

Harnessing Quantum Power: “An Integrated Approach to DDoS Detection with Deep Learning and Quantum Computing”

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Abstract— This research explores unconventional dimensions of quantum computing and deep learning techniques, pushing beyond established boundaries to investigate the potential of quantum entanglement and superposition in qubit-based systems. Departing from conventional discourse, this study challenges pre-existing notions and traditional information processing paradigms, encompassing popular deep learning techniques and frameworks. The investigation introduces an imaginative lens to contemplate the enigma of quantum indeterminacy in a globally connected network infrastructure comprising LAN (Local Area Network), WAN (Wide Area Network), and Wi-Fi (Wireless Fidelity), where the mere act of observation shapes computational reality. Navigating uncharted intellectual terrain, particularly focusing on major security threats, risks, and the most dangerous of all, DDoS (Distributed Denial of Service Attack) over network infrastructures, this research prompts readers to critically assess classical boundaries. It invites them to embark on a speculative journey into the yet-unexplored frontiers of quantum computation and deep learning, proposing an integrated approach to address the pressing issue of DDoS attacks. DDoS attacks had resulted in a major financial and infrastructural resources loss for multiple giant organizations as well as individual’s personal losses. With the potential to automate and improvise, deep learning can be a vital asset to detect the existing DDoS attack inside a huge infrastructure as well as with the computation power of the quantum computing the time constraint could be reduced to and lead to faster execution and further evaluation for DDoS Attack.

Keywords— Quantum Computing, DDoS Attack, Network Security, Deep Learning, Recurrent Neural Networks, Deep Learning Techniques, Quantum Computing Techniques, Machine Learning.

I. INTRODUCTION

In the dynamic realm of information technology, a paradigm shift is underway, ushering in a new era characterized by the synergy between quantum computing and deep learning

techniques. This research embarks on an exploration of uncharted territories, delving into the intricate realms of quantum entanglement and superposition within qubit-based systems. Departing from conventional discourse, our study broadens its horizons to include prevalent deep learning techniques and frameworks. Introducing a novel perspective, we aim to unravel the enigma of quantum indeterminacy across a globally interconnected network infrastructure, spanning LAN (Local Area Network), WAN (Wide Area Network), and Wi-Fi (Wireless Fidelity).

In a world where computational reality is shaped by the mere act of observation, this research navigates unexplored intellectual terrain, with a particular focus on critical network security issues. Emphasizing major threats, risks, and the perilous Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) attacks, which have inflicted significant financial and infrastructural losses on both corporate giants and individuals, our study prompts readers to critically reassess classical boundaries.

With a concentrated effort on addressing the acute challenge of DDoS attacks, this research proposes an integrated approach harnessing the capabilities of both quantum computing and deep learning. By capitalizing on the computational power of quantum computing and the automation and improvisation strengths of deep learning, the aim of this research is to augment detection capabilities within large-scale infrastructures. This approach seeks to reduce time constraints, enabling faster execution and evaluation in the context of DDoS attacks. The associated keywords for this research encompass Quantum Computing, DDoS Attack, Network Security, Deep Learning, Recurrent Neural Networks, Convolutional Neural Networks, Deep Learning Techniques, and Quantum Computing Techniques.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

- In recent research endeavors, classical machine learning (ML) methodologies have been extensively investigated for their efficacy in detecting Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) attacks. Notably, a recent scholarly contribution (citation [5]) introduces a novel framework rooted in feature and model selection (FAMS), specifically tailored for DDoS detection. Avoid combining SI and CGS units, such as current in amperes and magnetic field in oersteds. This often leads to confusion because equations do not balance dimensionally. If you must use mixed units, clearly state the units for each quantity that you use in an equation.
- This framework prioritizes the identification of features and models exhibiting high generalization capabilities, alongside achieving notable benchmarks in prediction accuracy and expeditious prediction times. Moreover, within the same domain, another scholarly work (citation [6]) presents a comprehensive systematic methodology designed for robust DDoS attack detection. Leveraging ML paradigms such as the random forest and XGBoost classification algorithms, this approach aims at the classification and prediction of diverse DDoS attack types.
- Furthermore, a notable study (citation [7]) delves into fortifying smart grid systems against DDoS amplification threats. Despite demonstrating promising performance metrics, this methodology's limitation in detecting encrypted DDoS attacks underscores ongoing challenges in the domain of cybersecurity and ML-based threat mitigation strategies. In recent scholarly discourse, Reference [8] illuminates the efficacy of multiple machine learning (ML) methodologies, encompassing tree-based algorithms, random forest, quadratic discriminant analysis, support vector machines, naïve Bayes, and extreme gradient boosting, in the context of detecting DDoS incidents within smart grid environments, under specific conditions and assumptions. Concurrently, a recent contribution (citation [9]) introduces the iCAD framework—an innovative information-centric architecture scheme—tailored to mitigate Denial of Service (DoS) and DDoS attacks within smart grid infrastructures.
- Moreover, an advanced hybrid detection framework (citation [10]) emerges, capable of discerning potentially malicious activities such as DDoS and False Data Injection (FDI) within the cyber layer of conventional power grids.
- Meanwhile, the burgeoning field of quantum technologies has attracted considerable attention on a global scale, with extensive scientific literature exploring its applications.
- Within the realm of modern power grid research, efforts have been made to harness the capabilities of quantum security algorithms in establishing resilient and reliable

power grid networks, particularly in the face of extreme environmental events, cyber-attacks, and outages.

- Notably, a study cited in [11] provides a comprehensive review of current literature on Quantum Computing (QC) in the context of smart grids, elucidating early quantum endeavors in optimization, simulations, communications, and machine learning for enhancing the security and resilience of smart grid infrastructures.

III. OVERVIEW

a) Neural Networks: -

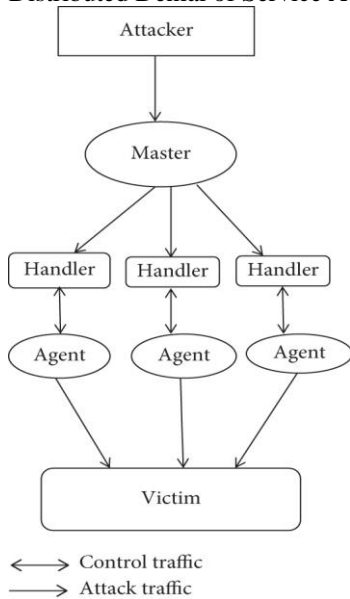
Amongst the artificial intelligence and machine learning techniques, the neural networks are one of the most popularly used all across the globe out of the machine learning and deep learning algorithms that is used for any model evaluation and prediction. The characteristic which makes it unique is the ability of the neural networks to mimic the human brain in order to solve specific computation and scientific problems for real time data and big data analysis. There are many prominent neural networks types like CNN, RNN, ANN, Feed-Forward, LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory etc., each used for varied purposes. The type of neural network used for this research is the Recurrent Neural Network. The neural network follows the layered approach consisting of three major layers 1. Input layer 2. Hidden Layer and 3. Output Layer respectively. In any case if deep learning is applied to the neural networks, then the neural networks follow a hierarchy passing through each layer starting from low to high scale. In most of the cases the layers are interconnected with each other similar to human brain neurons. The perceptron plays the role of human neurons in the case of the Neural Network.

b) DDOS Attack Overview: -

The DDoS attack is a highly disruptive form of cyber-attack that overwhelms a website or server by flooding it with fake traffic, rendering it inaccessible. Typically, DDoS attack packets have a high data rate, causing network layer disruptions [1]. In this attack, a botnet master controls botnet machines scattered across different locations. Botnets are favored for their ability to mimic normal Internet traffic patterns, allowing them to evade detection by the owner. Due to the distributed nature of botnets, shutting down the attacking machines is complex. The DDoS attack comprises four main components: attackers, masters, zombies, and victims. This attack is commonly categorized into two types: bandwidth attacks, which overload network resources, and resource depletion attacks, which target cloud resources to deny access to legitimate users.

The architecture of a DDoS attack follows an agent-handler model, where the master coordinates communication within the attack system. Masters, available as software packages on the Internet, utilize handlers to communicate with agent software installed on compromised machines, known as botnets, to execute the DDoS attack. Attackers can communicate with multiple handlers to identify active agents and orchestrate attacks.

Distributed Denial of Service Attack: -



c) Quantum Computing: -

Quantum computing emerges from the principles of quantum physics, which delve into the intricacies of nature at its most fundamental level. At the heart of quantum computing lies the concept of a quantum, representing the smallest unit of a physical entity viable for computational processes. Unlike classical computing, which relies on traditional bits represented by electrical or magnetic states, quantum computing operates on the manipulation of quantum bits or qubits. The fundamental idea behind quantum computing is to harness the unique properties of quantum mechanics, such as superposition and entanglement, to perform computational tasks with unprecedented speed and efficiency. Instead of processing data using traditional binary logic gates, quantum computers utilize extremely short pulses of light to encode and manipulate information. This approach offers the potential to accelerate computational operations by orders of magnitude, with some estimates suggesting speed enhancements of up to 100,000 times compared to classical computing methods. In quantum computers, data storage takes on a novel form, where information is not stored directly as in classical computers. Rather, data is encoded into qubits, which can exist in multiple states simultaneously due to the principle of superposition.

d) Quantum computers vs classical computers

One of the primary distinctions between quantum and classical computers lies in their modes of information processing. While conventional computers rely on the binary system, where information is represented by transistors as either 0 or 1, quantum computers diverge by utilizing qubits. Unlike classical bits, qubits can exist in a superposition of states, enabling them to

embody both 0 and 1 simultaneously, which greatly enhances computational power.

Speaking of power, quantum computers demonstrate exponential growth in their capabilities as the number of qubits increases. This stands in stark contrast to classical computers, whose power scales linearly with the number of transistors. The unparalleled potential of quantum computing is especially evident in its ability to tackle complex problems such as optimization tasks, data analysis, and simulations with remarkable efficiency. In terms of construction, quantum computers employ advanced components like Superconducting Quantum Interface Devices (SQUID) or quantum transistors, whereas classical computers rely on traditional CMOS transistors. Furthermore, data processing in quantum computing occurs within the Quantum Processing Unit (QPU), comprised of interconnected qubits, while classical computing operations are conducted within the Central Processing Unit (CPU), which includes components like the Arithmetic and Logic Unit (ALU) and processor registers. Another critical distinction lies in information representation, where classical computers utilize bits and quantum computers leverage qubits. This fundamental difference in representation contributes to the extraordinary speed of quantum computers, allowing them to solve certain problems exponentially faster than their classical counterparts. A notable example is Google's quantum computer, which accomplished a computation in a matter of minutes that would have taken the world's most powerful supercomputer millennia to complete.

e) R&D in Quantum Computing

Quantum computing (QC) has recently emerged as a promising avenue to enhance computing capabilities, enabling ultrafast real-time decision-making and tackling cybersecurity challenges that are beyond the reach of traditional computers and supercomputers. This burgeoning field has garnered significant attention from various industries, businesses, and researchers worldwide. Leading countries in this domain include the United States, focusing on quantum computing innovations, Europe, concentrating efforts on quantum mechanics, and China, targeting advancements in quantum communication and cryptography. Numerous universities, including Harvard University, are actively engaged in quantum research, with investments aimed at accelerating QC advancements. Collaborations, such as the alliance between Harvard University and Amazon's AWS, aim to construct quantum networks. Furthermore, the QC industry is rapidly expanding globally, with various companies specializing in QC hardware development, primarily utilizing gate-based and annealing approaches. Gate model QCs employ quantum gate sequences to

simplify operations, while quantum annealing leverages quantum physics principles like quantum tunneling, entanglement, and superposition to tackle optimization problems. These developments underscore the growing significance of QC in reshaping computational paradigms.

Table below presents some QML platforms: -

QC Platform	Type	Realization	Qubits	Country
Xanadu, 2016 [13-20]	Gate-based	Photonic	24	Canada
D-Wave, 1999 [17,18]	Analog-based	Annealing	+2000	Canada
ALIBABA, 2017 [19]	Gate-based	Superconducting	11	China
IBM Q, 2016 [20]	Gate-based	Superconducting	127	U.S.

Xanadu, a company based in Canada, has been at the forefront of pioneering the development of the initial photonics-driven quantum computing (QC) platform utilizing light. Notably, Xanadu provides a cloud-based software platform, which includes application libraries like Strawberry Fields, to support research and development in quantum computing [13]. Another significant Canadian startup, D-Wave, specializes in analog quantum computing, primarily addressing a limited range of quantum annealing tasks. D-Wave boasts a quantum capacity of around 2000 qubits [18]. In the United States, IBM Q has emerged as a leading player in the quantum computing field since its establishment in 2016. IBM Q has produced quantum devices with up to 127 qubits and offers public access to devices featuring up to 32 qubits. IBM Q's roadmap involves unveiling the 1121-qubit Condor processor by 2023, with aspirations to achieve hundreds of thousands of qubits by 2026. Additionally, Alibaba, a prominent Chinese startup, has introduced China's inaugural superconducting quantum computing platform, commencing with an 11-qubit quantum computer and plans to expand to 144 qubits by 2022 and 1024 qubits by 2025 [19]. These initiatives underscore the global momentum and technological advancements within the quantum computing industry, demonstrating diverse strategies and swift progress toward scalable quantum computing solutions. This study explores the era of cyberattacks and introduces an RNN-based QC approach to identify distributed denial of service (DDoS) attacks using the SDN dataset obtained from Kaggle.

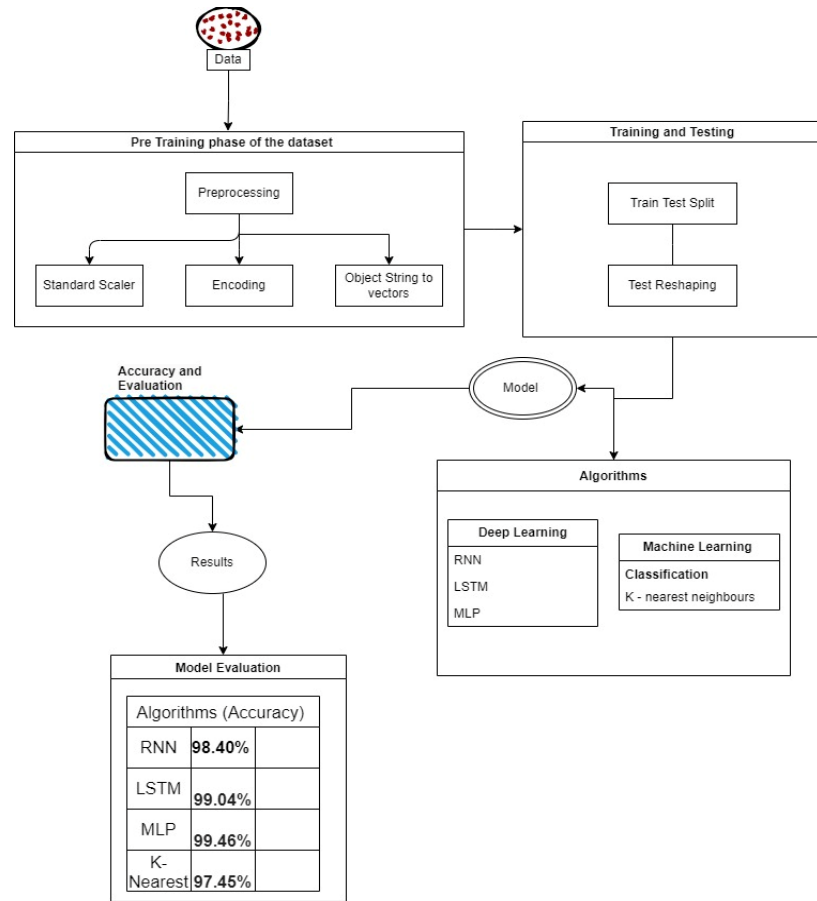
No of rows: - 104035

No of columns: - 23

The objective is to utilize classical Machine Learning and Deep Learning algorithms to classify network traffic as either normal or not normal based on a dataset containing 23 columns. The dataset includes a target variable labeled "label" with values of 1 for malicious traffic and 0 for benign traffic. Additional description:

Dataset contains 3 categorical and 20 numeric features (including the LabelNumber equations consecutively).

Process Flow: -



IV. METHODOLOGY

Dataset Overview: -

Dataset_sdn.csv [Source: Kaggle]

A) Preprocessing: -

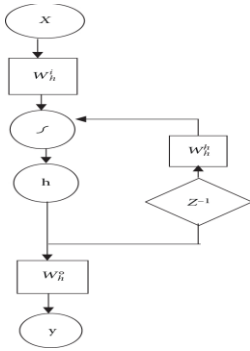
In this research, one of the popular deep learning terminologies RNN (Recurrent Neural Networks), LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory), Multilayer Perceptron Classifier (MLP)

and K-Neighbors Classification are used to analyze the sdn dataset in different consequent epochs to generate the final accuracy for the given dataset respectively.

a) *RNN Model*: -

Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) are a category of deep neural networks celebrated for their adeptness in handling sequential data, making them particularly suitable for tasks like natural language processing, speech recognition, and classification [2]. What distinguishes RNNs from feed-forward neural networks is their recurrent structure, which incorporates memory units capable of retaining information from previous time steps in hidden layers to influence current predictions. The basic configuration of an RNN is depicted in Figure 2, with its layer components illustrated in the figure below. Noteworthy are the weights associated with input, hidden, and output units, denoted as W_{input} , W_{hidden} , and W_{out} , respectively. Throughout the learning process, RNNs utilize prior hidden states to compute the output for the current time step, aided by the inclusion of a delayed unit $Z_{exp}(-1)$. This mechanism empowers RNNs to effectively harness historical output data for improved learning and predictive accuracy.

Architecture of RNN flowchart



The autoencoder plays a pivotal role in unsupervised learning techniques, where its output serves as the input data [6]. The encoder network converts input data into a code, transitioning from a high-dimensional space to a low-dimensional one. Subsequently, the decoder reverses this transformation, restoring the input to its original form. The encoder vector, a crucial element in the encoder neural network, is expressed as follows:

$$e(\mathbf{X}) = f(\mathbf{X})$$

Here, f signifies the encoding function, while \mathbf{X} represents the input data. Conversely, within the decoder neural network, the reconstruction process is accomplished through its decoding function, mapping the data from a low-dimensional space back to a high-dimensional one, as shown below:

$\hat{\mathbf{X}} = g(\mathbf{e})$
 $e^v = e_f(x^v)$, Where, e^v represents the encoding function and x^v denotes the input data. In a decoder neural network, the reconstruction process is performed by its decoding function. This process maps the given dataset from low-dimensional space into high-dimensional space. The decoder process has been done by using the following.

$$\hat{x}^v = d_f(e^v)$$

The reconstruction error $e(\mathbf{X}, \hat{\mathbf{X}})$ is minimized by using these encoder and decoder processes for the number of trained samples. The term is denoted as loss function, examining the inconsistency among encoded and decoded samples. The minimization of reconstruction error is the main objective of the unsupervised autoencoder.

$$\delta_{ae}(\theta, \theta') = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{v=1}^N e(x^v, d_{\theta'}(e_{\theta}(x^v)))$$

The function of encoding and decoding, along with the nonlinearity process, has been performed by using the following: -

$$e_{\theta}(x) = e_{af,e}(b + W_x),$$

$$d_{\theta'}(x) = d_{af,e}(b + W_x^T),$$

where $e_{af,e}$ and $d_{af,e}$ represent the encoder and decoder activation functions. The network bias is indicated by b , and the weight matrices of the network are given by W and W^T . The reconstruction error process is as follows.

$$e(x, \hat{x}) = \|x - \hat{x}\|^2$$

Pretraining the Deep Learning Neural Network (DLNN) model entails establishing the encoder process in the preceding module. The input layer of the DLNN network, coupled with the first hidden layer, constitutes the encoder neural network of the initial autoencoding phase for the input signal \mathbf{X}^v . Training the first autoencoder minimizes the reconstruction error, utilizing the parameters obtained to initialize the first hidden layer of the DLNN process as follows:

$$e_1^v = e_{\theta_1} = (x^v)$$

Now, the input data transforms into the encoder vector \mathbf{e}_1^v . The encoder neural network for the subsequent autoencoder is derived from the first and second hidden layers of the DLNN. Subsequently, the second trained autoencoder initializes the second hidden layer of the DLNN network. This process continues until reaching the final hidden layer of the DLNN model. The generalized representation of the final encoder vector is presented below.

$$e_N^v = e_{\theta_N}(E_{N-1}^v)$$

The N th trained parameter of the encoder neural network is represented by Θ_N . The DLNN's hidden layer undergoes pretraining through the N -stacked encoder process. This pretraining procedure mitigates local minima issues and enhances the network's generalization capabilities. The DLNN model's output

is computed as follows.

$$y^v = e_{\theta_{N+1}}(e_N^v)$$

The trained parameter of the output layer is denoted by Θ_{subN+1} . Backpropagation algorithm is employed to minimize the output error.

b) K- Nearest Neighbors Classifier: -

KNN is a simple and intuitive algorithm used for classification and regression tasks. It's a type of instance-based learning, where the model stores the training examples and makes predictions based on the similarity of new instances to the existing ones. For a given test instance, KNN finds the 'k' nearest neighbours from the training set. The prediction for the test instance is then based on the majority class (for classification) or the average value (for regression) of the labels of its k nearest neighbours. KNN relies on a distance metric to measure the similarity between instances. The most commonly used distance metric is Euclidean distance, given by:

$$d(x, x') = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - x'_i)^2}$$

c) MLP (Multilayer Perceptron Classifier): -

The MLP-Classifier, or Multi-layer Perceptron classifier, is a classification algorithm deeply rooted in neural network architecture. Unlike traditional classifiers like Support Vector Machines or Naive Bayes, the MLP-Classifier harnesses the power of neural networks to tackle classification tasks. This algorithm is characterized by its multi-layered structure, mimicking the interconnectedness of neurons in the human brain. Each layer contains numerous nodes, or neurons, which process and transform incoming data through weighted connections. One of the defining features of the MLP-Classifier is its ability to learn complex patterns and relationships in data, thanks to its nonlinear activation functions and multiple hidden layers. Through a process called backpropagation, the classifier adjusts its internal parameters, or weights, during training to minimize prediction errors.

Nodes are organized into what are called layers. At the highest level, there are three types of layers in every ANN:

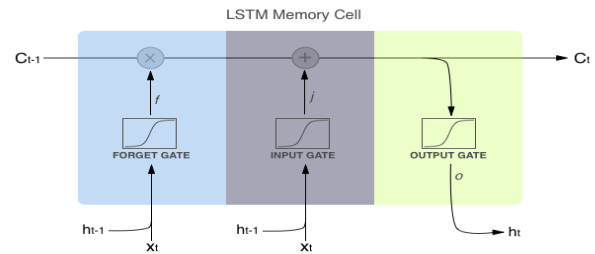
1. Input layer
2. Hidden layers
3. Output layer

Moreover, the MLP-Classifier offers flexibility in model architecture, allowing customization of parameters such as the number of layers, nodes per layer, and activation functions. This adaptability enables the classifier to handle a wide range of classification tasks.

d) LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory): -

LSTMs (Long Short-Term Memory) represent a specialized category within Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) designed to capture long-term dependencies in sequential data. At the core of LSTMs is a unique architecture comprising memory cells and gates. These components work in tandem to regulate the flow of information throughout the network. By selectively retaining or discarding information as needed, LSTMs overcome the challenge of vanishing gradients commonly encountered in conventional RNNs, ensuring more stable and efficient learning.

In LSTM, primarily there are 3 major gates: **1) Input Gate 2) Forget Gate 3) Output Gate**



The Gate equations are as follows: -

$$i_t = \sigma(w_i[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i)$$

$$f_t = \sigma(w_f[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f)$$

$$o_t = \sigma(w_o[h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_o)$$

Where,

$i_t \rightarrow$ represents input gate.

$f_t \rightarrow$ represents forget gate.

$o_t \rightarrow$ represents output gate.

$\sigma \rightarrow$ represents sigmoid function.

$w_x \rightarrow$ weight for the respective gate(x) neurons.

$h_{t-1} \rightarrow$ output of the previous lstm block(at timestamp $t - 1$).

$x_t \rightarrow$ input at current timestamp.

$b_x \rightarrow$ biases for the respective gates(x).

For each epoch, primarily two types of activation functions are applied:

1. A cell state that serves as the long-term memory of the neuron;

- The neuron is called a cell and has a complex structure consisting of four gates that regulate the information flow

e) Activation Functions generally used: -

- Tanh: - The hyperbolic tangent activation function, often abbreviated as tanh, is a popular choice in neural network architectures due to its ability to introduce nonlinearity while maintaining bounded outputs in the range [-1, 1].

$$\tanh(x) = \frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$$

- Sigmoid function: - The sigmoid activation function, commonly known as the logistic function, is a foundational element in neural network architectures due to its ability to transform input values into a smooth S-shaped curve, squashing them into the range [0,1].

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}.$$

B) Feature Extraction:

Number of Numeric Features: 20
Number of Object Features: 3

	src	dst	Protocol
0	10.0.0.1	10.0.0.8	UDP
1	10.0.0.1	10.0.0.8	UDP
2	10.0.0.2	10.0.0.8	UDP
3	10.0.0.2	10.0.0.8	UDP
4	10.0.0.2	10.0.0.8	UDP

In order to extract numerical method, the Standard Scaler and the Label Encoding is used for each and every applied algorithm. As shown in the figure above, there are 20 numeric features and 3 object features. Each of these features can be extracted by applying various methods such as.

a) Min-Max Scaling (Normalization):

Min-Max Scaling, also known as normalization, is a method used to scale numeric features to a specific range, typically between 0 and 1. It involves subtracting the minimum value of the feature and dividing by the difference between the maximum and minimum values. This technique preserves the relative differences between values while ensuring that all features are within a comparable range.

$$X_{\text{scaled}} = \frac{X - X_{\min}}{X_{\max} - X_{\min}}$$

b) Standard Scaler:

The Standard Scaler is a preprocessing technique used to standardize features by removing the mean and scaling them to have a unit variance.

Given a feature X with n samples:

Calculate the mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) of the feature X :

$$\mu = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$$

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu)^2}$$

Standardize each sample of the feature X using the formula:

$$X_{\text{standardized}} = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

The resulting feature $X_{\text{standardized}}$ will have a mean of approximately 0 and a standard deviation of 1.

The StandardScaler is commonly used in machine learning pipelines to preprocess data before feeding it into models, ensuring that features are on a similar scale, which can improve the convergence speed of some algorithms and make the model more robust to varying feature magnitudes.

To convert object into vectors: -

i. Label Encoding: -

Label Encoding is a technique used to convert categorical variables into numerical labels. It assigns a unique integer to each category present in the categorical feature.

Given a categorical feature X with n unique categories:

1. Assign a unique integer to each category:

Let's denote the set of unique categories as $\{1, 2, \dots\}$ $\{c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n\}$. We assign an integer label to each category starting from 0 to $n-1$. For example:

$c_1:0, c_2:1, \dots, c_n:n-1$

2. Replace each category in the feature X with its corresponding integer label:

If X_i represents the i^{th} category in the feature X , then after label encoding, X_i will be replaced with its integer label li . For example:

$X_i \rightarrow li$

This process transforms the categorical feature into a numerical representation that can be used as input for machine learning algorithms.

C) Developing model

This research paper delves into the application of various machine learning and deep learning models for the detection of DDoS Attack.

Single dataset, namely sdn.csv were utilized for the investigation. The preprocessing and feature extraction steps were applied to clean and enhance the datasets. Subsequently, the data was divided into training and testing sets, with varying ratios of 90:10, 80:20, and 70:30, to evaluate the models' performance as well as rescaled if needed. The study employs a range of machine learning classifiers, including k-nearest neighbor (K-NN). Additionally, deep learning classifiers such as Simple Recurrent Neural Networks, along with Recurrent Neural Network +Long Short-Term Memory (RNN+LSTM), Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) were also employed. The evaluation metrics used for assessing model performance include accuracy, F1 score, recall, and precision.

D) Evaluation

In evaluating the effectiveness of our DDoS attack detection model, a rigorous analysis is conducted using key metrics that illuminate different facets of performance. This section discusses four fundamental evaluation metrics: accuracy, precision, recall, and the F1 score. The subsequent exploration of these metrics aims to offer a clear and nuanced understanding of the strengths and limitations inherent in our DDoS attack detection methodology.

a.) Accuracy: Accuracy is a measure of the overall correctness of your model. It calculates the ratio of correctly predicted instances to the total instances.

Formula:

$$\text{Accuracy} = (TP + TN) / (TP + FP + TN + FN)$$

b.) Precision: Precision is the ability of your model to avoid labelling non-fake news as fake. It calculates the ratio of correctly predicted fake news to the total instances predicted as fake.

Formula:

$$\text{Precision} = TP / (TP + FP)$$

c.) Recall (Sensitivity or True Positive Rate): Recall measures the ability of your model to identify all relevant instances of fake news. It calculates the ratio of correctly predicted fake news to the total actual fake news instances.

Formula:

$$\text{Recall} = TP / (TP + FN)$$

d.) F1 Score: F1 score is the harmonic mean of precision and recall. It provides a balance between precision and recall, especially when there is an imbalance between the number of positive and negative instances.

Formula:

$$\text{F1 Score} = 2 \cdot TP / (TP + FP + FN)$$

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

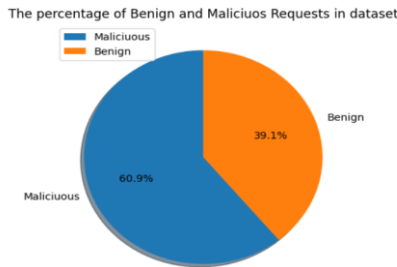
- A. Out of the provided dataset and the fig.V.1 Shows the presence of the actual and malicious requests from the varied sources available responsible of prevalence of the DDoS attack Threat out of normal requests.
- B. The Figure V.2 Shows the comparison and the numerical significance of the all the requests and attack requests from varied objects, In this case the object is the IP address, protocols and src. From the given comparison, it can be concluded out of maximum requests which ip request was attempted to infected with the DDoS attack request.
- C. The Fig. V.3 Shows the comparison of combined request counts from different ip addresses passed on the the network over the time duration.
- D. The Fig. V.4 Shows the number of combined requests counts from different ip addresses over through protocols.
- E. The Fig. V.5 Shows the total time duration of combined requests counts from different ip addresses over through protocols.
- F. The Fig. V.6, the final figure shows the training loss reduction obtained over applying The Recurrnet Neural Network Model Respectively. This is the simple RNN Model accuracy and training loss over the period for the given dataset.
- G. In this research, we evaluated the performance of four different machine learning algorithms: Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN), K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM), and Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) Classifier. Each algorithm was trained and tested on a dataset to classify instances accurately. The evaluation metrics used for comparison were Test Accuracy, Test Precision, Test Recall, and Test F1 Score.
- H. The RNN model achieved a Test Accuracy of 98.40%, indicating its ability to correctly classify instances. It demonstrated high precision (98.66%), recall (97.24%), and F1 score (97.94%), showcasing its effectiveness in both minimizing false positives and negatives while maintaining a balance between precision and recall.
- I. The KNN algorithm exhibited a Test Accuracy of 97.45%, performing consistently across precision, recall, and F1 score, each scoring 97.44%. While KNN performed well, its precision and recall were slightly lower compared to the RNN model.
- J. The LSTM model outperformed both RNN and KNN with a Test Accuracy of 99.04%. It achieved impressive precision, recall, and F1 score, all registering at 98.98%. LSTM demonstrated superior performance in accurately classifying instances, making it a highly effective algorithm for the task at hand.

K. Finally, the MLP Classifier emerged as the top-performing algorithm in this study, boasting a Test Accuracy of 99.46%. With precision, recall, and F1 score all matching this high accuracy value, the MLP Classifier exhibited exceptional performance in classification tasks, indicating its robustness and reliability.

L. Overall, the results highlight the effectiveness of these machine learning algorithms in classification tasks, with the MLP Classifier demonstrating the highest performance followed closely by the LSTM model, while RNN and KNN also displayed competitive performances. These findings provide valuable insights into the suitability and performance of different algorithms for similar classification tasks.

N. Figures and Tables

a) Figure V.1: - Comparison between the malicious and benign requests over the dataset: -



b) Fig. V.2 Comparison between the number of all the requests and the malicious requests:

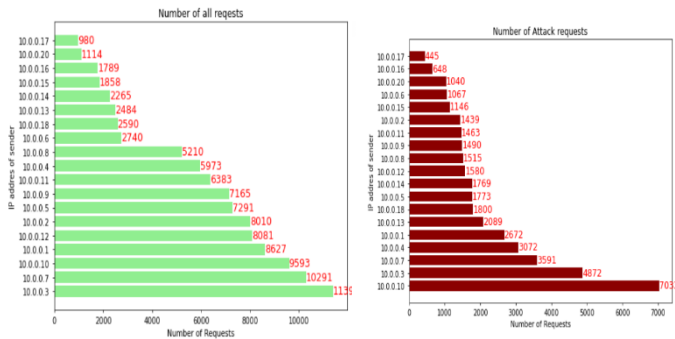
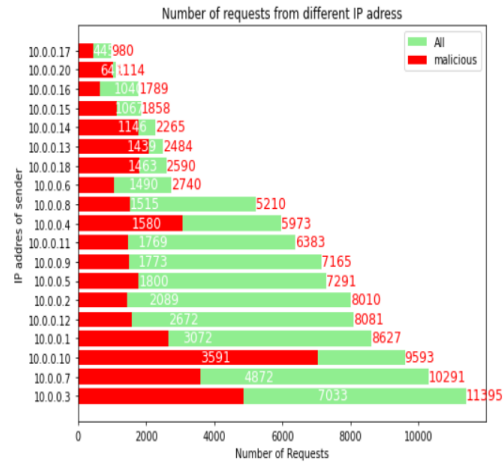


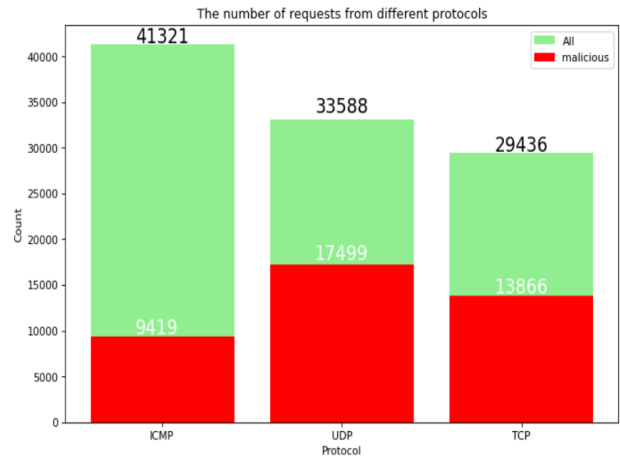
Fig. V.2 compares the two different network requests over the provided infrastructure from the similar IP addresses that differentiates the actual and attack request from the external entities over the network. It can be clearly understood that out of all the increasing combined requests the ratio of the actual request to combined requests is roughly 10:6.

c) Fig. V.3 Combined Requests from different IP addresses



The Fig. V.3 provides the combined actual requests and malicious requests from different IP addresses with the numerical significance out of the total requests. From the visuals it can be clearly seen that the highest number of requests was made by the Ip address 10.0.0.3 but the maximum number of malicious requests was generated from the Ip address 10.0.0.10.

d) Fig. V.4 Number of combined requests from different protocols: -



e) Time and duration comparison for each request (Milliseconds)

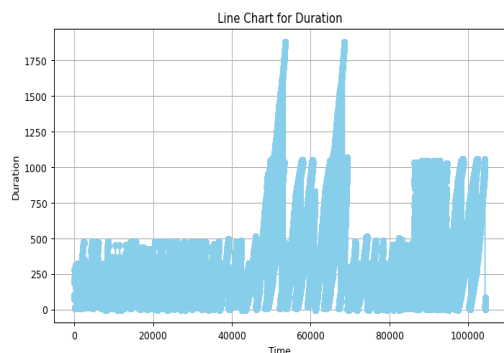
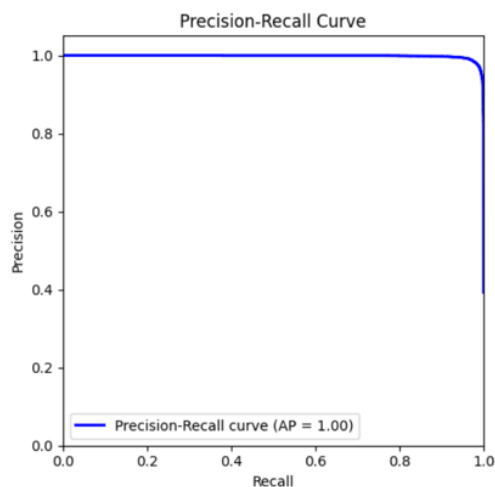
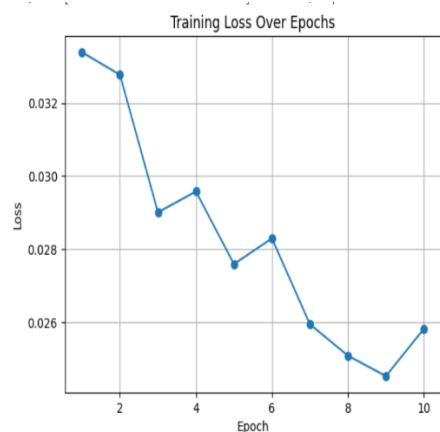


Fig.V.5 Time and duration comparison for each request (Milliseconds)

The time duration comparison proved that with every epoch for each respective varied domains for the combined requests and packets the maximum attack duration lasted at 20000 milliseconds and the reduction significantly to last for 1750.

f) RNN Loss per Epoch and ROC curve of Precision and Recall: -



The figure above shows the considerable reduction in the test loss with each and every epoch for the Neural Network which suggests that the RNN model is accurately calculating the numerical outcomes for the dataset.

FIG. V.7 TABLE: - COMPARISON OF THE MODEL TABLE: -

Algorithm	Test Accuracy	Test Precision	Test Recall	Test F1 Score
RNN	98.40%	98.66%	97.24%	97.94%
K-Nearest Neighbors	97.45%	97.44%	97.45%	97.44%
LSTM	99.04%	98.98%	98.98%	98.98%
MLP Classifier	99.46%	99.46%	99.46%	99.46%

FIG. V.8 TABLE-2 : - CLASSIFIERS APPLIED

ALGORITHMS	ACCURACY
RECURRENT NEURAL NETWORKS (RNN)	98.40%
K- NEAREST NEIGHBORS	97.40%
LONG SHORT-TERM MEMORY NEURAL NETWORK (LSTM)	99.04%
MULTILAYER PERCEPTRON CLASSIFIER (MLP)	99.46%

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CONCLUSION

In conclusion, this research presents a groundbreaking fusion of Deep Learning and Quantum Computing, propelling DDoS detection into a new era of efficacy and resilience. By harnessing the immense computational power of quantum algorithms alongside the robust pattern recognition capabilities of deep neural networks, it can successfully engineer a formidable defense against evolving cyber threats, especially the DDoS (Distributed Denial of Service) attacks in an extremely huge infrastructure and ecosystem of computers.

This integrated approach not only enhances detection accuracy but also bolsters system resilience, ensuring swift and adaptive responses to emerging attack vectors. The synergy between quantum-enhanced algorithms and deep learning models empowers cybersecurity professionals with unparalleled insights and predictive capabilities, enabling proactive defense strategies against sophisticated DDoS attacks.

As technology continues to evolve, embracing the frontier of quantum computing in conjunction with deep learning methodologies becomes imperative for staying ahead in the cybersecurity arms race. Our research heralds a new dawn in DDoS mitigation, offering tech enthusiasts a glimpse into the transformative potential of interdisciplinary collaboration at the intersection of quantum power and deep learning prowess. Together, it is possible to fortify the overall digital landscapes against adversarial threats, ushering in a future where security and innovation converge harmoniously.

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