ability to handle data heterogeneity, where participants hold diverse feature distributions (**Red line** in the plots).

Table 1 presents the evaluation metrics of the model trained with the PPVFL-SplitNN framework compared to the CL, while Figures 8 to 10 visualize the confusion matrices for each dataset, showcasing the number of TP, TN, FP and FN. These results demonstrate that our framework achieves comparable performance to the CL framework while preserving patient privacy.

However, a slight performance gap is observed between the two approaches. This gap can be primarily attributed to the communication overhead in split learning, which introduces latency and slows down convergence due to the exchange of intermediate embeddings and gradients between the server and clients. In contrast, CL benefits from seamless data integration and optimization within a single environment. Additionally, split learning suffers from the lack of end-to-end gradient optimization across all model layers. Since only partial gradients are visible during training, updates to the bottom and top models may become suboptimal, especially when the client data features are highly heterogeneous. Despite these challenges, the confusion matrices in Figures 8 to 10 indicate that our framework achieves similar TP and TN values as CL, demonstrating its effectiveness for binary classification tasks.

In addition, Table 2 shows that our work achieves comparable results to those reported by Guo et al. (2020), Tasci et al. (2022) and Fadillah et al. (2023). However, there are significant differences in the methodology and the system design. Specifically, Tasci et al. and Fadillah et al. relied on the CL approach,

Table 1: Evaluation Metrics in Comparison between the Centralize and the PPVFL-SplitNN framework

Database Name	Training Testing		Centralize		PPVFL-SplitNN	
Database Name	Samples	Samples	Accuracy	F1 Score	Accuracy	F1 Score
			(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Diabetes Prediction	5908	1478	88.70	90.22	85.38	86.55
Breast Cancer Wisconsin	559	140	96.42	94.38	95	92.30
Gliomas	671	168	86.30	86.22	80.95	77.77

Table 2: Evaluation Metrics of the CL

Database Name	Reference	Model Type	Accuracy (%)	F1 Score (%)
	PPVFL-SplitNN	NN	88.70	90.22
Diabetes Prediction	Fadillah et al. (2023)	K-Nearest Neighbors	87	86.64
		Random Forest	90.70	90.41
		Logistic Regression	88.64	88.45
Breast Cancer	PPVFL-SplitNN	NN	96.42	94.38
Wisconsin	Guo et al. (2020)	NN	95	92
Gliomas	PPVFL-SplitNN	NN	86.30	86.22
Giloillas	Tasci et al. (2022)	SVM + RF + AdaBoost	86.4	84.2

Table 3: Training Accuracy (%) of Split Learning Model

Reference	MNIST	Titanic
PPVFL-SplitNN	81.16	68.16
Flower (Beutel et al., 2020)	-	65
PyVertical (Romanini et al., 2021)	91.982	-

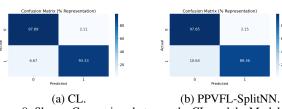


Figure 8: Show a Comparison between the CL, and the Model Trained with PPVFL-SplitNN Framework when using the Breast Cancer.

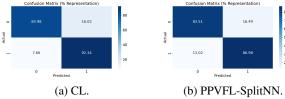
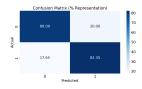


Figure 9: Show a Comparison between the CL, and the Model Trained with PPVFL-SplitNN Framework when using the Diabetes Prediction.

which requires the aggregation of raw data from all healthcare providers in a single repository. Although their methods achieved high predictive performance, CL raises substantial privacy concerns, particularly in healthcare, where data sensitivity is critical and regulations restrict data sharing. On the other hand, Guo et al. (2020) adopted an HFL approach, achieving an F1 score of 0.88 and an accuracy of 0.91, results



the Gliomas Prediction.



(a) CL. (b) PPVFL-SplitNN. Figure 10: Show a Comparison between the CL, and the Model Trained with PPVFL-SplitNN Framework when using

close to those obtained by our framework. However, HFL assumes horizontally partitioned data, where data providers share the same features but for different patients. This assumption limits the applicability of their method in vertically partitioned settings, where different providers hold complementary features for the same individuals.

Our work addresses this limitation by implementing a PPVFL-SplitNN framework, which enables collaborative training across vertically partitioned datasets while preserving privacy. Importantly, our method achieves predictive performance comparable to Guo et al. while operating under stricter data constraints. By exchanging only intermediate embeddings and gradients, our framework ensures compliance with privacy regulations and enhances suitability for real-world healthcare applications by eliminating the need to share raw data.

On the other hand, in VFL, we compare the training accuracy of our framework with existing frameworks such as Flower (Beutel et al., 2020) and PyVertical (Romanini et al., 2021) using two well-known datasets: MNIST and Titanic. As shown in Table 3, our results are comparable to these frameworks, with a slight improvement in training accuracy. In compari-

Table 4: Evaluation Metrics of Our Framework in Case if the Number of Overlap Records is Different

Overlap (%)	Database Name	Training	Testing	Accuracy (%)	F1 Score (%)
		Samples	Samples		
	Diabetes Prediction	5908	1478	85.38	86.55
100	Breast Cancer Wisconsin	559	140	95	92.30
	Gliomas	671	168	80.95	77.77
	Diabetes Prediction	3544	887	84.44	85.91
60	Breast Cancer Wisconsin	335	84	94.04	91.22
	Gliomas	402	101	76.23	72.72

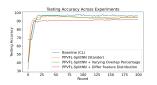
Table 5: Evaluation Metrics of Our Framework based on the Feature Distribution

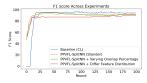
Database		Feature Distribution			F1 Score
Name	Type	Client 1	Client 2	(%)	(%)
Diabetes Prediction	manual	New ID, gender, age, hypertension, heart disease	New ID, gender, age, smoking history, bmi, HbA1c level, blood glucose level	85.38	86.55
	random	New ID, gender, age, hypertension, blood glucose level, HbA1c level, BMI, smoking history (e.g., ever, current)	New ID, gender, age, heart disease, smoking history (e.g., never, not current, former)	84.57	86.11
Breast Cancer Wisconsin	manual	New ID, Clump thickness, Uniformity of cell size, Uniformity of cell shape, Marginal adhesion	New ID, Single epithelial cell size, Bare nuclei, Bland chro- matin, Normal nucleoli, Mi- toses	95	92.30
	random	New ID, Bland chromatin, Uniformity of cell shape, Uni- formity of cell size, Normal nucleoli, Single epithelial cell size	New ID, Bare nuclei, Mitoses, Marginal adhesion, Clump thickness	92.14	89.32
Gliomas	manual	New ID, Gender, Age at diagnosis, IDH1, TP53, ATRX, PTEN, EGFR, CIC, MUC16, PIK3CA, NF1, PIK3R1, Race	New ID, Gender, Age at diagnosis, FUBP1, RB1, NOTCH1, BCOR, CSMD3, SMARCA4, GRIN2A, IDH2, FAT4, PDGFRA	80.95	77.77
	random	New ID, Gender, Age at diagnosis, FUBP1, NF1, ATRX, BCOR, PDGFRA, PTEN, MUC16, TP53, GRIN2A, EGFR, RB1, NOTCH1, Race (e.g., american indian or alaska native, white)	New ID, Gender, Age at diagnosis, PIK3CA, IDH2, CIC, PIK3R1, FAT4, CSMD3, IDH1, SMARCA4, Race (e.g., black or african American, asian)	80.95	77.14

son, Flower provides a general purpose FL framework. However, it does not explicitly focus on vertical partitioning, which is essential in medical datasets where data are distributed between healthcare providers with complementary features. Similarly, PyVertical focuses on vertical data. However, it does not implement advanced techniques for privacy record linkage or consider varying overlap percentages, which are critical factors affecting performance in real-world scenarios.

By addressing these limitations, our framework ensures better alignment of shared records and improved training efficiency, leading to a slight yet consistent im-

provement in training accuracy. These results demonstrate the practical applicability of our framework for vertically partitioned medical data, where privacy and performance must be balanced simultaneously. The effectiveness of our framework is further evaluated in two distinct scenarios to analyze its performance under realistic medical data challenges. These evaluations highlight the framework's robustness in handling varying overlap percentages and feature distributions, reflecting the complexities of real-world healthcare applications.





(a) Testing Accuracy.

(b) F1-Score.

Figure 11: Show the Model Performance under the Evaluated Scenarios when using Breast Cancer.

4.3.1 Impact of Overlap Percentage

In this scenario, we consider the effect of incomplete overlap, where fewer than 100% of patient records are shared across participating hospitals. This situation reflects real-world challenges, such as fragmented healthcare systems where not all patients have records in every hospital, particularly in rural or under-resourced areas. As shown in Table 4, lower overlap percentages (e.g., 60%) lead to a slight degradation in model accuracy and F1 scores due to the reduced number of shared samples available for training. This limits the server's ability to aggregate meaningful embeddings across participants, impacting global model performance. However, the degradation is not dramatic, demonstrating the robustness of our framework under incomplete data conditions. These findings highlight the importance of robust record linkage techniques to maximize shared sample alignment and suggest opportunities to leverage non-overlapping samples for better data utilization in future work.

4.3.2 Impact of Feature Distribution

In this section, we investigate the effect of the feature distribution on the model performance using the three medical datasets. Randomized feature distributions introduce redundancy, imbalance, and noise, which degrade accuracy and F1 scores compared to manually engineered distributions. As shown in Table 5, this degradation underscores the critical role of feature engineering in VFL. For instance, integrating heterogeneous data sources, such as imaging laboratories (holding radiology data) and clinical databases (storing demographic and test results), requires careful feature selection to ensure meaningful contributions from all participants. Thus, performing feature engineering or feature selection within the VFL framework becomes essential to maintain model performance.

4.4 Performance Analysis

The testing accuracy and F1 scores for the evaluated scenarios are presented in Figures 11 to 13. The results confirm that the CL achieves higher and more stable performance due to seamless data integration and full gradient optimization. However, CL is impractical for healthcare applications because of privacy regulations and the sensitive nature of patient data.

In contrast, our proposed framework preserves





(a) Testing Accuracy.

(b) F1-Score.

Figure 12: Show the Model Performance under the Evaluated Scenarios when using the Diabetes Prediction.





(a) Testing Accuracy.

(b) F1-Score.

Figure 13: Show the Model Performance under the Evaluated Scenarios when using the Gliomas Prediction.

medical data privacy while achieving performance comparable to CL. This demonstrates its practicality for collaborative model training in healthcare networks. However, careful data utilization is critical to avoid model degradation. Scenarios with reduced overlap or randomized feature distributions highlight the need for robust record linkage and feature engineering techniques to maintain model performance.

5 CONCLUSIONS AND FUTURE WORKS

In this paper, we proposed a privacy-preserving VFL framework that uses split learning to address challenges in the training of ML models on vertically partitioned data. Our framework ensures privacy preservation, data security, and collaboration among healthcare providers in real-world scenarios. Evaluations on three medical datasets show that the proposed framework achieves a performance comparable to CL while preserving patient privacy. It demonstrates robustness in handling incomplete overlap and diverse feature distributions, offering a practical solution for sensitive healthcare networks. These findings highlight the potential of our frameworks for advancing medical research and patient care while maintaining privacy. Future work should focus on optimizing record linkage and reducing communication overhead to improve scalability and efficiency in large-scale settings.

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