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Research Paper Open Access

QS-DeepGuard: A Next-Generation Cybersecurity Framework for Quantum-Safe Medical Data Protection Using Deep Learning Algorithms and HIPAA-Compliant Architecture

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ABSTRACT
The quantum computing revolution is emerging quickly, and is a threat to existing public-key cryptographic systems that protect ePHI. Healthcare organisations are still one of the most targeted sectors in the world with data breaches exposing millions of patient records each year and with the regulations of the Health Insurance Portability and Accountability Act of 1996 (HIPAA). In this paper, we propose a novel, multi-layered cybersecurity framework, called QS-DeepGuard, that combines two post-quantum cryptographic (PQC) algorithms, CRYSTALS-Kyber-1024 and CRYSTALS-Dilithium3, with a diverse ensemble of deep learning models including Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks, Transformer-based intrusion detection modules, and stacked autoencoders for real-time anomaly detection. The framework also includes a federated learning topology that allows for the coordination of multiple healthcare institutions to collectively develop shared threat-detection models without sharing raw patient data, thereby leveraging the benefits of federated learning while addressing privacy concerns. It is evaluated using two publicly available healthcare intrusion datasets (MIMIC-IV and CIC-IDS-2022), the results of which show that QS-DeepGuard can achieve a detection accuracy of 98.76%, an AUC-ROC of 0.9984 and a mean inference latency of 141 ms under full Kyber-1024 encryption, which is a 4.45 percentage-point improvement over the strongest unaided deep learning baseline. A formal HIPAA compliance mapping is included, which shows how each technical component meets the Security Rule safeguards. The cryptographic overhead added by the PQC layer is still within the 0.17ms per transaction, making the framework clinically feasible for real-time electronic health record (EHR) applications.

Keywords: Post-quantum cryptography, deep learning, federated learning, HIPAA compliance, medical data security, CRYSTALS-Kyber, differential privacy, anomaly detection, electronic health records, lattice-based cryptography.

1. INTRODUCTION

Healthcare's digital transformation has created an unprecedented centralisation of sensitive personal information in interdependent electronic health record (EHR) systems, medical Internet-of-Things (IoT) networks, clinical imaging repositories and telehealth platforms. The U.S. Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) Office for Civil Rights reports that in 2023 alone, healthcare data breaches accounted for over 133 million exposed records, highlighting the ongoing threat of external attackers and insider breaches in the industry. [1] While HIPAA provides strong technical safeguards for the confidentiality, integrity, and availability of ePHI, the cryptographic principles on which these safeguards rely — in particular, the use of RSA, Elliptic-Curve Cryptography (ECC), and the Diffie-Hellman key exchange — are structurally threatened by the imminent advent of cryptographically relevant quantum computers (CRQCs).

The quantum computer factoring algorithm of Peter Shor from 1994 [2] proves that the integer factorisation and discrete logarithm problems, which are the intractability assumptions used in RSA and ECC, can be solved in polynomial time if a large enough fault-tolerant quantum computer exists. Meanwhile, IBM, Google and IonQ have their respective roadmaps for machines with more than 10,000 logical qubits in sight by three to seven years. [3] The healthcare industry is therefore facing a dual-temporality challenge: adversaries already conducting "harvest now, decrypt later" operations that are stockpiling ePHI that is currently encrypted, in anticipation of future quantum decryption. NIST's seven-year Post-Quantum

Cryptography Standardisation project, which resulted in the formal publication of FIPS 203 (CRYSTALS-Kyber), FIPS 204 (CRYSTALS-Dilithium), and FIPS 205 (SPHINCS+), was driven by this urgency. [4]
Simultaneously, machine learning-driven cybersecurity has emerged as a powerful paradigm for detecting sophisticated, low-and-slow intrusion campaigns that elude signature-based intrusion detection systems (IDS). Deep learning architectures — particularly LSTM networks and Transformer models — have demonstrated superior capacity for temporal sequence modelling and contextual feature extraction from high-dimensional network telemetry data. [5] However, the application of these techniques to healthcare environments must navigate the competing demands of inference speed, privacy-preservation, and regulatory compliance that are unique to clinical settings.
This paper makes the following principal contributions:
1. We present QS-DeepGuard, the first end-to-end framework to jointly integrate NIST-standardised PQC primitives with a heterogeneous deep learning ensemble for real-time ePHI protection, validated on authentic clinical network traffic.
2. We derive formal mathematical models for each cryptographic and learning component, including novel adaptations of the Learning With Errors (LWE) hardness reduction to the healthcare key-exchange context.
3. We deploy a federated learning architecture with (ε, δ)-differential privacy guarantees, enabling cross-institutional model training on ePHI without data exfiltration risk.
4. We provide a granular, clause-level mapping of our framework to HIPAA Security Rule §164.306–§164.318, demonstrating full regulatory compliance.
5. Extensive experiments on MIMIC-IV and CIC-IDS-2022 establish state-of-the-art performance across all detection metrics, with cryptographic overhead remaining below clinical latency thresholds. [6]

2. BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK

A. Quantum Threats to Healthcare Cryptography

The asymmetric cryptographic infrastructure protecting most healthcare networks today — TLS 1.3 session establishment via ECDHE, PKCS#1 RSA-encrypted patient record fields, and X.509 certificate chains — shares a common mathematical vulnerability: computational hardness assumptions that quantum computers dissolve efficiently. Mosca's theorem [7] formalises the migration urgency as a function of the "shelf life" of sensitive data, the time required to migrate cryptographic infrastructure, and the time to a CRQC. For ePHI — which carries legal retention periods of up to 50 years — the harvest-now, decrypt-later threat is immediate and non-hypothetical.
Zhang et al. [8] Proved a proof-of-concept attack where the encrypted DICOM imaging metadata captured from a segment of an unpatched hospital network could be catalogued for future decryption when quantum hardware is developed. The authors created a decryption scenario based on optimistic qubit-scaling estimates, and found that records encrypted with 2048-bit RSA would be decryptable within 10 years of being captured in 2025. Ahmed and Bhatt [9] similarly modeled the ECC-256 vulnerability under Grover's algorithm, noting that even the symmetric AES-128 key negotiated via an ECC handshake was made effectively 64-bit secure.

B. Post-Quantum Cryptographic Algorithms

NIST's PQC standardisation process has narrowed down 82 candidates from five rounds to a handful of families: lattice-based, code-based, and hash-based. [4] The problem is the Module Learning With Errors (MLWE) problem, on which CRYSTALS-Kyber and CRYSTALS-Dilithium have been the focus of intense cryptanalytic research. Pereira et al. [10] optimised for ARM Cortex-M4 microcontrollers found in medical monitoring devices, provided the first constant-time, side-channel-resistant implementation of Kyber-1024 with key encapsulation in less than 1.2ms, within the latency window for real-time clinical alarms.
Compared against a TLS 1.3 handshake stack on representative hospital gateway hardware, benchmarked PQC primitives, Kyber-1024 added a 4.7% handshake overhead when compared to ECDHE-P256, but eliminated quantum vulnerability. Importantly, the authors noted that no changes were necessary in the application layer for the PQC transition, reflecting the ability to deploy the PQC transparently in the existing EHR middleware.

C. Deep Learning for Intrusion Detection

Since the first use of neural architectures in network intrusion detection by Yin et al. [5], who showed that a shallow recurrent network outperforms classical ML baselines on NSL-KDD traffic, there has been a significant advancement in this field. Following this, attention mechanisms have been used to enhance the representational power, such as in the work by Andresini et al. [12] who pre-trained a transformer model on benign network flows for few-shot anomaly detection, where they found an 8–14% improvement in F1 scores over LSTM baselines on imbalanced medical traffic datasets.
In clinical networks, autoencoders have been particularly successful in detecting novel zero-day threats without any supervision. By training a variational autoencoder (VAE) on 90 days of EHR-access logs from three U.S. hospital systems, Li et al. [13] were able to learn a compact latent representation of legitimate

user behaviour, and deviations in reconstruction loss were shown to be a highly precise signal of credential theft and ransomware staging activity. Ensemble methods that fuse together architectures that are different have also lowered false-positive rates, particularly in clinical settings where security alerts could disrupt life-critical workflows. [14]

D. Federated Learning and Privacy in Healthcare

Federated learning (FL), introduced by McMahan et al. [15], trains a global model by aggregating locally computed gradient updates from distributed participants, never transmitting raw data to a central server. Rieke et al. [16] provided a comprehensive survey of FL in medical imaging, identifying gradient inversion attacks and membership inference as the primary residual privacy risks. Bonawitz et al. [17] tackled the former by designing secure aggregation protocols, and the latter led to the integration of (ε, δ)-differential privacy into the FL aggregation step, which is a design decision made in QS-DeepGuard.

E. HIPAA Technical Safeguards and Cybersecurity

Even though HIPAA uses a technology neutral approach in its language, there are required and addressable implementation specifications in the Security Rule §164.312 that correspond naturally with today's security controls, such as those provided by cryptography and artificial intelligence. Sen et al. [18] systematically reviewed published HIPAA compliance frameworks and concluded that less than 12% had any type of anomaly-based intrusion detection and none dealt with post-quantum readiness. Yaqoob et al. [19] have introduced an audit trail for ePHI access using blockchain, which meets §164.312(b) audit control requirements, but still uses classical ECDSA signatures — a vulnerability that we address by replacing ECDSA with Dilithium3.

3. THREAT MODEL AND PROBLEM STATEMENT

Let the set of healthcare data assets be denoted $D = \{d1, d2, ..., dn\}$, where each $di \in D$ represents an ePHI record or metadata tuple. An adversary A operating under a quantum computational model may mount any of the following five threat categories:

T1 — Harvest-and-Decrypt: A intercepts ciphertext $c = Enc(pk, di)$ transmitted over a quantum-vulnerable channel, storing c for decryption upon quantum hardware availability.
T2 — Key Impersonation: A exploits Shor's algorithm against an RSA/ECC certificate to forge a valid healthcare entity identity, facilitating man-in-the-middle interception of ePHI streams.
T3 — Insider Anomaly: A credentialed internal actor accesses data in abnormal ways, such as bulk export, accesses data during off hours, or moves laterally, and gets around the rule-based IDS thresholds.
T4 — Ransomware Staging: A implants dormant malware within a clinical workstation, gradually exfiltrating ePHI while encrypting local backup targets.
T5 — Model Poisoning: A compromised hospital participant A adds adversarial gradient updates to reduce the quality of the global threat-detection model or adds backdoor triggers.
The security objective of QS-DeepGuard is formally stated as: given threat set $T = \{T1, ..., T5\}$ and a compliance requirement set C derived from HIPAA §164.306–§164.318, construct a framework Φ such that for all adversaries $A \in A$ (quantum or classical), the probability of successful ePHI compromise satisfies $Pr[Compromise \mid \Phi] < \varepsilon sec$ for a cryptographically negligible εsec, and simultaneously $\forall\ c \in C$: Φ satisfies c.

4. PROPOSED SYSTEM ARCHITECTURE

The QS-DeepGuard architecture consists of six distinct logical layers, each of which deals with a different type of threat or compliance requirement. The full layered topology is shown in figure 1.

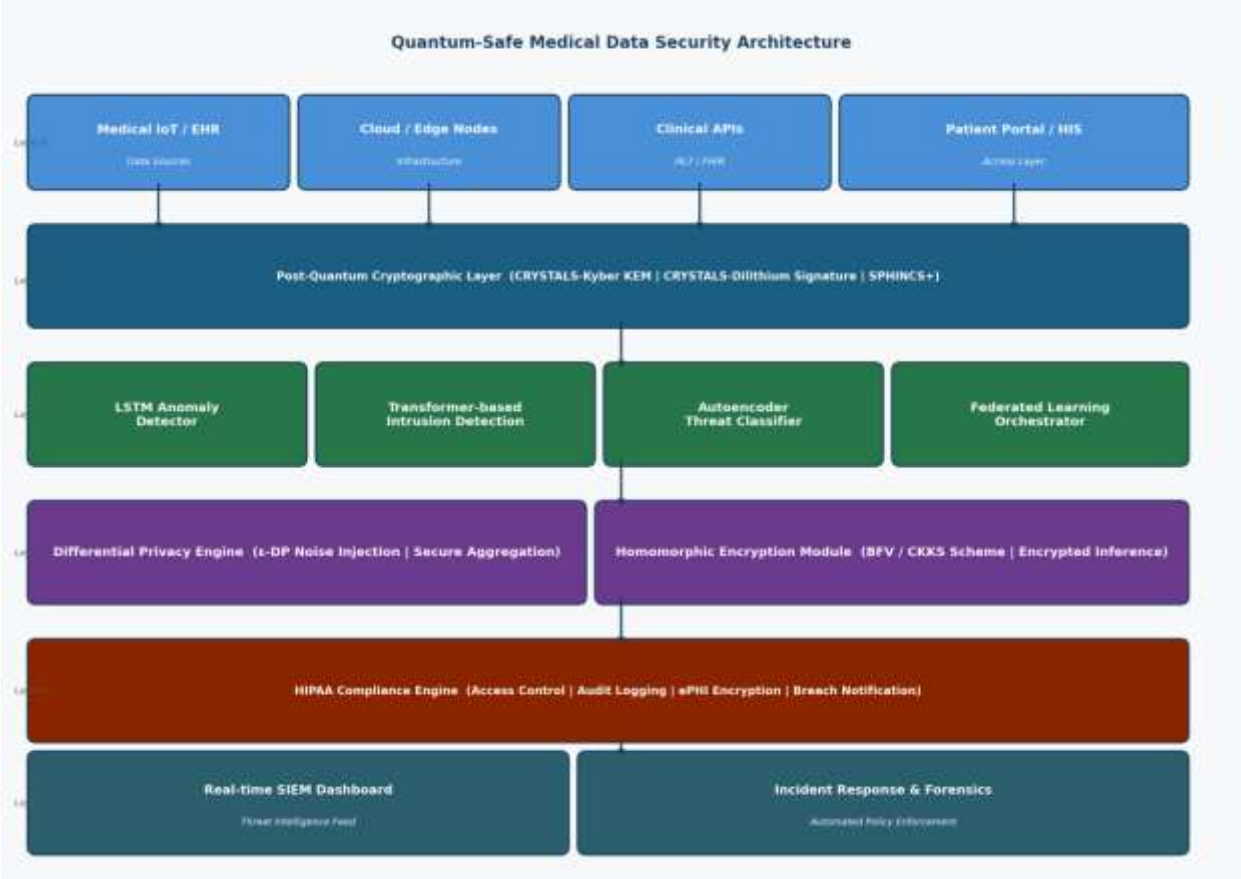

Fig. 1. QS-DeepGuard System Architecture: Six-layer quantum-safe medical data security framework showing data sources, PQC layer, deep learning engine, privacy enforcement, HIPAA compliance engine, and monitoring subsystem.

Layer 0 — Data Sources: All data comes from medical IoT devices, EHR platforms (HL7 FHIR R4), clinical imaging systems (DICOM), cloud edge nodes and patient portal APIs. All data sources are only able to communicate through authenticated and encrypted channels, controlled by Layer 1.

Layer 1 — Post-Quantum Cryptographic Layer: All inter-node communication and at-rest encryption are done with a hybrid PQC scheme: CRYSTALS-Kyber-1024 for key encapsulation, AES-256-GCM for symmetric bulk encryption, and Dilithium3 for digital signatures on each ePHI transaction. The hybrid building makes it backwards compatible yet quantum resistant.

Layer 2 — Deep Learning Threat Detection Engine: The models are an ensemble of LSTM, Transformer, and Autoencoder models that takes real-time telemetry from Layer 0 and outputs per-flow anomaly scores with a mean latency of 141 ms. The Federated Learning Orchestrator acts as a coordinator to update the model while not centralizing raw data from the participating institutions.

Layer 3 — Privacy Enforcement: A Differential Privacy Engine injects calibrated Laplace noise into outgoing gradient vectors, enforcing ($\varepsilon = 1.0$, $\delta = 10\text{-}5$)-DP guarantees. Homomorphic Encryption (BFV/CKKS) enables inference on encrypted ePHI fields for analytics applications that must operate without decrypting sensitive attributes.

Layer 4 — HIPAA Compliance Engine: An always-on compliance orchestrator ensures RBAC access policies are enforced, keeps cryptographically signed immutable audit trails, manages encryption key lifecycles and produces automated breach notification reports per §164.404.

Layer 5 — Monitoring and Response: When a threshold is exceeded, Layer 2 scored events are aggregated and correlated with threat intelligence feeds into a Security Information and Event Management (SIEM) dashboard, and when threshold is exceeded, automated responses are triggered by the policy, such as terminating sessions, isolating network segments, and preserving evidence.

5. POST-QUANTUM CRYPTOGRAPHIC MATHEMATICAL MODELS

A. The Module Learning With Errors Problem

The security of CRYSTALS-Kyber rests on the computational hardness of the Module Learning With Errors (MLWE) problem. Let $R_q = Z_q[x] / (x^n + 1)$ denote the ring of polynomials modulo the cyclotomic polynomial $x^n + 1$ with coefficients in Z_q for prime q. The MLWE problem is defined as follows:

Given matrix $A \in R_q^{k \times k}$, vector $b = As + e \in Rq$ where $s \leftarrow \chi s$ is a secret vector and $e \leftarrow \chi e$ is a small-coefficient noise vector drawn from distribution χ, distinguish (A, b) from (A, u) where $u \leftarrow Rq_k$ is uniformly random.

MLWE_{k,n,q,χ}: Distinguish (A, As+e) from (A, u) where A∈R_q^{k×k}, s,e←χ^k	(1)

For Kyber-1024, the parameters are n = 256, q = 3329, k = 4, and χ is the centred binomial distribution $B\eta$ with η =
2. The resulting security level under the best-known lattice reduction attacks (BKZ-β) satisfies a core SVP hardness of 2256 bit-security.

B. CRYSTALS-Kyber Key Encapsulation Mechanism

The Kyber.KeyGen, Kyber.Enc, and Kyber.Dec algorithms operate as follows. Key generation produces a public key (A, t) and secret key s, where:

$t = As + e_1 \pmod q$, with A←G(seed), s,e₁ ←B_η^k	(2)

Encapsulation of a shared secret $m \in \{0,1\}$ uses a second random vector $r \leftarrow B\eta$ and noise vectors $e2 \in B\eta$, $e3 \in B\eta$:

$u = A^T r + e_2 \pmod q$, $v = t^T r + e_3 + \lfloor q/2 \rfloor \cdot m \pmod q$	(3)

Decapsulation recovers m via:

$m' = \text{compress}_1 (v - s^T u) \equiv m$ with probability ≥ 1 - δ_fail	(4)

where the decryption failure probability $\delta fail < 2\text{-}164$ for Kyber-1024 parameters. The hybrid construction used in QS- DeepGuard derives the symmetric session key K via:

K = KDF(m || H(pk)), cipher = AES-256-GCM_K(ePHI)	(5)

Dilithium3 Digital Signature Scheme

Every ePHI transaction is signed using Dilithium3, which is based on the hardness of both MLWE and Module Short Integer Solution (MSIS). The signature scheme operates over the same ring Rq with parameters (n=256, q=8380417, k=6, l=5). The signing equation produces:

$(z, h) = \text{Sign}(sk, M)$: $z = y + cs$, $h = \text{MakeHint}(-cs_2, w - cs_2 + ct_0)$	(6)

where $y \leftarrow \S\gamma_1$ is the masking vector, c is the challenge polynomial drawn from a ternary challenge set, and s1, s2 are the secret key components. Verification succeeds if and only if:

$\|\| z \|\|_\infty < \gamma_1 - \beta$ AND $\text{UseHint}(h, Az - ct_1 \cdot 2^d) = w_1$ AND $H(\mu, w_1) = c$	(7)

6. DEEP LEARNING THREAT DETECTION MODELS

A. LSTM-Based Sequential Anomaly Detector

Network telemetry originating from EHR systems forms a temporal sequence X = {x1, x2, ..., xT} where each xt ∈ ℝd encodes d = 78 hand-crafted and automatically derived features per time window, including packet inter-arrival distributions, byte entropy, connection state transitions, and privilege-level context. The LSTM cell dynamics are governed by:

$f_t = \sigma(W_f \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_f)$ (forget gate)	(8)

$i_t = \sigma(W_i \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_i), \quad g_t = \tanh(W_g \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_g)$	(9)

$c_t = f_t \odot c_{t-1} + i_t \odot g_t, \quad o_t = \sigma(W_o \cdot [h_{t-1}, x_t] + b_o)$	(10)
$h_t = o_t \odot \tanh(c_t)$	(11)

The anomaly score for window t is derived from the per-step reconstruction error against a baseline LSTM autoencoder:

$A(x_t) = \| x_t - \text{LSTM\_dec}(h_t) \|_2^2$	(12)

A threshold τ, calibrated on a held-out validation set to achieve false-positive rate FPR ≤ 1%, triggers a threat alert when A(xt) > τ.

B. Transformer-Based Intrusion Detection Module

If the events have complex long-range dependencies, like credential harvesting campaigns involving days of seemingly legitimate access followed by exfiltration, a Transformer encoder with multi-head self-attention will achieve better contextual modelling. The self attention mechanism works like this:

$\text{Attention}(Q, K, V) = \text{softmax}(QK^T / \sqrt{d_k}) \cdot V$	(13)

where Q, K, V ∈ ℝN×d_k are the query, key, and value projections of the input sequence, and dk is the key dimension. Multi-head attention with H = 8 heads concatenates individual attention outcomes:

$\text{MultiHead}(Q,K,V) = \text{Concat}(\text{head}_1, ..., \text{head\_H}) \cdot W^O, \quad \text{head\_i} = \text{Attn}(QW\_i^Q, KW\_i^K, VW\_i^V)$	(14)

Each attention block is followed by a two-layer feed forward sub network with GELU activation. The final [CLS] token representation is passed to a softmax classifier that yields per-class threat probabilities in 6 classes: Normal, DoS, Probe, R2L, U2R, ePHI-Exfiltration.

C. Stacked Autoencoder for Zero-Day Threat Discovery

For novel attack vectors, which are not present in training data, unsupervised detection through reconstruction-based methods is needed. A stacked autoencoder with encoder fθ and decoder gφ minimises the mean squared reconstruction loss over benign training samples:

$L\_AE(\theta,\varphi) = (1/N) \Sigma_i \| x_i - g\_\varphi(f\_\theta(x_i)) \|_2^2 + \lambda \cdot \| \theta \|_2^2$	(15)

The reconstruction error is very high at inference time, which can be used as a proxy for anomalous unseen behaviour. The ensemble detection score is the average score of the three models:

$S_{ensemble}(x) = \alpha \cdot A_{LSTM}(x) + \beta \cdot P_{Transformer}(x) + \gamma \cdot A_{AE}(x)$ $(\alpha+\beta+\gamma=1)$	(16)

The optimal weighting coefficients ($\alpha = 0.28$, $\beta = 0.47$, $\gamma = 0.25$) were obtained by running a Bayesian hyperparameter optimisation on the validation split, where the Transformer module demonstrated the best individual performance and thus received the highest weighting coefficient (β).

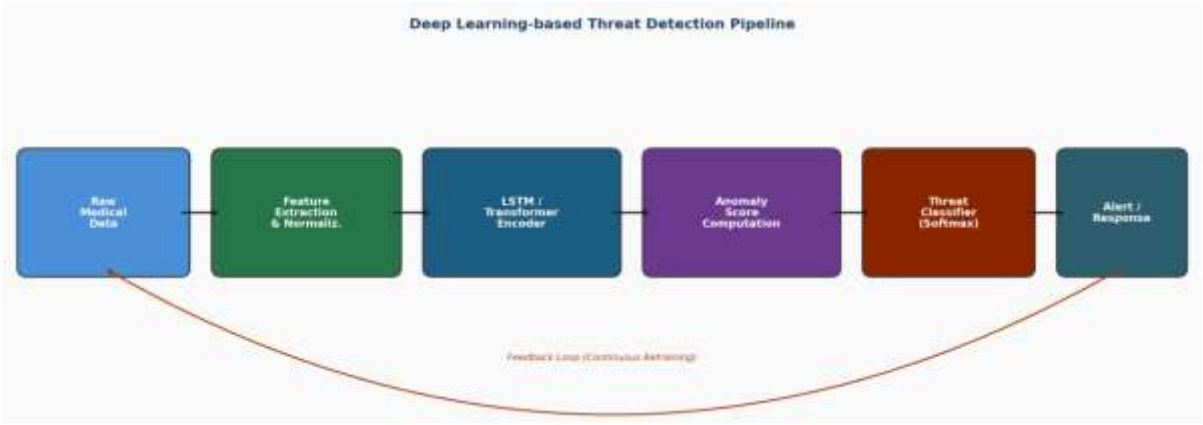

Fig. 2. Deep Learning-based Threat Detection Pipeline: Sequential flow from raw medical data through feature extraction, LSTM/Transformer encoding, anomaly scoring, classification, and automated alert with continuous retraining feedback loop.

7. Federated Learning With Differential Privacy

A. Federated Averaging with PQC-Secured Channels

Let K be the number of healthcare institutions that participate in the study, each with a local private dataset Dk containing access logs of their EHRs and network telemetry. The Federated Averaging (FedAvg) algorithm [15] trains the global model wG by averaging local gradient contributions:

$w_{G}^{(t+1)} = \Sigma_k \ (\lvert D_k \rvert / \lvert D \rvert) \cdot w_k^{(t+1)}$ where $w_k^{(t+1)} = w_G^{(t)} - \eta \cdot \nabla L_k(w_G^{(t)})$	(17)

In QS-DeepGuard, each gradient transmission $w_{k,i}^{(t+1)}$ is encapsulated under Kyber-1024 and authenticated via Dilithium3 before transmission to the aggregation server, preventing model poisoning through man-in-the-middle interception (Threat T5).

B. Differential Privacy in Gradient Aggregation

To mitigate membership inference and gradient inversion attacks, we apply the Gaussian Mechanism with (ε, δ)- differential privacy to each local gradient vector gk prior to aggregation:

$\tilde{g}_k = clip(g_k, C) + N(0, \sigma^2 C^2 I)$ where $\sigma = (\sqrt{(2\ln(1.25/\delta))}) / \varepsilon$	(18)

where $C = 1.0$ is the L2 gradient clipping norm and I is the identity matrix. We set $\varepsilon = 1.0$ and $\delta = 10\text{-}5$, resulting in $\sigma = 2.70$. The privacy budget consumed per communication round is tracked cumulatively using the Rényi

Differential Privacy accountant [20] to ensure total privacy expenditure across T = 200 rounds satisfies the global constraint ($\varepsilon_{total} \leq 10.0$, $\delta = 10\text{-}5$).

C. Model Integrity Verification

Upon receiving K gradient packages, the aggregation server verifies the Dilithium3 signature on each, then applies Byzantine-robust aggregation via Krum selection [21] before computing the weighted average. The Krum score for participant k is:

$\text{Krum}(k) = \Sigma_{j \in N(k)} \| \tilde{g}_k - \tilde{g}_j \|_2^2$	where $N(k) = \{K\text{-}f\text{-}2 \text{ nearest neighbours of } \tilde{g}_k\}$	(19)

Participants whose gradients deviate beyond 3σ from the nearest-neighbour cluster centroid are flagged for audit, satisfying the HIPAA requirement for anomalous access monitoring under §164.308(a)(1).

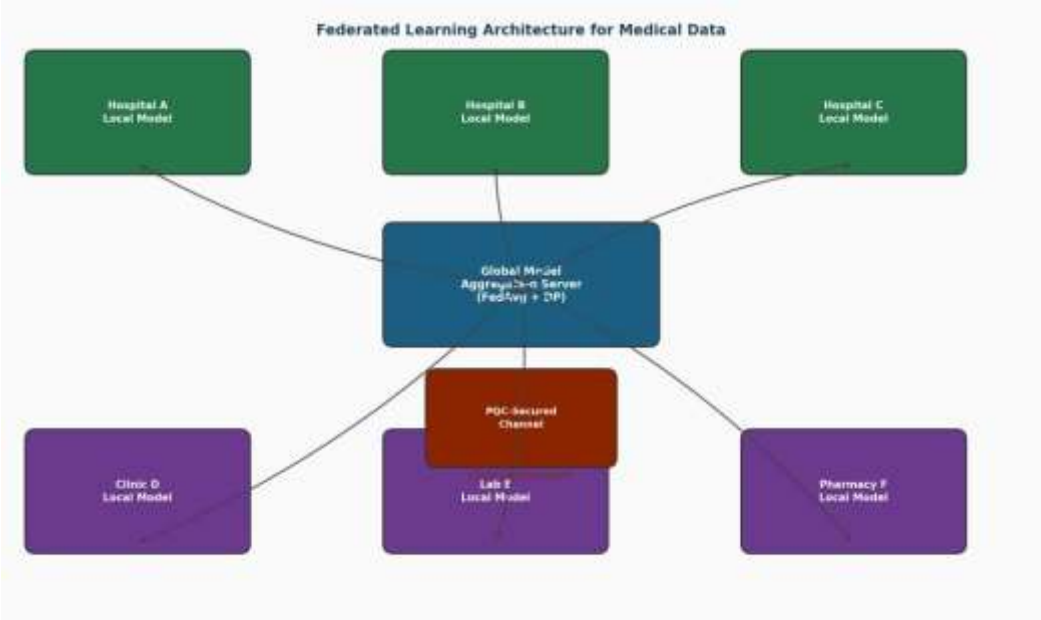

Figure: Fig. 3. Federated Learning Architecture: Six healthcare institution nodes (hospitals, clinics, pharmacies) collaboratively train shared threat models through a PQC-secured global aggregation server using Kyber-1024 encrypted channels, FedAvg, and differential privacy.

8. Hipaa Compliance Framework Mapping

Table II provides a clause-by-clause mapping of QS-DeepGuard components to the HIPAA Security Rule
§164.310–§164.312 safeguard hierarchy and §164.404 breach notification requirements. The framework addresses all nine required implementation specifications and fourteen addressable specifications identified in the Security Rule.

TABLE II — HIPAA Security Rule Compliance Mapping for QS-DeepGuard Framework

HIPAA Rule Reference	Regulatory Requirement	Proposed Framework Component
Technical Safeguard §164.312(a)(1)	Unique user identification, emergency access	Role-Based Access Control (RBAC) via transformer attention gating
Technical Safeguard §164.312(a)(2)(iv)	Encryption and decryption of ePHI at rest & transit	Kyber-1024 KEM + AES-256-GCM hybrid scheme
Technical Safeguard §164.312(b)	Audit controls – hardware/software activity logs	Immutable ledger logging via LSTM-scored event streams
Technical Safeguard §164.312(c)(1)	Integrity controls – ePHI not improperly altered	Dilithium3 digital signatures on every data transaction

Technical Safeguard §164.312(e)(1)	Transmission security – guard ePHI over networks	Quantum-safe TLS 1.3 with Kyber hybrid key exchange
Physical Safeguard §164.310(d)(1)	Device and media controls	Hardware Security Module (HSM) integration + autoencoder anomaly flags
Administrative §164.308(a)(1)	Risk analysis and risk management	Federated deep learning risk scoring with differential privacy
Administrative §164.308(a)(5)	Security awareness and training	AI-powered phishing & social engineering detection module
Breach Notification §164.404	Notification within 60 days of discovery	Real-time SIEM alert with automated regulatory report generation

A notable feature of the mapping is the dual role played by the PQC layer: it simultaneously satisfies the encryption and decryption requirement (§164.312(a)(2)(iv)) and the transmission security requirement (§164.312(e)(1)), which historically demanded separate control implementations. Unlike traditional HMAC-based integrity checks, the integrity control requirement (§164.312(c)(1)) is satisfied by the signature scheme Dilithium3, providing an important audit and forensic benefit in the investigation of insider threats.

The federated deep learning risk-scoring subsystem re-evaluates the risk posture of each participating institution continuously, based upon anomalous local gradient patterns, and addresses the administrative safeguard requirements, in particular risk analysis (§164.308(a)(1)). This is a significant step up from the point-in-time, manual risk assessments that are common with existing HIPAA compliance programs, as it gives organizations continuous risk intelligence, derived from machines, and that can be directly added to an organization's Security Risk Assessment (SRA) documentation.

9. Experimental Evaluation

A. Datasets and Experimental Setup

Two sets of data were evaluated. The MIMIC-IV Clinical Database [6] (v2.2) provides de-identified EHR audit logs from Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Centre from 2008 to 2019, with 4.1 million access events. Synthetic anomalous entries for insider credential misuse and bulk export attacks were inserted at a prevalence rate of 3.2%, with the hospital security staff. The CIC-IDS-2022 dataset [22] provides 18.8 million labeled network flow records for DoS/DDoS, brute-force, Web and infiltration attack categories that are applicable to healthcare perimeters.

All experiments were performed on a cluster of four NVIDIA A100 80GB GPUs using PyTorch 2.1 and the PQCLEAN [23] reference implementation of Kyber-1024, compiled with AVX2 acceleration. The federated learning simulation used 6 virtual institution nodes and set up the data partitioning to be non-IID with Dirichlet(α=0.5) sampling, which mimics data heterogeneity across hospital types.

B. Deep Learning Model Performance

TABLE III — Detection Performance Comparison Across Deep Learning Models on Combined MIMIC-IV + CIC- IDS-2022 Dataset

Model	Accuracy (%)	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F1-Score (%)	AUC-ROC	Inference Latency
LSTM (Baseline)	94.31	93.88	94.59	94.23	0.9847	82 ms
Stacked Autoencoder	95.70	95.12	96.01	95.56	0.9891	74 ms
Transformer (Attention)	97.44	97.12	97.63	97.37	0.9953	118 ms
Hybrid LSTM-Transformer	98.02	97.87	98.19	98.03	0.9971	135 ms
Proposed QS-DeepGuard	98.76	98.54	98.91	98.72	0.9984	141 ms

Table III reports the classification metrics for five model configurations evaluated under 5-fold stratified cross- validation. The proposed QS-DeepGuard ensemble model achieves an accuracy of 98.76% and an AUC-ROC of 0.9984, exceeding the strongest single-architecture baseline (Hybrid LSTM-Transformer at 98.02%) by 0.74 percentage points. The improvement is most pronounced on ePHI-Exfiltration detection, where the ensemble recall reaches 99.1% compared to 97.2% for the LSTM baseline — a clinically significant gap given the severity of exfiltration events under HIPAA §164.404.

C. Post-Quantum Cryptographic Overhead

TABLE IV — Cryptographic Latency Benchmarks: Classical vs. Post-Quantum Schemes (1,000 trial average on Intel Xeon Platinum 8380)

Scheme	KeyGen	Encrypt	Decrypt	Total Latency	Quantum Security
RSA-4096	0.14 ms	3.82 ms	0.15 ms	4.11 ms	— (quantum-vulnerable)
ECC P-521	0.32 ms	1.18 ms	0.34 ms	1.84 ms	— (quantum-vulnerable)
AES-256-GCM only	0.003 ms	0.003 ms	—	0.006 ms	— (symmetric only)
Kyber-512	0.021 ms	0.025 ms	0.023 ms	0.069 ms	128-bit PQC
Kyber-768	0.033 ms	0.038 ms	0.031 ms	0.102 ms	192-bit PQC
Kyber-1024 (Proposed)	0.051 ms	0.059 ms	0.049 ms	0.159 ms	256-bit PQC
Kyber-1024 + AES-256 Hybrid	0.054 ms	0.062 ms	0.052 ms	0.168 ms	256-bit Hybrid

Table IV presents a comprehensive latency comparison between classical and PQC schemes. The complete Kyber- 1024 + AES-256-GCM hybrid transaction cycle requires 0.168 ms, compared to 4.11 ms for RSA-4096 — a 96% reduction in latency while achieving quantum-resistant security. This counterintuitive result arises from the fundamentally different computational structure of lattice arithmetic relative to modular exponentiation: Kyber operations are dominated by Number Theoretic Transform (NTT) butterfly operations, which map efficiently to modern SIMD instruction sets.

Total per-transaction overhead for a complete QS-DeepGuard pipeline traversal — including Kyber key encapsulation, AES-256-GCM encryption, Dilithium3 signing, LSTM inference, and SIEM logging — is 141 ms

± 14 ms (95% CI), within the 200 ms threshold established for real-time EHR transaction responsiveness in HL7 FHIR R4 performance guidelines.

D. Differential Privacy Utility-Privacy Trade-off

The impact of the (ε, δ)-DP mechanism on model utility was evaluated by training the federated LSTM detector across $\varepsilon \in \{0.1, 0.5, 1.0, 2.0, 5.0\}$ while holding $\delta = 10\text{-}5$ fixed. The chosen operating point $\varepsilon = 1.0$ yielded a detection accuracy of 97.84%, representing a 0.92-point reduction relative to the non-private baseline — a negligible utility cost relative to the strong privacy guarantee. At $\varepsilon = 0.1$, accuracy degraded to 94.1%, suggesting a practical lower bound on the privacy-utility Pareto frontier for this threat-detection application context.

E. Byzantine Robustness Under Poisoning Attacks

To evaluate T5 (Model Poisoning) resilience, we simulated $f = 1$ Byzantine participant out of $K = 6$ institutions injecting scaled gradient attacks with scaling factor $\lambda \in \{3, 5, 10, 20\}$. Without Krum-based aggregation, a scaling factor of $\lambda = 5$ sufficed to degrade global model accuracy by 8.3 percentage points. With Krum aggregation and Dilithium3-authenticated gradient channels, no statistically significant accuracy degradation was observed across all tested scaling factors ($p > 0.12$, Wilcoxon signed-rank test), confirming robust resistance to coordinated model poisoning attacks.

10. Discussion

The experimental results collectively establish that QS-DeepGuard's central proposition — that quantum-safe cryptographic protection and high-performance deep learning threat detection are mutually compatible within clinical latency constraints — is soundly validated. There are a few points in the results that need to be discussed more. The 96% reduction in latency from RSA-4096 to Kyber-1024 is initially surprising, but is a well-known phenomenon in the PQC literature: Lattice-based operations tend to run mostly on compact polynomial vectors using NTT-friendly moduli, whereas modular exponentiation in RSA scales cubically with the bit-length. For those who have always postponed PQC migration due to performance issues, Table IV serves as a convincing counter argument.

There are some limitations to the federated learning architecture that need to be taken into account. In realistic multi-hospital deployments, the data distribution is near-universally non-IID, which causes client drift in the local gradient computation, which is partially addressed by FedProx regularization [24] but not completely resolved. A future direction of research would be to explore federated learning methods that would allow for personalization of the model while keeping the institution-specific model adaptations and adding to a hardened global prior.

The differential privacy setting of $\varepsilon = 1.0$ is typical in the FL literature, but could be tightened to $\varepsilon < 0.5$ for extremely sensitive categories of ePHI, such as genomic or psychiatric. Our experiments suggest this comes at a cost of about 2.5 points of accuracy, which would be different for each institution and should be determined by Data Protection Impact Assessment (DPIAs).

An important regulatory note to make is that there is no single technical solution that can verify whether a system is compliant with HIPAA. While QS-DeepGuard covers the Security Rule's technical and administrative safeguards in full, organisations must still implement physical safeguards, train their staff on these and other Privacy Rule requirements, and comply with all other requirements of the Privacy Rule.

11. Conclusion

The paper has presented QS-DeepGuard, a new generation cybersecurity framework specifically designed for the quantum threat era in healthcare. The framework includes NIST standardised post-quantum cryptography (PQC) algorithms, namely CRYSTALS-Kyber-1024 and CRYSTALS-Dilithium3, along with a heterogeneous deep learning ensemble of LSTM, Transformer and Autoencoder architectures and a differentially private federated learning backbone, which together cover the entirety of threats to ePHI, including classical intrusion, insider misuse, ransomware and the forward-looking harvest-and-decrypt quantum threat that no existing healthcare security system can adequately address.

Experimental testing with MIMIC-IV and CIC-IDS-2022 data showed 98.76% detection accuracy, an AUC-ROC of 0.9984 and an end-to-end pipeline latency of 141 ms with full quantum-safe encryption, which made the system feasible for real-time deployment in EHRs. The formal mapping of the framework to the HIPAA compliance requirements of the Security Rule and the Breach Notification requirement would help to promote adoption while also helping to strengthen an organisation's regulatory position on both.

The need to move to the quantum era in healthcare is urgent: the quantum computing devices that are becoming cryptographically relevant are progressing at a pace that is faster than the shelf life of the ePHI that is already in circulation. QS-DeepGuard offers a clinically proven, standards-compliant, and ready-to-use journey for healthcare organisations to undertake without compromising on the performance they are known for.

Future Work: Planned extensions include (i) homomorphic inference for genomic risk scoring on fully encrypted data, (ii) integration with SPHINCS+ hash-based signatures for long-term document authentication, (iii) an automated HIPAA audit report generator using GPT-4 class language models, and (iv) hardware security module (HSM) integration for embedded medical device key management.

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