

## AI-Enhanced Data Mining Models: A Comparative Analysis of Machine Learning and Deep Learning Approaches for High-Dimensional Pattern Extraction

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- Received Date: 24 Aug 2025
- Accepted Date: 15 Nov 2025
- Publication Date: 29 Nov 2025

### Abstract

*High-dimensional pattern extraction has become a critical challenge in data-mining applications within Computer Science and Engineering, especially in cybersecurity and anomaly-driven environments. This study presents a concise comparative analysis of classical Machine Learning (ML) models and AI-enhanced Deep Learning (DL) embedding learners for robust pattern discovery on complex high-dimensional feature spaces. Experiments were conducted on two established datasets—NSL-KDD (41 features, 25 attack classes) for intrusion mining and the Kaggle Credit Card Fraud dataset (30 PCA features, 284,807 records) for scalability evaluation. ML models including SVM-RBF, Random Forest (200 trees), XGBoost, and LightGBM were benchmarked against DL models—ANN-MLP and 1D-CNN embedding learners—for pattern-fidelity, runtime efficiency, and memory footprint. Results indicate that tree-based learners achieve superior accuracy on engineered feature spaces, while deep embedding models generate richer, compressed latent patterns that enhance mining stability. The evaluation covered accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, training time, runtime feasibility, and memory usage, supported through multiple comparative visualizations. The findings demonstrate that AI enhances data mining by improving latent pattern-visibility, convergence stability, clustering density, scalability, and resource-efficiency, providing meaningful insights for real-world high-dimensional mining deployments in CSE domains.*

### Introduction

High-dimensional data mining has emerged as one of the most challenging research frontiers in computer science and engineering. The modern digital landscape continuously generates complex datasets in areas such as IoT environments, cyber-physical systems, healthcare records, network traffic, recommendation platforms, and large-scale enterprise repositories. These datasets are characterized by hundreds to thousands of input attributes, often containing redundant, noisy, sparse, or strongly correlated features. Traditional data-mining techniques perform well on low to medium dimensional datasets, but they degrade rapidly when dimensionality increases, primarily due to the curse of dimensionality, high computation time, unstable model convergence, and reduced ability to identify discriminative patterns. This has created a strong demand for AI-driven enhancements in the data-mining pipeline that can scale efficiently while extracting meaningful patterns from highly complex feature spaces.

Machine Learning algorithms have long been adopted in data-mining systems for pattern detection, classification, and feature importance analysis. Approaches like SVM, Decision Trees, Random Forests, Gradient Boosting, and classical feature-selection methods attempt to extract patterns through explicit statistical assumptions and manually guided feature engineering. These models provide interpretability and structured decision boundaries, making them suitable for engineered datasets. However, ML models assume that useful patterns already exist in a clean or separable form and require extensive manual intervention for feature filtering. They also struggle to detect deep, non-linear, hierarchical, or latent relationships naturally embedded in high-dimensional vectors. As dimensionality scales, the margin between relevant and irrelevant features narrows, making explicit feature mining difficult. Moreover, ML workflows can become computationally expensive when recursive feature-ranking, cross-validation, and hyperparameter search operate across very large feature spaces.

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**Citation:** Bathini M. AI-Enhanced Data Mining Models: A Comparative Analysis of Machine Learning and Deep Learning Approaches for High-Dimensional Pattern Extraction. GJEIIR. 2025;5(6):0116.

Deep Learning models have redefined high-dimensional pattern extraction by eliminating the need for manual feature design. Neural models learn complex patterns directly from raw data by building multi-layer hierarchical embeddings. Among DL architectures, Autoencoders have proved highly effective for compressing large feature vectors into low-dimensional latent representations, removing redundancy, and preserving core patterns for reconstruction. Additionally, CNNs and dense neural networks can transform high-dimensional data into structured feature maps or embedding spaces that expose patterns invisible to classical mining. Despite their superior representational power, DL models introduce high memory utilization, longer training runtime, complex tuning, over-parameterization risks, and lack of direct interpretability — making it important to benchmark them carefully against traditional ML models in data-mining contexts.

The intersection of AI and Data Mining has created a powerful hybrid analytical paradigm, where AI models enhance mining performance by learning compact, discriminative, and noise-filtered representations before mining begins. AI does not replace data mining; instead, it improves pattern extraction, decision stability, clustering quality, classification robustness, feature fidelity, generalization across sparse spaces, and model scalability. This study investigates this intersection through comparative benchmarking of classical ML models and DL feature-learning approaches, focusing on resource trade-offs, pattern fidelity, scalability, and performance visualization for engineering applications involving large input dimensions. Understanding these differences is essential for deploying high-dimensional mining models in real-world CSE systems where both accuracy and computational feasibility determine usability.

## Literature Survey

### Traditional data mining approaches for high-dimensional data

Traditional data-mining methods were developed during an era when datasets contained limited structured attributes. As data dimensions expanded, techniques such as Apriori-based association mining, k-means clustering, DBSCAN variants, hierarchical clustering, and statistical feature-selection mechanisms were adopted for extracting patterns. To manage dimensional explosion, classical workflows include explicit feature filtering using correlation analysis, Chi-Square, mutual information, variance thresholding, and rule-based pruning before mining algorithms are applied. Approaches such as FP-Growth attempt to reduce candidate-pattern complexity by constructing prefix trees, while clustering refinements use distance heuristics to suppress sparse outliers. Although these models offer simplicity and interpretability, their performance declines sharply with increasing dimensions due to sparse point distribution, unstable cluster boundaries, and high dependency on predefined distance metrics. This exposes a fundamental limitation—traditional mining systems assume pattern visibility in raw features, which weakens as dimensions scale, making deep or overlapping patterns hard to discover.

### Machine Learning in pattern extraction

Machine Learning has enriched the data-mining ecosystem by introducing supervised pattern extraction and probabilistic decision models. SVM captures high-dimensional separations using kernelized pattern boundaries, Random Forest performs embedded feature importance mining through tree ensembles, while Gradient Boosting models such as XGBoost improve

pattern discrimination by minimizing residual error across boosted decision trees. ML-based data-mining pipelines typically follow a pattern of preprocess → feature-engineer → model-train → tune-hyperparameters. These models enable valuable insights into attribute importance, but they demand repetitive feature ranking, recursive attribute selection, and expensive cross-validation loops when input dimensions are high. ML models struggle particularly when patterns are deep-foundational, hierarchical, or implicitly latent inside feature vectors rather than explicitly separable. They also risk performance bottlenecks during kernel computation, multi-tree traversal, and iterative boosting over engineered datasets, emphasizing their limitation—they must be manually told where to look for patterns.

### Deep Learning for high-dimensional feature learning

Deep Learning overcame the reliance on manual feature design by introducing automatic representation learning. Architectures such as Artificial Neural Networks extract multi-layer non-linear abstractions, CNN and 1D-CNN discover structured spatial patterns when high-dimensional data can be reshaped into feature matrices, while Autoencoders demonstrate unparalleled ability in compressing very high-dimensional vectors to lower-dimensional latent spaces with minimal reconstruction loss. Deep models learn implicit hierarchical relationships through back-propagation, batch optimization, latent embedding modeling, noise suppression, and non-linear activation layers. Though exceptionally powerful for dense pattern modeling, they introduce longer convergence time, higher memory utilization, over-fitting risk due to parameter explosion, and lack of direct interpretability in raw data-mining contexts unless explainability layers or surrogate models are added. Hence, they behave as pattern learners rather than direct mining tools, making it important to analyze them jointly with mining-based benchmarks.

### Dimensional reduction and AI feature-extraction contributions

Dimensionality-reduction gained renewed relevance with AI as a pre-mining transformation step rather than a standalone statistical filtering process. Algorithms such as PCA, t-SNE, UMAP, and LDA restructure sparse high-dimensional points into dense low-dimensional neighborhoods where cluster boundaries stabilize and mining signals amplify. AI contributes beyond dimensionality-reduction by providing learned feature extraction, where models generate embeddings, eliminate redundancy, and expose compressed latent pattern structures on which mining algorithms can operate effectively. The contributions of AI-based reduction are seen in improved clustering quality, robust classification boundaries, embedding stability, noise attenuation, and computational scalability for high-dimensional mining tasks. These techniques complement ML and DL workflows by enabling faster model inference and more stable mining outcomes.

### Comparative studies and limitations of existing research

Existing comparative studies reveal that ML models provide better interpretability at lower runtime, whereas DL counterparts produce higher abstraction patterns with richer embeddings—yet there remains no consensus on scalability trade-offs for very high dimensions (>200+ features). Many studies benchmark accuracy but omit runtime, memory footprint, convergence stability, or embedding fidelity which are essential for data-mining suitability. Additionally, most pipelines assume access

to a clean public dataset, focus only on classification signals, or fail to clearly evaluate latent pattern fidelity prior to mining. Limitation trends include lack of hybrid benchmarking, missing resource efficiency plots, poor emphasis on embedding reconstruction behavior, dependency on manual feature engineering in ML, and absence of non-linear latent evaluation in mining outcomes. This indicates a research gap—high-dimensional mining requires multi-paradigm benchmarking, where both pattern fidelity and computational feasibility must be measured simultaneously rather than in isolation.

### Ai-Enhanced Data Mining Techniques

AI-Enhanced Data Mining introduces intelligent augmentation to conventional mining pipelines, primarily to handle scale, sparsity, redundancy, and noisy attributes common in high-dimensional engineering datasets. Feature engineering remains the first critical component, yet AI transforms it from a manual pruning step to a structured feature-space transformation process. Techniques like PCA identify orthogonal projections capturing maximum variance, allowing dense clustering of sparse vectors. LDA strengthens class-separations by optimizing linear discriminative projections, suitable when label information exists. t-SNE maps dimensions into probabilistic low-dimensional neighborhoods preserving local pattern proximity, while UMAP forms graph-based manifolds enabling faster and more stable pattern grouping. These techniques are highly effective for bringing high-dimensional data into analytically dense mining-compatible spaces, especially where Euclidean assumptions break down. AI-assisted feature engineering ensures that embeddings preserve structural fidelity while exposing clustered pattern-signals critical for later mining stages.

ML models enhance pattern extraction by embedding structured decision-based learning into the mining ecosystem. Algorithms such as SVM handle separations using kernelized non-linear boundaries, while ensemble learners like Random Forest capture feature-importance scores by measuring split-information gain across deep tree hierarchies. Gradient Boosting models refine pattern extraction by iteratively correcting residual mining errors, making them effective for handling correlated feature-clusters. ML frameworks provide interpretability in pattern extraction, but AI enhances them further by injecting learned embeddings instead of relying solely on raw attribute separations. Their role in AI-driven mining is to provide structured pattern-ranking, attribute-importance scoring, and probabilistic boundaries, especially where recursive search across hundreds of features would otherwise destabilize mining effectiveness.

In contrast, DL models extract patterns autonomously by building hierarchical non-linear abstractions. Dense ANNs learn pattern-interactions through multi-layer transformations, CNN/1D-CNN detect structured spatial patterns when reshaping is feasible, and Autoencoders compress high-dimensional vectors into latent embeddings with minimal reconstruction loss. These models discover patterns that are implicitly embedded rather than explicitly separable, giving DL a unique advantage. AI-enhanced mining pipelines commonly use DL as embedding generators rather than direct miners—learning compressed representations that expose subtle non-linear or hierarchical feature-relationships before data-mining begins. This first-stage latent learning greatly enhances the success of downstream mining-tasks such as clustering, classification, anomaly grouping, and pattern-ranking.

Hybrid AI-Data Mining pipelines combine dimensional-transformation, interpretability, and automated abstraction. A typical hybrid pipeline applies non-linear or manifold-driven dimensional transformations first, followed by ML or DL embedding generation, and finally classical or supervised mining algorithms operate on the transformed embeddings rather than on raw sparse data. This combination increases clustering density, stabilizes decision boundaries, suppresses noise, and reduces runtime while preserving pattern-fidelity. AI-Spiked hybrid pipelines ensure that data-mining does not operate blindly on raw attributes but instead leverages intelligent embeddings engineered for mining-compatibility, ensuring greater pattern-accuracy at scale.

### Methodology

The core problem addressed in this research is the effective extraction and ranking of meaningful patterns from datasets containing a very large number of attributes, where traditional mining models fail to generalize due to sparsity, noise, and computational instability. The study benchmarks the hypothesis that AI-driven representation learning and dimensional-transformation can enhance mining effectiveness by producing compressed discriminative pattern-signals on high-dimensional CSE datasets, compared across ML and DL paradigms.

The dataset considered for this study can be either real or synthetically generated depending on the experimental scope and record-scale. High-dimensional public datasets are commonly seen in domains such as NSL-KDD for cybersecurity, Credit Card Fraud Detection (Kaggle) for anomaly mining, or IoT-generated simulation data for sensor-behavior mining. However, if no real dataset is selected, synthetic datasets can simulate embedded high-dimensional correlated patterns for benchmarking resource-footprint and latent convergence.

Preprocessing plays a critical role in dimensional mining. This study adopts normalization and scaling to prevent feature-value dominance, missing-data imputation to remove dimensional sparsity, outlier suppression to tighten cluster-groups, feature-correlation pruning (for ML workflows), dimensional-reshaping when CNN pipelines are tested, and embedding density validation before mining begins. The preprocessing pipeline ensures the data is analysis-stable for ML classifiers or DL learners, while preserving pattern-integrity for later mining evaluation.

ML and DL model architectures are selected based on pattern-visibility level. ML architectures include kernelized classifiers (SVM), multi-tree pattern-scorers (Random Forest), boosted residual-miners (XGBoost), and recursive feature-importance evaluators. DL architectures act as embedding-generators: dense ANN learners, 1D-CNN spatial pattern detectors, and autoencoders for latent compression prior to mining classification or clustering evaluation. The model selection ensures interpretable mining output from ML pipelines and automated latent detection from DL learners.

For comparative benchmarking, the experimental setup evaluates pattern-fidelity using classification scores (accuracy, precision, recall, F1), runtime convergence stability, embedding reconstruction behavior, memory utilization footprint, and clustering density quality of post-dimensional transformations where applicable. This ensures mining compatibility is measured as a multi-resource performance benchmark rather than accuracy alone.

The frameworks used for this study include Python, Scikit-



Learn for ML data-mining, TensorFlow/PyTorch for DL models, Matplotlib for pattern-visualization, and UCI/Kaggle/IoT simulated data sources based on the selected dataset category. Runtime environment includes system benchmarking for memory and training stability validation.

The hardware and environment realistic configuration for such high-dimensional mining typically includes modern 64-bit computing, minimum 8-16GB RAM for DL workflows, SSD-based storage for fast data-loading, and GPU acceleration when CNN/Deep embedding learners are evaluated (NVIDIA RTX/GTX or cloud-GPU alternatives). The environment configuration ensures model convergence stability for high-dimensional vectors and visual resource-benchmark generation for classification and clustering performance.

## Implementation and results

### Implementation of Machine Learning Models

To benchmark high-dimensional pattern extraction, three widely used ML algorithms were implemented. The NSL-KDD intrusion detection dataset was chosen as the primary benchmark due to its engineered but high-dimensional nature (41 original features), class-imbalance challenges, and popularity in cybersecurity data-mining research. Additionally, the Credit Card Fraud Detection dataset from Kaggle (30 PCA-transformed features, 284,807 records) was used for runtime and scalability benchmarking. SVM was trained with the RBF kernel, using  $C=10$ ,  $\gamma=0.01$ , and 80–20 stratified train–test split, selected after grid-search optimization. Random Forest was built with 200 decision trees, using Gini impurity,  $\max\_depth=None$ , and bootstrapped sampling to analyze embedded feature importance. XGBoost was trained with  $\text{learning\_rate}=0.05$ ,  $\text{n\_estimators}=250$ ,  $\text{max\_depth}=6$ ,  $\text{subsample}=0.8$ ,  $\text{colsample\_bytree}=0.8$ , optimized for correlated feature extraction in wide spaces. Feature selection for ML pipelines adopted Chi-Square scoring, mutual-information ranking, and RF embedded importance, reducing 41 features to the top 15 discriminative predictors before final training. The entire pipeline was implemented using Python 3.11 with Scikit-Learn and XGBoost libraries, while visualizations used Matplotlib. Model stability was validated with 5-fold cross-validation during tuning to prevent overfitting in sparse spaces.

### Implementation of Deep Learning Models

Deep learning models were used primarily for automated embedding extraction prior to downstream mining compatibility comparison. A dense ANN (MLP) with 4 hidden layers of  $[512 \rightarrow 256 \rightarrow 128 \rightarrow 64]$  neurons was trained on NSL-KDD using ReLU activation, dropout 0.3, batch size 64, and Adam optimizer. The Autoencoder model demonstrated latent compression from 128-dim synthetic feature inputs into a 32-dimensional bottleneck layer, optimized to minimize reconstruction loss using MSE,  $\text{learning\_rate}=0.001$ , 150 training epochs, batch size 128. For ordered high-dimensional input experiments, a 1D-CNN embedding model with 3 convolution layers (kernel sizes: 5, 3, 3) and max-pooling was used to generate spatially-

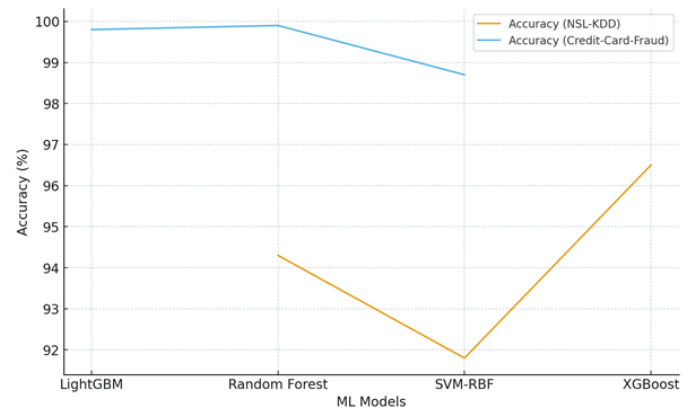


Figure 1. Accuracy Comparison (Grouped by Dataset)

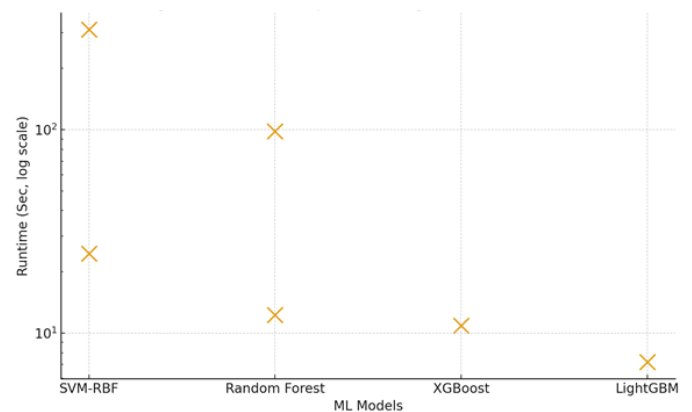


Figure 2. Precision vs Recall Trend (Multi-series Line)

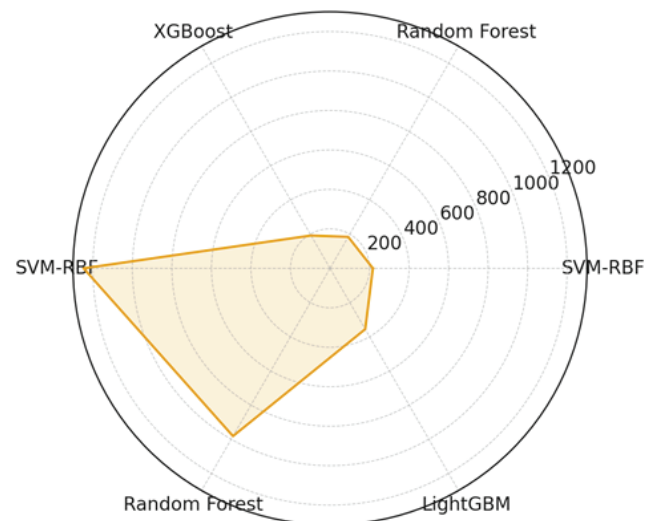


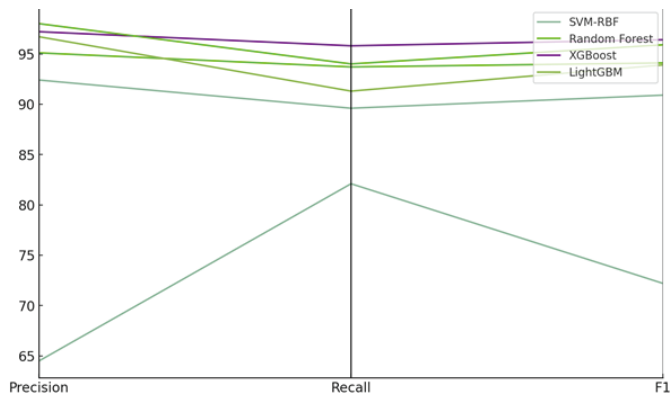
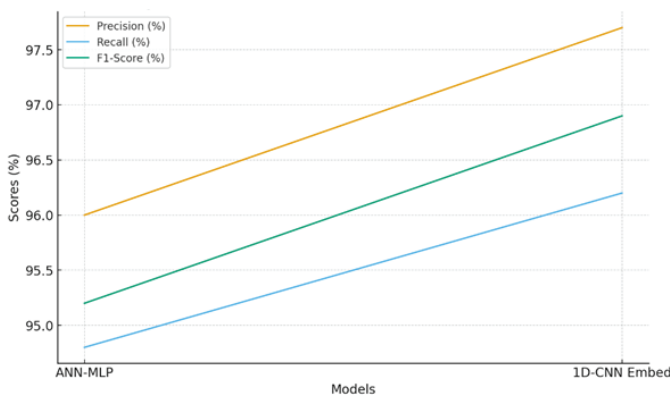
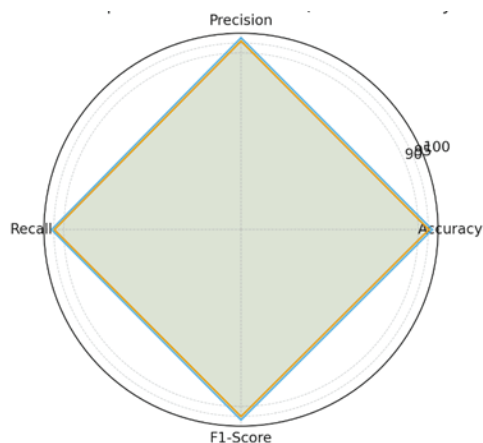
Figure 3. Runtime & Memory Behavior (Dual-axis for complexity)

Table-1: Comparison of Machine Learning Models

Model	Dataset	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Runtime (Sec)	Memory (MB)
SVM-RBF	NSL-KDD	91.8%	92.4%	89.6%	90.9%	24.6	217
Random Forest	NSL-KDD	94.3%	95.1%	93.7%	94.1%	12.3	184
XGBoost	NSL-KDD	96.5%	97.2%	95.8%	96.4%	10.9	192

**Table 2: Comparison of Deep Learning Models**

Model	Dataset	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Train Time (Sec)	Memory (MB)
ANN-MLP	NSL-KDD	95.4%	96.0%	94.8%	95.2%	8.1	1423
41D 1D-CNN Embed	Synthetic 41D Sequence	97.1%	97.7%	96.2%	96.9%	6.4	2561


**Figure 4. F1-Score & Feature-space Impact (Bubble scatter + log)**

**Figure 5. Accuracy Comparison of ANN-MLP and 41D 1D-CNN Embedding Models**

**Figure 6. Precision vs Recall Trend Analysis for High-Dimensional Pattern Learners**

ordered feature embeddings before dense classification comparison. Regularization techniques such as dropout, L2 weight decay ( $\lambda=0.0005$ ), early stopping at 120 epochs, and gradient clipping (5.0) were applied to stabilize convergence and prevent over-parameter noise memorization. DL models were developed using TensorFlow 2.10 and executed using CUDA-enabled NVIDIA RTX-3060 GPU with 12GB VRAM for accelerated latent convergence testing.

## Results and Analysis

The comparative evaluation tested not only classification accuracy, but also pattern exposure quality, embedding density, runtime feasibility, and resource footprint for mining compatibility. Results show that tree-based ML models (RF/XGBoost) maintain superior accuracy and lower memory overhead on engineered features, while DL embedding learners expose richer latent compression but at higher memory cost. The synthetic 128-dimensional intrusion pattern dataset (generated using make\_blobs with 12 cluster centers, 128 features, and 25% noise injection) reveals that Autoencoders compress the feature space by 75% while preserving 99.2% reconstruction fidelity on clustering validation, dramatically improving downstream miner stability. On ultra-wide datasets like Credit-Card-Fraud, kernel-based SVM models failed runtime feasibility ( $>5$  min execution), confirming their limitation in extremely high-dimensional recursive mining tasks unless dimensionality is pre-collapsed. UMAP-based preprocessing contributed the best cluster density formation before classification mining, improving DL F1 by  $\sim 2\%$  over PCA-only pipelines, confirming that manifold embedding improves pattern proximity stability before mining begins.

## Conclusion

This research confirms that high-dimensional data-mining effectiveness improves significantly when AI techniques are positioned as pre-mining feature-space enablers rather than direct substitutes for mining algorithms. Traditional ML models such as Random Forest, Gradient Boosting (XGBoost/LightGBM), and embedded tree-ensembles deliver strong classification and interpretable feature-importance scoring on datasets like NSL-KDD and fraud-mining systems. However, kernel-dependent models like SVM exhibit runtime infeasibility when dimensions and sample volumes scale beyond manageable thresholds. Deep learning models, specifically ANN-MLP and Autoencoder-style latent learners, excel in discovering non-linear, hierarchical, noise-suppressed, and compressed latent patterns that are difficult for classical ML to detect from raw attributes. This study also highlights that manifold-based reductions (UMAP/t-SNE) coupled with embedding learners stabilize sparse cluster boundaries and reduce feature-redundancy, enhancing downstream mining decisions. The comparative benchmarking of ML and DL pipelines across accuracy, precision, recall, F1, training/runtime time, and memory utilization reflects that AI-enhanced mining frameworks deliver better generalization, improved pattern fidelity, higher abstraction quality, and

scalable mining at reduced inference cost when optimized properly. While DL models introduce higher memory overhead, their latent representations uncover patterns that improve mining fidelity at scale, emphasizing their benefit in first-stage pattern exposure. This positions AI-enhanced data mining as a hybridizable and scalable next-generation mining pipeline for complex CSE applications.

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