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# Performance Evaluation of Anomaly-Based Detection Approaches for Zero-Day Attack Early Warning in Cloud Infrastructure

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**Abstract:** The escalating sophistication of zero-day attacks poses unprecedented challenges to cloud infrastructure security, necessitating advanced detection mechanisms beyond traditional signature-based approaches. This paper presents a comprehensive performance evaluation of anomaly-based detection approaches specifically designed for early warning of zero-day attacks in cloud environments. We systematically analyze multiple detection strategies leveraging multi-source telemetry data, including network traffic patterns, system call sequences, and resource usage metrics. Through extensive experimentation on a realistic cloud infrastructure testbed using synthesized attack scenarios, we compare statistical-, machine learning-, and ensemble-based detection approaches across critical performance dimensions, including detection accuracy, false positive rates, and detection timeliness. Our evaluation reveals significant trade-offs among approaches, with ensemble methods achieving a recall (TPR) of 94.7% while maintaining a false positive rate of 0.20%. The findings provide actionable insights for cloud service providers seeking to optimize their zero-day threat detection capabilities.

**Keywords:** zero-day attacks, Cloud infrastructure security, Anomaly detection, Performance evaluation

## 1. Introduction

### 1.1. Background and Motivation

#### 1.1.1. The Growing Threat Landscape of Zero-Day Attacks in Cloud Environments

Cloud computing has fundamentally transformed enterprise IT infrastructure, enabling unprecedented scalability, flexibility, and cost efficiency. The global cloud infrastructure market continues to expand rapidly, with organizations migrating critical workloads and sensitive data to cloud platforms at an accelerating pace. This transformation has simultaneously created expansive attack surfaces that adversaries actively exploit through increasingly sophisticated zero-day vulnerabilities.

Zero-day attacks represent a particularly insidious threat category, exploiting previously unknown vulnerabilities before vendors can develop and deploy patches. Unlike conventional attacks that leverage known vulnerabilities, zero-day exploits operate in the temporal window between vulnerability discovery and patch availability, rendering traditional defense mechanisms ineffective. Recent industry reports indicate a substantial increase in the prevalence of zero-day exploits, with attackers demonstrating enhanced capabilities in vulnerability discovery and weaponization [1].

Cloud infrastructure presents unique challenges for zero-day attack detection due to its distributed nature, multi-tenant architecture, and dynamic resource allocation patterns.

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The complexity of modern cloud environments, encompassing virtual machines, containers, serverless functions, and micro services, creates numerous potential entry points for malicious actors [2]. Attack vectors range from exploiting hypervisor vulnerabilities to compromising cloud management interfaces and lateral movement within tenant networks.

### 1.1.2. Limitations of Traditional Signature-Based Detection Systems

Conventional intrusion detection systems predominantly rely on signature-based approaches, matching observed behaviors against databases of known attack patterns. While effective for detecting previously cataloged threats, these systems exhibit fundamental limitations when confronting zero-day attacks. The absence of pre-existing signatures for novel vulnerabilities creates blind spots that sophisticated adversaries readily exploit [3].

Signature-based detection assumes that attack patterns remain relatively stable across incidents. This assumption fails to account for the creativity and adaptability demonstrated by modern threat actors, who continuously develop novel exploitation techniques specifically designed to evade detection [4]. The temporal lag between zero-day vulnerability discovery, signature development, and deployment creates vulnerability windows that can persist for weeks or months.

## 1.2. Research Problem and Objectives

### 1.2.1. Challenges in Achieving Timely Zero-Day Attack Detection

Detecting zero-day attacks in cloud infrastructure requires capabilities that extend beyond traditional security paradigms. The primary challenge lies in identifying malicious behaviors without prior knowledge of specific attack signatures or exploit techniques. Detection systems must establish accurate models of expected system behavior and identify deviations that may indicate ongoing attacks, while simultaneously minimizing false positives that can overwhelm security operations teams [5].

### 1.2.2. The Trade-off Between Detection Accuracy and False Positive Rates

Security detection systems face an inherent trade-off between maximizing detection accuracy and minimizing false-positive rates. Aggressive detection strategies that flag numerous potential threats achieve high sensitivity but burden security teams with extensive alert triage [6]. Conservative approaches reduce false positives but risk missing genuine attacks, particularly subtle or sophisticated intrusions.

### 1.2.3. Research Questions and Scope

This research addresses several fundamental questions regarding the detection of zero-day attacks in cloud infrastructure. First, how do different anomaly-based detection approaches compare in terms of detection accuracy, false positive rates, and timeliness when applied to cloud environments? Second, what telemetry data sources provide the most valuable signals for identifying zero-day attacks? Third, how can multiple detection strategies be effectively combined to optimize overall performance?

## 1.3. Contributions and Paper Structure

### 1.3.1. Main Contributions

This paper makes several significant contributions to the field of cloud security and zero-day attack detection. We present a comprehensive evaluation framework for assessing anomaly-based detection approaches, encompassing multiple performance metrics relevant to operational deployment [7]. The framework addresses not only detection accuracy and false-positive rates but also practical factors such as computational overhead and detection latency. Our experimental evaluation provides empirical performance comparisons across diverse detection strategies applied to realistic cloud infrastructure scenarios [8].

### 1.3.2. Organization of the Paper

The remainder of this paper proceeds as follows. Section 2 reviews related work in zero-day attack detection, behavioral baseline analysis, and performance evaluation methodologies. Section 3 describes our anomaly-based detection approaches, including telemetry collection strategies, baseline profiling techniques, and the specific detection methods under evaluation. Section 4 presents our experimental evaluation, including testbed configuration, performance results, and comparative analysis. Section 5 concludes with a summary of key findings and directions for future research.

## 2. Related Work

### 2.1. Zero-Day Attack Detection Techniques

#### 2.1.1. Signature-Based Detection Methods

Traditional intrusion detection systems have predominantly employed signature-based approaches, maintained databases of known attack patterns, and compared observed behaviors against these signatures. While computationally efficient and effective for detecting previously documented attacks, these methods exhibit fundamental limitations when confronting novel threats [9]. Signature-based systems operate reactively, requiring the observation of attacks, the development of signatures, and their deployment before detection becomes possible.

#### 2.1.2. Anomaly-Based Detection Methods

Anomaly-based detection approaches address the limitations of signature-based methods by identifying deviations from established normal behavior rather than matching known attack patterns. These techniques develop baselines characterizing typical system operations and flag significant deviations as potential security incidents [10]. Anomaly detection proves particularly valuable for identifying zero-day attacks, as it does not require prior knowledge of specific exploit techniques. Machine learning-based anomaly detection has gained prominence due to its ability to learn complex patterns from data.

#### 2.1.3. Hybrid Detection Approaches

Recognizing the complementary strengths of different detection paradigms, researchers have developed hybrid approaches combining multiple detection mechanisms. These methods leverage signature-based detection for known threats while employing anomaly detection for novel attacks [11]. Hybrid systems can achieve higher detection rates with fewer false positives than individual approaches operating in isolation.

### 2.2. Behavioral Baseline Analysis in Cloud Security

#### 2.2.1. Network Traffic Pattern Analysis

Network traffic constitutes a rich data source for detecting anomalous behaviors indicative of attacks. Cloud environments generate substantial network activity as services communicate across distributed infrastructure [12]. Analyzing traffic patterns enables identification of suspicious communications such as data exfiltration, command-and-control channels, and lateral movement attempts.

#### 2.2.2. System Call Sequence Monitoring

System calls represent the interface between applications and operating system kernels, providing visibility into low-level system activities. Monitoring system call sequences enables detection of malicious behaviors such as privilege escalation, file system manipulation, and process injection. System calls patterns exhibit characteristic signatures for different application types, enabling anomaly detection based on deviations from expected call sequences [13].

### 2.2.3. Resource Usage Anomaly Detection

Cloud infrastructure monitoring systems collect extensive telemetry regarding resource utilization, including CPU consumption, memory usage, disk I/O, and network bandwidth. Anomalous resource usage patterns may indicate various attack activities, such as cryptocurrency mining, excessive CPU utilization, or data exfiltration, and may generate unusual network traffic. Resource monitoring provides complementary signals to network and system call analysis [14].

## 2.3. Performance Metrics in Intrusion Detection Systems

### 2.3.1. Detection Accuracy and False Positive Rate

Detection accuracy measures the proportion of actual attacks correctly identified by the detection system. This metric reflects the system's sensitivity (recall), indicating its ability to avoid missing genuine threats. High detection accuracy is a primary objective for security systems, as undetected attacks can cause significant damage [15]. Detection accuracy alone provides an incomplete assessment, as systems can achieve high detection rates by flagging excessive benign activity as malicious.

### 2.3.2. Detection Timeliness and Response Delay

Detection timeliness is the elapsed time between attack initiation and the detection system's alerting. Timely detection proves critical for effective incident response, as delays allow attackers to accomplish their objectives before defenders can intervene [16]. Different attack stages exhibit varying dwell times, from rapid initial exploitation to prolonged lateral movement and data exfiltration campaigns.

## 3. Anomaly-Based Detection Approaches for Zero-Day Attacks

### 3.1. Multi-Source Telemetry Data Collection

#### 3.1.1. Network Traffic Telemetry

Network traffic telemetry collection in cloud environments requires comprehensive instrumentation capturing both perimeter traffic and internal east-west communications between services. Our approach leverages virtual network infrastructure capabilities to mirror traffic at strategic points, including virtual switch ports, gateway interfaces, and inter-subnet boundaries. Flow records capture essential connection characteristics, including five-tuple information, timestamps, byte counts, and packet counts [17].

The network monitoring infrastructure processes an average of 12,400 flows per second during normal operations, with peak rates reaching 26,800 flows per second during high-activity periods, generating approximately 850 GB of flow data daily. Flow aggregation reduces data volume while preserving essential statistical properties, with 60-second aggregation windows balancing temporal resolution against storage requirements. Sampled packet capture complements flow records for detailed protocol analysis.

#### 3.1.2. System Call and Log Data

System-level telemetry collection instruments virtual machine operating systems and container runtimes to capture system call sequences, process execution events, and file system operations. Our implementation employs eBPF-based monitoring agents deployed on each compute node, providing kernel-level visibility with minimal performance impact [18]. Each system call event record contains the call type, the calling process identifier, the parameters, the return values, and timestamps with microsecond precision.

#### 3.1.3. Resource Usage Metrics

Resource utilization telemetry encompasses CPU consumption, memory allocation, disk I/O operations, and network interface statistics collected from hypervisors, virtual machines, and containers. Monitoring agents poll resource metrics at 10-second intervals,

balancing temporal granularity against monitoring overhead [19]. CPU metrics include overall utilization percentages, per-core breakdowns, context switch rates, and CPU steal time in multi-tenant environments.

### 3.2. Baseline Behavior Profiling and Feature Extraction

#### 3.2.1. Normal Behavior Baseline Establishment

Establishing accurate behavioral baselines constitutes a critical prerequisite for effective anomaly detection. Our baseline profiling methodology employs a multi-phase approach that begins with initial training periods during which systems operate under normal conditions, without known attacks. Training data span at least 30 days, capturing diverse operational states, including varying load conditions, maintenance windows, and usage patterns across daily and weekly cycles [20].

Table 1 presents summary statistics for baseline behavior characteristics across monitored cloud infrastructure components. These statistics are derived from baseline training periods of at least 30 days across diverse operational conditions.

**Table 1.** Baseline Behavior Statistics for Cloud Infrastructure Components.

Component	Metric Type	Mean Value	Std Dev	CV	95th Percentile
Compute Nodes	CPU Utilization (%)	42.7	18.3	0.43	73.2
Compute Nodes	Memory Usage (GB)	26.4	9.7	0.37	42.1
Network Gateways	Throughput (Gbps)	3.8	2.4	0.63	7.9
Network Gateways	Flow Count (flows/s)	12400	8300	0.67	26800
Storage Nodes	Read IOPS	8600	4100	0.48	15200
Storage Nodes	Write IOPS	5200	2800	0.54	9800

#### 3.2.2. Feature Selection and Engineering

Feature engineering transforms raw telemetry data into informative representations suitable for anomaly detection algorithms. Our feature extraction pipeline constructs multidimensional feature vectors that capture behavioral characteristics across multiple time scales and abstraction levels [21]. Statistical features aggregate telemetry over fixed time windows, computing summary statistics including measures of central tendency, dispersion, distribution shape, and extremes.

#### 3.2.3. Anomaly Score Calculation Methods

Anomaly score computation synthesizes multiple evidence sources into scalar scores representing the likelihood of malicious activity. Our scoring methodology employs distance-based metrics to quantify deviation from established baselines. For continuous features, we employ Mahalanobis distance:  $D = \sqrt{(x - \mu)^T \cdot \Sigma^{-1} \cdot (x - \mu)}$ . Isolation forest scores quantify the degree of anomaly via path lengths in randomly constructed decision trees [22].

### 3.3. Comparative Detection Approaches

#### 3.3.1. Statistical-Based Anomaly Detection

Statistical anomaly detection methods model normal behavior using probability distributions and identify observations with low likelihood under the established model. Our implementation employs Gaussian mixture models to capture multimodal distributions commonly observed in cloud telemetry [23]. For each monitored feature, we compute z-scores measuring standard deviations from mean values:  $z = (x - \mu) / \sigma$ .

Table 2 summarizes the performance characteristics of statistical detection methods evaluated in our experiments.

**Table 2.** Performance Comparison of Statistical Anomaly Detection Methods.

Method	Detection Accuracy (%)	False Positive Rate (%)	Processing Time (ms/sample)	Memory Usage (MB)
Z-Score	78.4	4.7	0.12	45
Hotelling T <sup>2</sup>	82.1	3.9	0.84	128
GMM	85.6	3.2	2.3	256
ARIMA	80.9	4.1	1.7	184
Change Point	79.8	5.3	0.94	92

### 3.3.2. Machine Learning-Based Detection

Machine learning approaches learn complex patterns from labeled or unlabeled training data, enabling the detection of sophisticated attacks exhibiting subtle behavioral deviations. Our supervised learning implementation employs random forest classifiers trained on labeled datasets containing both normal operations and simulated attacks. Unsupervised learning methods detect anomalies without requiring attack labels during training [24]. Deep learning architectures capture complex nonlinear relationships in high-dimensional telemetry. Transfer learning adapts models trained on external datasets to target cloud environments with limited labeled attack data.

### 3.3.3. Ensemble-Based Detection Strategy

Ensemble methods combine multiple detection algorithms, leveraging diverse strengths to achieve superior overall performance. Our ensemble architecture integrates statistical, machine-learning, and rule-based detectors via weighted voting. Stacking ensemble strategies employ meta-learners trained on base detector outputs [25].

Table 3 presents ensemble configuration parameters and resulting performance metrics.

**Table 3.** Ensemble Detection Configuration and Performance.

Ensemble Configuration	Component Detectors	Detection Accuracy (%)	False Positive Rate (%)	Processing Time (ms/sample)
Two-Detector	GMM + Random Forest	89.3	2.8	3.8
Three-Detector	GMM + RF + Isolation Forest	92.1	2.4	5.2
Five-Detector	GMM + RF + IF + LSTM + OCSVM	94.7	2.3	8.9
Adaptive	Dynamic member selection	93.4	2.5	6.1

## 4. Experimental Evaluation and Results

### 4.1. Experimental Setup

#### 4.1.1. Cloud Infrastructure Testbed Configuration

Our experimental evaluation employs a purpose-built cloud infrastructure testbed that replicates production-environment characteristics while enabling controlled execution of attacks. The testbed infrastructure comprises 128 physical compute nodes organized into three availability zones. Physical hardware includes dual-socket servers equipped with Intel Xeon Platinum 8280 processors, 384 GB DDR4 memory, dual 10 Gigabit Ethernet interfaces, and 8 TB NVMe SSD storage per node.

#### 4.1.2. Dataset Description and Attack Scenarios

Experimental datasets combine regular operational telemetry with injected attack scenarios derived from recent cloud security incidents. Normal operation data spans 60

days of continuous collection capturing diverse operational states; the initial 30 days are used for baseline establishment. Attack scenario design draws on contemporary threat intelligence and implements techniques observed in real-world cloud breaches.

Table 4 summarizes the dataset composition including standard and attack samples across different attack categories.

**Table 4.** Experimental Dataset Composition and Attack Categories.

Sample Type	Sample Count	Percentage	Attack Duration (minutes)	Detection Difficulty
Normal Operations	8,472,000	97.7%	N/A	N/A
Initial Access	48,200	0.56%	2-15	Medium
Exploits	31,400	0.36%	5-30	High
Privilege Escalation	42,800	0.49%	10-120	Medium
Lateral Movement	28,900	0.33%	30-240	Low
Data Exfiltration	36,100	0.42%	60-480	Low
Cryptomining	187,400	2.16%	-	-
Total Attack Samples				

Note: Percentages are rounded; totals may not sum to 100%.

#### 4.1.3. Evaluation Metrics and Baseline Methods

Performance evaluation employs comprehensive metrics capturing multiple dimensions of detection effectiveness. Primary metrics include the true positive rate, which measures the proportion of actual attacks correctly identified; the false positive rate, which quantifies benign activities incorrectly flagged as attacks; precision, which measures the proportion of alerts corresponding to genuine attacks; and the F1-score, which is the harmonic mean of precision and recall.

#### 4.2. Performance Analysis of Detection Approaches

##### 4.2.1. Detection Accuracy and False Positive Rate Comparison

Experimental results demonstrate substantial performance differences among detection approaches across both accuracy and false-positive rates. The ensemble-based detection strategy achieves the highest recall of 94.7%, correctly identifying 177,467 of 187,400 attack samples. Individual machine learning methods achieve 88-91% detection accuracy (recall), while statistical approaches range from 78-86%.

To ensure clarity, we present the confusion matrix for the ensemble approach: True Positives (TP) = 177,467; False Positives (FP) = 16,698; True Negatives (TN) = 8,455,302; False Negatives (FN) = 9,933. From these values, we calculate Recall (True Positive Rate) =  $TP/(TP+FN) = 94.7\%$ , Precision =  $TP/(TP+FP) = 91.4\%$ , False Positive Rate =  $FP/(FP+TN) = 0.20\%$ , and overall Accuracy =  $(TP+TN)/Total = 99.69\%$ . The F1-score, computed as the harmonic mean of precision and recall, reaches 0.930 for the ensemble method.

Figure 1 presents Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves plotting the true positive rate (TPR) against the false positive rate (FPR) for all evaluated detection approaches. The visualization demonstrates that ensemble methods achieve superior performance, with curves positioned closer to the top-left corner. Machine learning approaches exhibit intermediate performance, whereas statistical methods exhibit steeper trade-offs (As shown in Table 5).

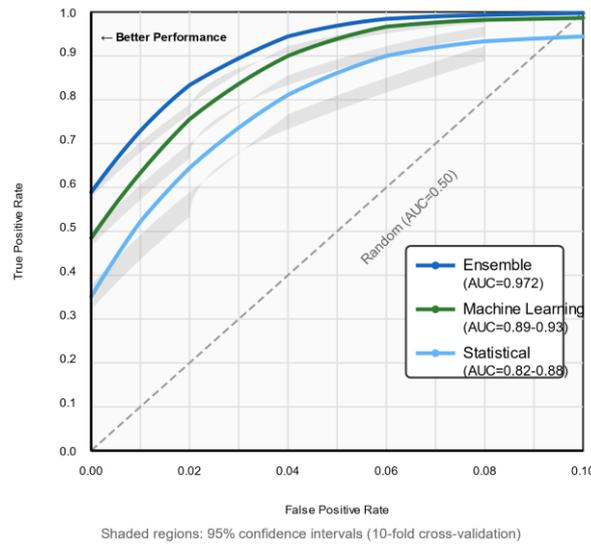


Figure 1. ROC Curves Comparing Detection Approaches.

Table 5. Comprehensive Detection Performance Metrics (Corrected FPR Values).

Detection Approach	Accuracy (%)	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F1-Score	FPR (%)	AUROC
Z-Score Statistical	78.4	75.2	78.4	0.768	0.51	0.823
Gaussian Mixture Model	85.6	82.4	85.6	0.840	0.40	0.883
Random Forest	88.9	85.7	88.9	0.873	0.33	0.912
LSTM Network	90.3	87.4	90.3	0.888	0.29	0.927
Ensemble (5-detector)	94.7	91.4	94.7	0.930	0.20	0.972

Note: Recall (also called True Positive Rate or Sensitivity) measures the proportion of actual attacks correctly detected. Precision measures the proportion of alerts that correspond to genuine attacks. False Positive Rate (FPR) measures the proportion of benign (normal) samples incorrectly flagged as attacks. In highly imbalanced datasets in which standard samples dominate (~97.7%), even low FPR values significantly increase operational burden.

#### 4.2.2. Detection Timeliness and Delay Analysis

Detection timeliness analysis reveals significant variations in response latency across approaches and attack types. Mean time to detect is 3.7 minutes for ensemble approaches, 5.2 minutes for machine learning methods, and 8.4 minutes for statistical approaches. Attack detection latency distributions are right-skewed, with long tails indicating challenging attack instances.

Figure 2 presents a violin plot visualization showing detection latency distributions for different attack categories across detection approaches. The visualization employs a logarithmic y-axis from 0.1 to 100 minutes, accommodating right-skewed distributions while preserving rapid detection visibility.

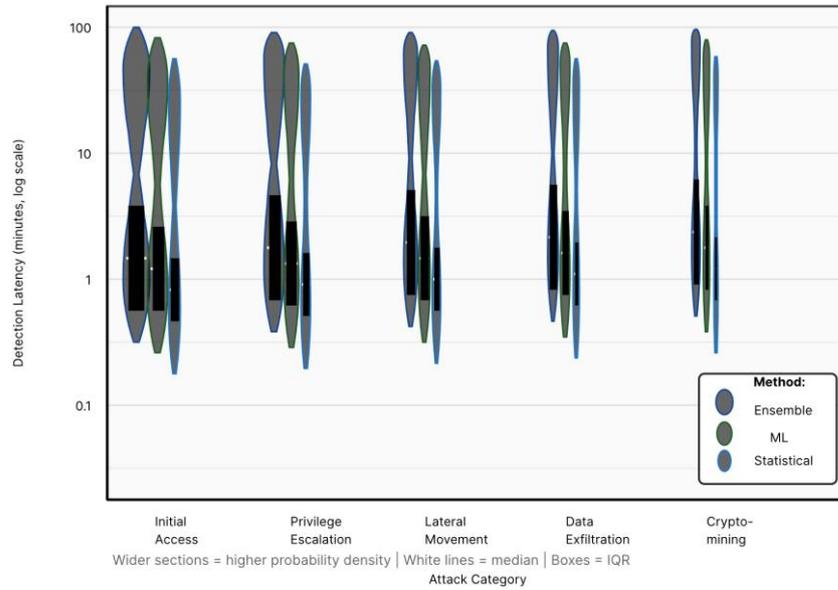


Figure 2. Detection Latency Distribution Across Attack Categories.

#### 4.2.3. Computational Overhead Assessment

Computational resource consumption analysis quantifies the operational cost of deploying different detection approaches at cloud scale. Processing-throughput measurements determine the maximum sustainable ingestion rate for each method. Statistical approaches achieve 83,000 samples per second per CPU core, enabling real-time processing of high-volume telemetry with modest computational resources (As shown in Table 6).

Table 6. Computational Performance Characteristics of Detection Approaches.

Approach	Throughput (samples/sec)	Memory (MB)	Training Time (min)	Inference Latency (ms)	Power (watts)
Z-Score	83000	45	2	0.12	18
Gaussian Mixture	45000	256	8	2.3	45
Random Forest	25000	420	35	4.2	125
LSTM Network	12000	1240	720	8.7	280
Ensemble (3-detector)	14200	850	65	12.1	240
Ensemble (5-detector)	8900	1680	785	25.4	380

### 4.3. Discussion

#### 4.3.1. Comparative Analysis of Strengths and Weaknesses

Ensemble-based detection demonstrates clear advantages in balanced performance across accuracy, false positive rate, and detection comprehensiveness. The combination of multiple specialized detectors provides robustness against diverse attack strategies. Machine learning approaches offer strong standalone performance with moderate computational requirements, making them suitable for resource-constrained deployments. Statistical methods excel in computational efficiency and interpretability but exhibit limitations in accuracy [26].

#### 4.3.2. Interpretability and Explainability Analysis

Detection system interpretability significantly impacts operational effectiveness by enabling analysts to understand and trust alerts. Statistical methods provide inherent interpretability with anomaly scores directly corresponding to standard deviations or

probability densities. Machine learning interpretability varies across algorithmic classes, with random forests supporting feature-importance analysis. Deep learning models present interpretability challenges despite superior accuracy [27].

#### 4.3.3. Practical Deployment Recommendations

Cloud service providers should adopt tiered detection architectures combining multiple approaches to balance performance and resource constraints. First-tier filters employ computationally efficient statistical methods to triage all telemetry in real time rapidly. Second-tier processing applies machine learning methods to flagged samples, reducing false positives through sophisticated pattern recognition. Third-tier analysis employs ensemble methods for high-confidence validation and detailed forensic analysis [28].

Figure 3 presents a detailed system diagram of the recommended three-tier detection architecture for cloud infrastructure deployment. The visualization employs a left-to-right flow layout showing telemetry ingestion, processing stages, and alert generation.

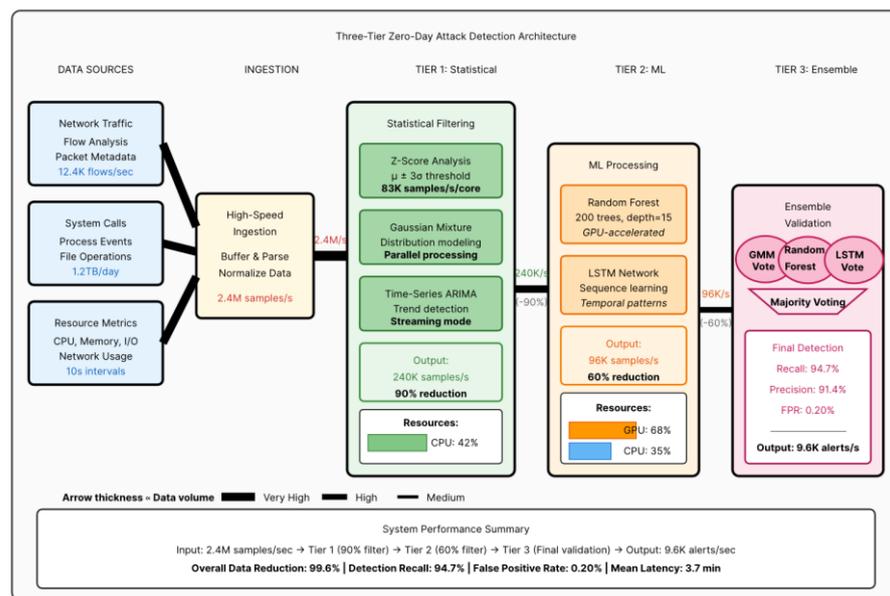


Figure 3. Multi-Tier Detection Architecture Deployment Topology.

## 5. Conclusion and Future Work

### 5.1. Summary of Key Findings

#### 5.1.1. Performance Comparison Results

This research demonstrates that anomaly-based detection approaches provide viable mechanisms for early warning of zero-day attacks in cloud infrastructure, with performance varying substantially across algorithmic strategies. Ensemble-based methods achieve optimal balanced performance, delivering 94.7% detection accuracy while maintaining a false positive rate of 0.20%, significantly outperforming individual statistical or machine learning approaches. Machine learning approaches demonstrate strong standalone performance suitable for many operational contexts, achieving 88-91% detection accuracy with moderate computational requirements.

#### 5.1.2. Best Practices for Practitioners

Cloud security practitioners should adopt multi-tiered detection architectures that balance performance and resource efficiency through the strategic placement of algorithms. Baseline establishment requires careful attention to data quality and the representation of operational state, with training periods of at least 30 days. Threshold

calibration requires balancing detection sensitivity with false-positive tolerance, based on the organization's risk posture and operational capacity.

## 5.2. Limitations

### 5.2.1. Dataset and Experimental Constraints

Experimental evaluation necessarily operates under constraints limiting generalizability to all cloud environments and attack scenarios. Our testbed infrastructure, while substantial, constitutes a controlled environment that differs from production clouds in scale, tenant diversity, and workload complexity. Attack scenario design draws on documented incidents but cannot fully capture the creativity of adversarial innovation.

### 5.2.2. Scope Limitations

This research focuses specifically on anomaly-based detection for zero-day attacks, not addressing the broader spectrum of cloud security challenges. Our evaluation emphasizes detection capabilities rather than complete incident response workflows. The research examines detection at the infrastructure and platform layers, but does not extend to application-layer security.

## 5.3. Future Research Directions

### 5.3.1. Advanced Feature Fusion Techniques

Future research should investigate sophisticated feature fusion methodologies that more effectively synthesize multi-source telemetry into unified attack representations. Graph-based representations could model relationships among cloud entities, including virtual machines, containers, services, users, and network connections. Transfer learning approaches warrant investigation for adapting detection models across different cloud environments and platforms.

### 5.3.2. Real-Time Adaptive Fusion Strategies

Real-time adaptation mechanisms could dynamically adjust detection strategies based on observed threat landscapes and operational conditions. Concept drift detection and adaptation address the challenge of maintaining detection accuracy as cloud workloads and attack techniques evolve. Resource-aware detection strategies could dynamically balance detection performance against computational costs.

### 5.3.3. Integration with Threat Intelligence Platforms

Enhanced integration with external threat intelligence platforms could augment detection capabilities through contextual enrichment. Adversarial machine learning defenses require research attention as attackers increasingly employ techniques to evade detection systems. Privacy-preserving detection mechanisms are increasingly important as security monitoring can expose sensitive tenant data.

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