

Tunable Dual-Band THz Metamaterial Absorber with Regression-Learning-Enabled Numerical Redesign

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Abstract—Terahertz (THz) metamaterial absorbers have garnered considerable interest for applications in sensing, detection, and stealth technologies due to their capacity to achieve engineered absorption at subwavelength scales. This study introduces a high-performance THz metamaterial absorber featuring integrated circular splitting resonators patterned in copper over a lead glass substrate. The design achieves dual strong absorption peaks at approximately 1.44 THz and 4.24 THz, each with absorption amplitudes nearing 90%. To explore the influence of geometric parameters on absorption characteristics and facilitate predictive modeling, full-wave electromagnetic simulations were performed by systematically varying key design variables. The resulting dataset comprises geometric parameters as input features and corresponding resonant frequencies and absorption amplitudes as target outputs. Two machine learning strategies were employed: forward design, predicting spectral response from geometry, and inverse design, estimating geometry from desired frequency peaks. Multiple linear and tree based regression models, including linear, lasso, random forest, decision trees, gradient boosting models were trained and evaluated using standard error metrics such as RMSE, MAE, and R^2 etc. A physics-informed confirmation step was carried out by re-simulating specific regression-predicted designs in a full-wave solver and comparing the resulting resonance frequencies and absorption levels with the intended targets, producing low percentage errors. Because the inverse design approach allows for the immediate retrieval of geometry corresponding to user-specified resonance frequencies and absorption amplitudes, facilitating quick spectrum-to-structure design, this validation further illustrates the tunability of the suggested absorber. All things considered, the suggested data-driven methodology reduces dependency on computationally costly repetitive simulations by facilitating effective optimization and quick prototyping of THz absorbers.

Index Terms—Metamaterial, absorber, random forest, gradient boost, decision trees, regression

I. INTRODUCTION

Metamaterials are artificially engineered structures designed to exhibit electromagnetic properties not typically

found in natural materials. These properties arise from their subwavelength periodic architecture rather than the intrinsic characteristics of their constituent materials [1]–[4]. By tailoring unit cell geometries and arrangements, metamaterials can achieve exotic phenomena such as negative permittivity, negative permeability, and negative refractive index. These capabilities have led to a wide range of applications, including cloaking, superlensing, perfect absorption, and advanced antenna designs [5]–[9].

The terahertz (THz) frequency range, typically spanning from 0.1 to 10 THz, lies between the microwave and infrared regions of the electromagnetic spectrum. This region has attracted significant interest due to its unique potential in non-invasive imaging, chemical sensing, high-speed wireless communications, and security screening [10]–[15]. However, the development of efficient devices in this range is challenging due to the lack of naturally occurring materials with strong THz responses. As a result, metamaterial-based solutions offer a compelling approach for designing functional THz components with customizable spectral characteristics [16]–[19]. This controllability can be further enhanced by incorporating phase-change materials into the metamaterial architecture. For instance, phase change materials-based multifunctional reconfigurable terahertz metamaterials have been explored for joint polarization control, demonstrating how these platforms can provide additional flexibility for dynamically tunable THz wave manipulation [20]–[22].

Among the various metamaterial applications, absorbers that exhibit near-unity absorption at target frequencies have shown particular promise in the THz regime [23]–[25]. THz metamaterial absorbers utilize tailored resonant structures, such as split-ring resonators, to confine and dissipate incident THz energy effectively [26]–[28]. These absorbers are especially useful

in stealth technology, thermal imaging, biosensing, and spectroscopic applications. Dual-band or multiband absorbers are of special interest due to their ability to target multiple spectral features within a compact footprint. Recent studies have continued to expand the capabilities of terahertz metamaterials toward both reconfigurable and sensing-oriented applications. In parallel, polarization-insensitive terahertz metamaterial absorbers have also been developed for sensing applications, where the absorber performance is optimized through full-wave electromagnetic simulation and geometric parameter analysis [29], [30]. These studies reflect the growing interest in THz metamaterials for multifunctional control, robust absorption, and sensing performance.

Recent advancements in machine learning (ML) have further accelerated the design and optimization of metamaterials and metasurfaces [31]–[35]. ML techniques are increasingly being integrated with simulation workflows to predict electromagnetic responses [36]–[39], reverse-engineer geometric parameters, and explore high-dimensional design spaces efficiently [40]–[43]. By training regression models on simulation datasets, researchers can significantly reduce computational costs and enable real-time design iterations for functional electromagnetic devices [44]–[46]. Advances in intelligent electromagnetic design have significantly expanded the scope of terahertz metasurface research beyond conventional trial-and-error optimization. In particular, recent reviews have highlighted the rapid growth of machine-learning-assisted metasurface design strategies for complex electromagnetic structures [47]. At the terahertz scale, recent studies have demonstrated inverse-design and deep-learning-based frameworks for multifunctional THz metasurfaces, efficient on-demand THz metasurface synthesis, and high-Q THz metamaterial design with both forward and inverse neural modeling [48]–[50]. These developments indicate a clear shift in the field toward data-driven and intelligent design methodologies for THz devices.

Within this broader landscape, the present study addresses a more focused but practically relevant problem, the forward and inverse design of a passive dual-band THz metamaterial absorber within a bounded geometric parameter space. Unlike generalized inverse-design frameworks aimed at highly multifunctional metasurfaces or large-scale component synthesis, the proposed approach emphasizes a compact regression-based workflow using a small set of physically interpretable geometric inputs, comparative evaluation across multiple regressors, and full-wave re-simulation to verify the inverse-predicted structures.

The broader feasibility of machine-learning-assisted multiband absorber design is demonstrated in [51]. The main focus in [52] was on benchmarking several

regression models for forward prediction of absorber performance, and search-based structural optimization through a multi-objective firefly algorithm rather than a trainable inverse-design workflow was developed in [53]. In contrast, this study combines a compact merged circular split-ring resonator geometry with both forward and inverse regression in a single unified pipeline. It is designed around a small set of physically meaningful geometric parameters, multiple train/test split evaluations, and several complementary error metrics, followed by full-wave re-simulation of the inverse-predicted structures for physical verification. Therefore, the key contribution of this work is not simply higher predictive accuracy or faster optimization alone, but the establishment of a low-complexity, computationally efficient, and physically validated spectrum-to-geometry design strategy for passive dual-band THz metamaterial absorbers.

THz metamaterial absorbers have demonstrated a wide range of functionalities, including dual-band response, multiband operation, tunability, and high-sensitivity sensing; however, the literature still shows a persistent tradeoff between spectral performance, structural simplicity, and design efficiency. Passive dual-band absorbers generally rely on carefully engineered metallic resonators and repeated full-wave parametric optimization, which can provide strong absorption performance but are not inherently suitable for rapid inverse redesign from target spectral requirements [54], [55]. By contrast, graphene and other active-material-based absorbers enable tunability and multifunctionality, but often at the cost of additional material, electrical biasing, and fabrication complexity [56], [57]. In parallel, machine-learning-assisted design strategies have shown strong potential for accelerating absorber development through surrogate prediction, inverse mapping, and parameter optimization [51]–[53]. Despite these advances, relatively few studies combine a structurally simple passive dual-band absorber with a closed-loop forward and inverse design framework and full-wave revalidation of inverse-predicted geometries. In this context, the present work addresses that gap by integrating a compact dual-band absorber design with regression-based forward and inverse modeling, followed by electromagnetic re-simulation to confirm the physical reliability of the predicted geometries for practical spectrum-to-structure redesign [51].

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section II describes the metamaterial unit-cell design and full-wave simulation setup. Section III discusses the electromagnetic characterization and material properties at the resonant frequencies. Section IV presents the equivalent circuit interpretation of the two resonance modes, and Section V analyzes the field and current distributions to explain the physical origin of absorption.

Section VI details the parametric study and dataset generation procedure, while Section VII presents the regression-learning framework and model training strategy. Section VIII reports the forward-design performance for predicting (f_1, f_2, A_1, A_2) from geometry, and Section IX presents the inverse-design results for estimating the required geometry from desired spectral targets. Section X then provides a physics-informed confirmation by re-simulating multiple inverse-predicted geometries in the full-wave solver, extracting the achieved resonance peaks and absorption amplitudes, and computing percentage errors with respect to the desired targets. This validation also demonstrates the rendered tunability of the absorber, since the regression-based inverse mapping enables selecting geometries to realize user-specified resonance frequencies and absorption levels without repeated trial-and-error sweeps. Section XI discusses about fabrication and probable experimental process. Finally, Section XII concludes the paper with key findings and future directions.

II. DESIGN AND SIMULATION OF THE METAMATERIAL UNIT CELL

The structural design analyzed in this study is illustrated in Fig. 1(a) and Fig. 1(b). Inspired by previous works that employed combinations of multiple split-ring resonator (SRR) elements, this work adopts a fundamental absorber design framework using integrated circular ring resonators to realize a high-performance THz metamaterial absorber [24]. The proposed structure consists of a square-shaped lead glass dielectric substrate with copper layers at the top and bottom, each with a thickness of 0.1 μm . The unit cell consists of two concentric circular split-ring resonators which forms a larger split ring resonator together patterned on the top copper layer within a square unit-cell of side length (40 μm). The geometric parameters defining this structure are: I (15.5 μm) and O (13.6 μm) (inner and outer radii of the larger ring), IS (4 μm) and IO (1.8 μm) (inner and outer radii of the smaller ring), and S (1.2 μm) (split-gap length). These parameters fully specify the resonator geometry used throughout the parametric and regression analyses. The resonators feature circular gaps with a split separation. The copper layer possesses an electrical conductivity of 5.96×10^7 S/m, while the dielectric permittivity of the lead glass is taken as 6. The simulation setup, shown in Fig. 1(b), involves 3D frequency-domain analysis using FEM-based electromagnetic software. The unit cell is illuminated by a TE-polarized THz plane wave with the electric field aligned along the z-axis. Floquet-port boundary conditions are applied along x and y directions to model periodicity, and open boundaries are defined along the z-axis to simulate free-space propagation. The principal simulation parameters and

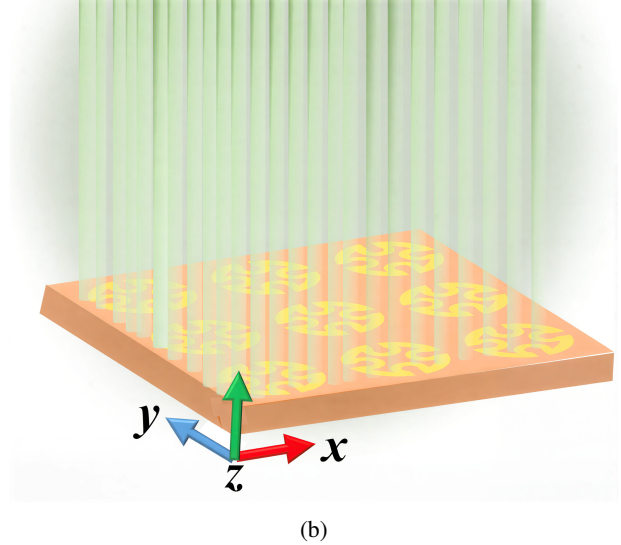
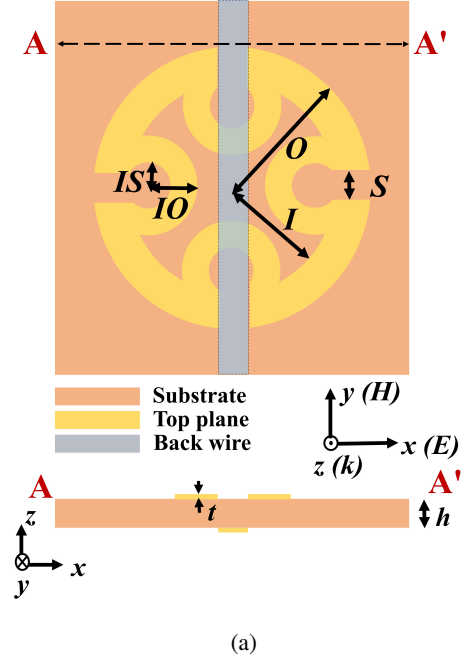


Fig. 1: (a) Geometry of the proposed dual-band THz metamaterial absorber, consisting of merged circular split-ring resonators patterned on a copper-lead-glass unit cell. (b) Simulation setup used for full-wave electromagnetic analysis, showing TE-polarized plane-wave incidence, applied Floquet boundary conditions, and open boundaries along the propagation axis

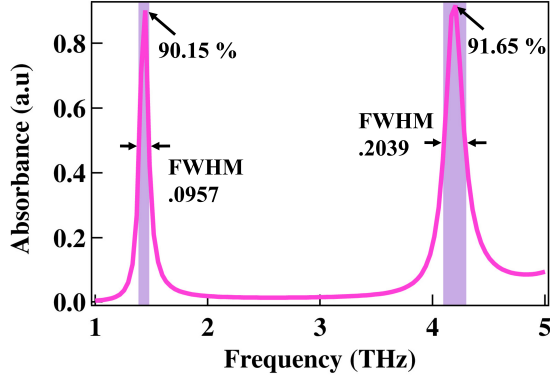


Fig. 2: Simulated absorption spectrum of the proposed metamaterial absorber across the THz frequency range, showing two strong absorption peaks near 1.45 THz and 4.24 THz with absorption exceeding 90%.

numerical conditions adopted for the electromagnetic analysis of the proposed THz metamaterial absorber are summarized in TABLE II. The simulation results demonstrate more than 90% absorption at two THz frequencies as shown in Fig. 2 which are attributed to resonant behaviour characteristics characterized by effective material properties.

The absorption of the proposed metamaterial absorber can be calculated directly from the simulated scattering parameters. Under plane-wave excitation, the reflected and transmitted power ratios are given by $R(\omega) = |S_{11}(\omega)|^2$ and $T(\omega) = |S_{21}(\omega)|^2$, respectively. Hence, the absorptance is obtained from energy conservation as, $A(\omega) = 1 - R(\omega) - T(\omega) = 1 - |S_{11}(\omega)|^2 - |S_{21}(\omega)|^2$. (1)

To quantify the spectral selectivity of the proposed dual-band THz metamaterial absorber, the full width at half maximum (FWHM) of each absorption resonance was extracted from the simulated absorption spectrum (Fig. 2). A narrower FWHM indicates stronger frequency selectivity, which is beneficial for multi-band filtering and sensing applications.

For the first absorption band centered at $f_1 \approx 1.45$ THz, the measured linewidth is $\text{FWHM}_1 \approx 0.0957$ THz. For the second band centered at $f_2 \approx 4.24$ THz, the linewidth is $\text{FWHM}_2 \approx 0.2039$ THz. Using the standard definition of the loaded quality factor,

$$Q = \frac{f_0}{\text{FWHM}}, \quad (2)$$

the corresponding quality factors are calculated as,

$$Q_1 = \frac{f_1}{\text{FWHM}_1} = \frac{1.45}{0.0957} \approx 15.15,$$

$$Q_2 = \frac{f_2}{\text{FWHM}_2} = \frac{4.24}{0.2039} \approx 20.79.$$

TABLE I: Summary of simulation parameters and numerical conditions used in this study.

Parameter	Characterization
Operating range	THz regime
Solver type	Frequency-domain electromagnetic solver
Frequency sweep range	0.5- 5 THz
Unit-cell configuration	Periodic metamaterial absorber unit cell
Boundary conditions	periodic boundary conditions in the x - and y -directions
Propagation direction	Incident wave along the z -direction
Excitation type	Normally incident plane wave
Polarization condition	Linearly polarized wave
Fixed geometrical parameters	Outer radius of big CSRR, structural dimension of the unit cell square
Geometrical input variables	Inner and outer radii of small CSRR, split gap length, inner radii of big CSRR
Absorber configuration	Metal-dielectric-metal structure
Geometrical input variables	Inner and outer radius of the resonators, split gap etc.
Output responses	Resonance frequencies and absorption amplitudes
Ambient condition	Air
Temperature	300 K

These results indicate that the higher-frequency resonance exhibits a larger Q factor (narrower normalized linewidth), implying stronger frequency selectivity at ~ 4.24 THz, while both resonances maintain high absorptance ($> 90\%$) with well-defined, sharp spectral features.

While the retrieved effective parameters in Fig. 3 clearly show that both ϵ_r and μ_r attain negative values near the two resonant frequencies, it is important to emphasize that perfect absorption does not fundamentally require simultaneous negativity of permittivity and permeability. High absorption in metamaterial absorbers is achieved when the structure satisfies the impedance-matching condition, ensuring suppressed reflection, together with sufficient intrinsic loss to dissipate the transmitted energy. Many high-performance THz absorbers therefore operate without exhibiting double-negative (DNG) behavior. In the present design, however, the coexistence of strong electric and magnetic resonances naturally leads to overlapping regions where both ϵ_r and μ_r become negative. Rather than being a strict requirement, this DNG-like response facilitates impedance matching across both bands and strengthens field confinement within the merged circular split-ring

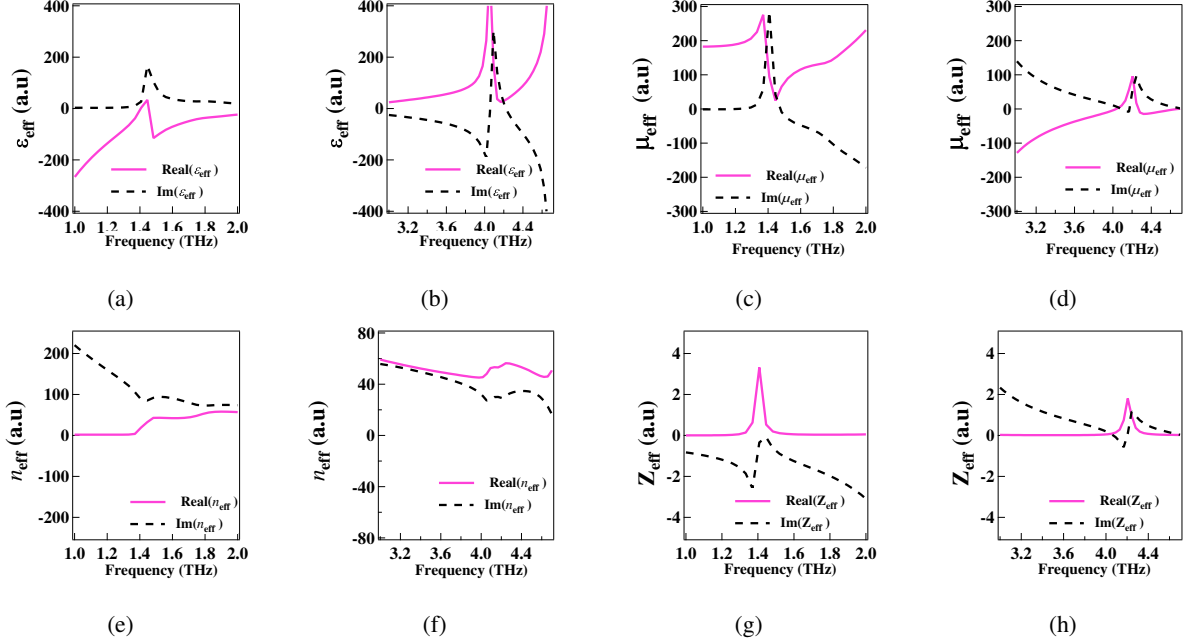


Fig. 3: Retrieved effective electromagnetic parameters of the absorber at 1.44 and 4.24 THz, respectively, (a), (b) effective permittivity $\epsilon(\omega)$, (c), (d) effective permeability $\mu(\omega)$, (e), (f) refractive index $n(\omega)$, and (g), (h) normalized impedance $Z(\omega)$. Negative values of ϵ and μ and impedance matching at the resonant frequencies confirm dual-band metamaterial absorption behavior.

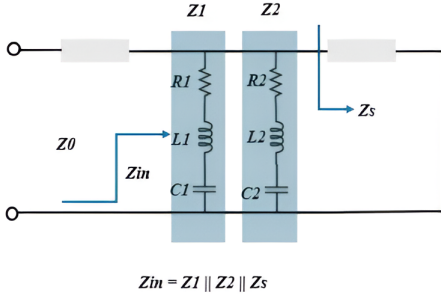


Fig. 4: Equivalent LC circuit model representing the two resonant modes of the metamaterial unit cell. The extracted inductance and capacitance values accurately reproduce the simulated resonant frequencies.

resonators, thereby enabling the dual-band $\sim 90\%$ absorption demonstrated in this work.

III. ELECTROMAGNETIC CHARACTERIZATION AND MATERIAL PROPERTIES OF THE ABSORBER

The retrieved effective permittivity (ϵ) plots reveal that the metamaterial exhibits strong electric resonance behavior at two distinct frequency bands. In both the 1.2–2.0 THz and 3.0–4.8 THz ranges, the real part of permittivity (ϵ_r) becomes highly negative around

1.45 THz and 4.25 THz, respectively. These sharp dips are accompanied by corresponding peaks in the imaginary part (ϵ_{im}), indicating strong dielectric losses near resonance. The negative permittivity confirms that the structure supports plasmonic-like electric resonance, an essential feature for artificial materials engineered to exhibit unusual electromagnetic responses.

The effective permeability (μ) plots further highlight the magnetic response of the unit cell. Around the same resonant frequencies (approximately 1.45 THz and 4.25 THz), the real part of permeability (μ_r) also becomes negative, and the imaginary part (μ_{im}) shows significant peaks. This indicates that the unit cell not only supports electric resonance but also exhibits magnetic resonance, likely due to the inclusion of split-ring or other magnetically responsive elements in the structure. The coexistence of negative ϵ_r and μ_r at these frequencies suggests that the material behaves as a double-negative (DNG) metamaterial, which is key to achieving perfect absorption or negative-index behavior.

The effective refractive index (n) further supports this observation. In both frequency bands, the real part of the refractive index (n_r) becomes negative near the resonant peaks, confirming negative-index metamaterial behavior. The imaginary part of the index (n_{im}) is elevated at resonance, indicating increased loss and absorption. These features are consistent with strong

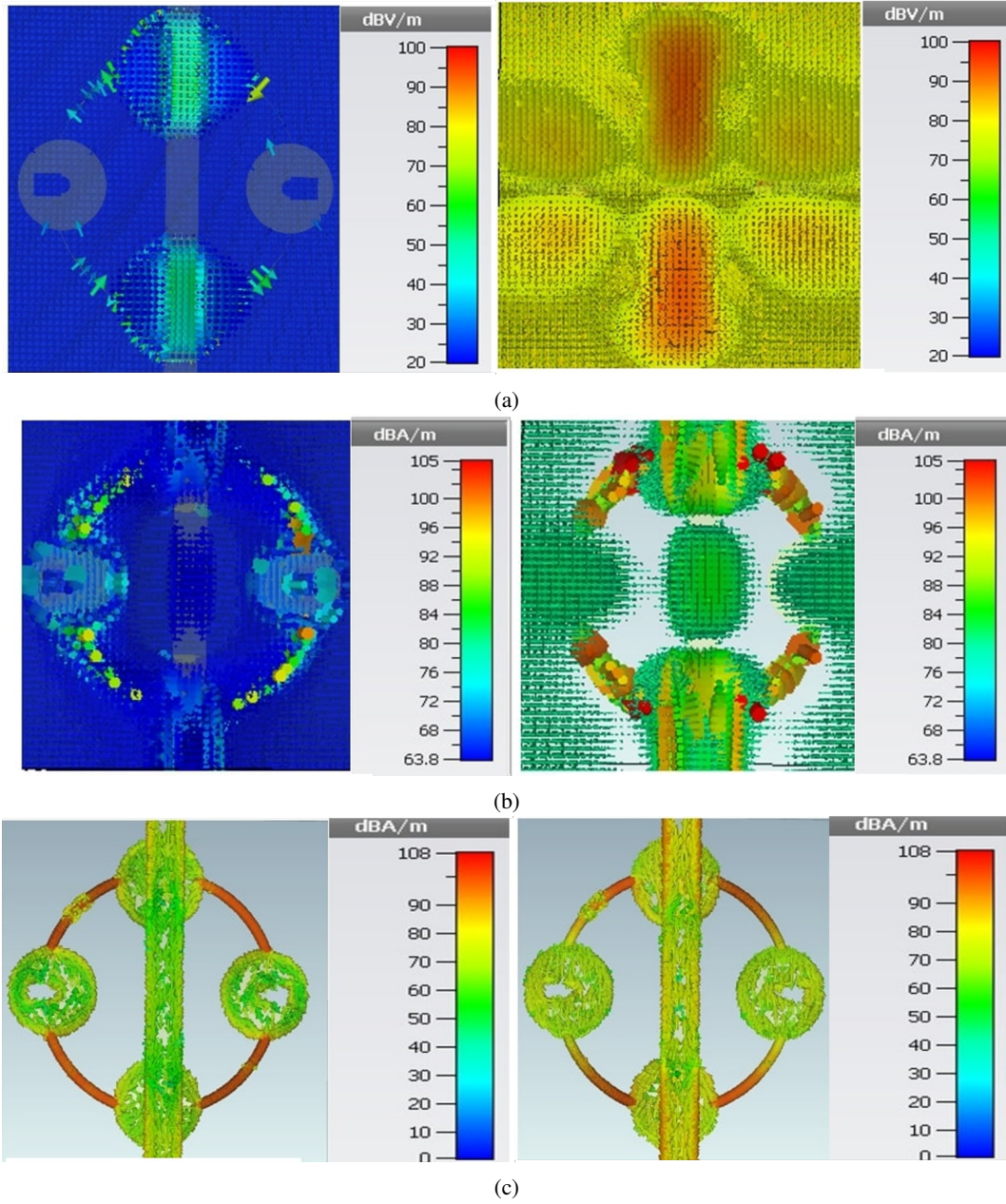


Fig. 5: Field and current distributions at the two resonant frequencies 1.24 and 4.24 THz respectively, (a) electric field magnitude, (b) magnetic field intensity, and (c) surface current density. The distributions illustrate fundamental and higher-order resonance modes responsible for dual-band absorption.

TABLE II: Comparison of the proposed dual-band THz metamaterial absorber with representative designs from the literature, summarizing material composition, geometry, unit-cell size, resonance frequencies, and application domains.

Attribute	[58]	[59]	[60]	[61]	[62]	Proposed work
Metamaterial structure	Orthogonal coupled split-ring metal resonator	Cross-shaped meta-material layer	Anisotropic graphene strips	Hybrid bi-element resonator	Nested split-ring + wire resonators	Merged circular ring resonators
Conductive layer	Al, VO ₂	VO ₂ , Au, Graphene	Graphene	Graphene, STO	Au	Cu
Number of peaks	2	2	Multi-band	1	2	2
Unit cell size (μm)	100 $\times$ 100	130 $\times$ 130	50 $\times$ 50	60 $\times$ 60	33 $\times$ 33	40 $\times$ 40
Peak frequencies (THz)	0.67, 0.87	0.474, 0.831	2.1, 2.74, 5.56	0.85	0.89, 1.36	1.44, 4.24
Application	Phase transition	Tunability switching and	Selective absorption	Broadband modulation performance at THz	High-Q sensing	THz sensing
Selectivity	Yes	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Tunability	Yes	Yes	No	Yes	No	Yes
Physics-informed inverse-design confirmation	No	No	No	No	No	Yes

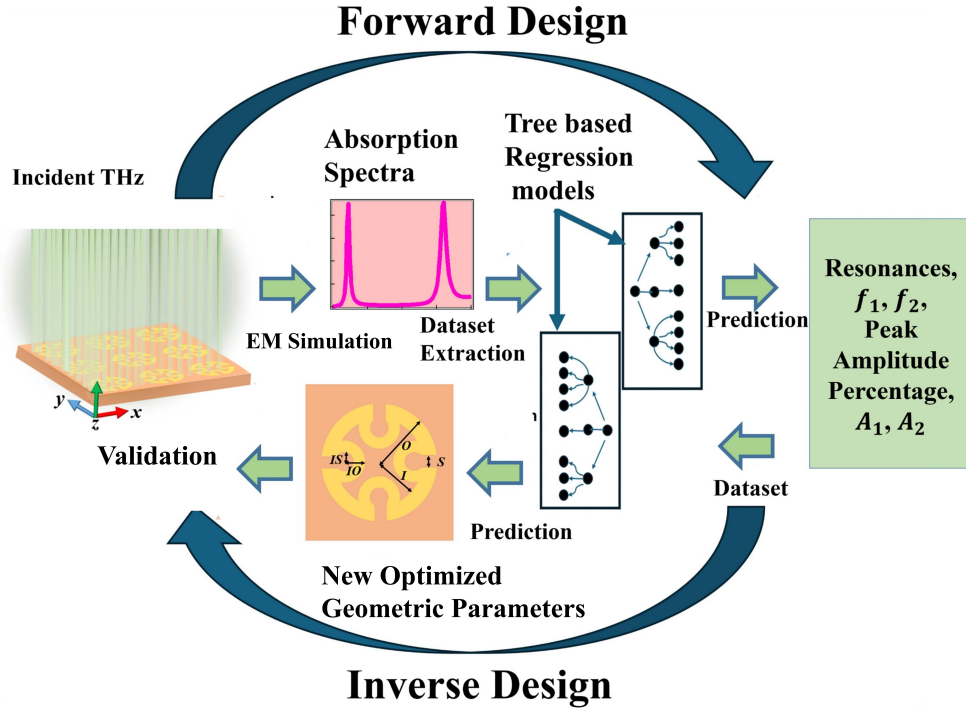


Fig. 6: Design workflow of the proposed regression based predictive modeling of the metamaterial absorber.

dispersion and electromagnetic field confinement near the resonant frequencies, allowing the metamaterial to manipulate wave propagation in unconventional ways.

Lastly, the effective impedance (Z) behavior shows that the unit cell is well-matched to free space at the resonant frequencies. At both 1.45 THz and 4.25 THz, the real part of the impedance approaches unity, and the imaginary part nears zero. This condition of impedance matching is crucial for minimizing reflection at the air-metamaterial interface and achieving maximum energy transfer into the absorber. Together, these retrieved pa-

rameters confirm that the designed metamaterial unit cell operates as a dual-band perfect absorber with tailored electric and magnetic responses that support resonance, loss, and impedance matching in the THz domain.

IV. EQUIVALENT CIRCUIT MODELING

The two observed resonances at approximately 1.445 THz and 4.244 THz can be interpreted as follows: At 1.445 THz, the equivalent circuit comprises an inductance $L_1 \approx 8.29 \times 10^{-12}$ H in series with a capacitance

$C_1 \approx 1.44 \times 10^{-15}$ F [63]–[65]. Inserting these values into the resonant frequency formula,

$$f_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi\sqrt{LC}} \quad (3)$$

yields $f_0 \approx 1.456$ THz, which closely matches the observed resonance. This confirms that the first resonance corresponds to the fundamental LC mode determined by the physical layout of the metamaterial unit cell [66]–[68].

The higher-order resonance at 4.244 THz is attributed to a distinct LC mode, likely arising from sub-structures or parasitic elements within the unit cell. Using $L_2 = 5.488 \times 10^{-12}$ H and $C_2 = 2.646 \times 10^{-16}$ F, the calculated resonance frequency is approximately 4.176 THz, which is again in strong agreement with the observed value. This behavior mirrors dual-resonance phenomena found in SRR- or wire-based absorbers [65].

In both cases, the LC equivalent circuit model shown in Fig. 4 predicts the resonant frequencies with less than 2% error and provides an effective means for tuning these responses through geometric or material modifications.

V. FIELD DISTRIBUTION ANALYSIS

At the resonant frequency of 1.44 THz, the electric field distribution is strongly concentrated at the ends of the vertical arms of the resonator, with pronounced intensity near the capacitive gaps as shown in Fig. 5(a). The field pattern is symmetric and indicates a fundamental dipolar resonance mode, where charges oscillate vertically along the resonator. This localization suggests dominant capacitive coupling, storing electric energy between adjacent metal edges. The high electric field magnitude (up to 138 dBV/m) confirms strong confinement, and the structure behaves like an LC circuit with a large capacitive component at this frequency. In contrast, at the higher resonance of 4.24 THz, the electric field becomes more complex, with hotspots distributed at the center and along multiple lobes of the resonator. This pattern reflects a higher-order mode, involving more intricate coupling across the resonator arms. The spread and shape of the field indicate multi-arm interactions and a mixture of capacitive and inductive behavior due to the smaller effective wavelength. Though the color scale differs (up to 100 dBV/m), the relative field intensities show that energy is still effectively trapped, enabling strong absorption. Together, these two resonant behaviors confirm that the metamaterial absorber is engineered to interact efficiently at multiple THz frequencies by supporting distinct electric resonance modes.

At the resonant frequency of 1.44 THz, the magnetic field distribution reveals strong confinement around the curved outer edges of the resonator arms as shown in

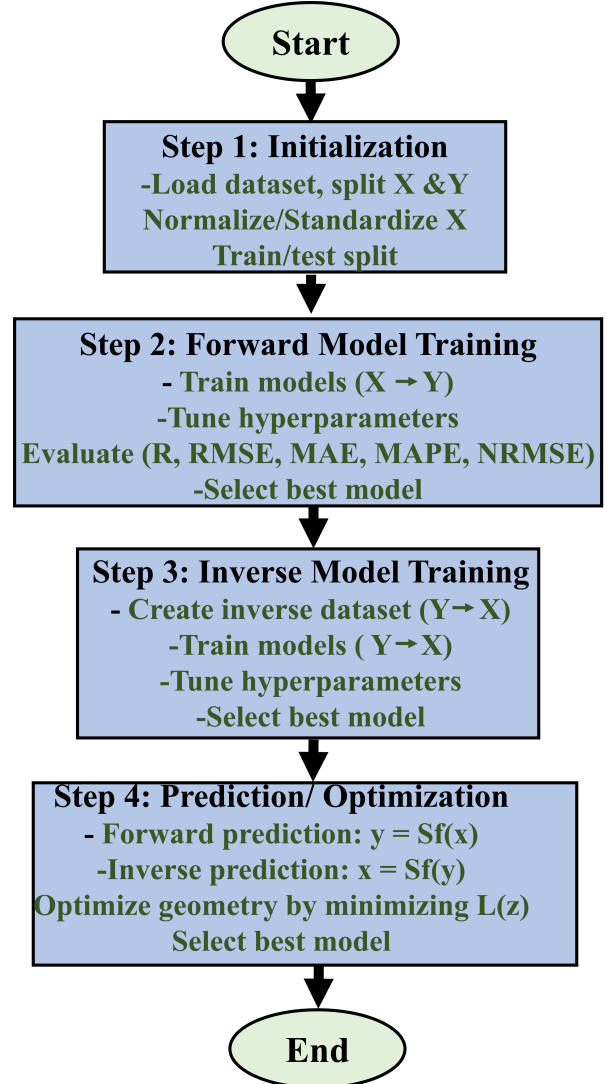


Fig. 7: Regression-based prediction pipeline for forward and inverse design of the metamaterial absorber. The diagram summarizes model training, hyperparameter tuning, feature–target mapping, and prediction stages.

Fig 5(b). The pattern exhibits symmetry and circular concentration on both sides, forming loop-like structures indicative of magnetic dipole resonance. These loops are a result of induced circulating surface currents, which generate magnetic flux and are concentrated primarily in the dielectric spacer between the top resonator and the ground plane. The peak magnetic field intensity reaches around 105 dBA/m, showing that magnetic energy is efficiently stored in these regions, consistent with the inductive behavior of an LC resonator at low frequency. At 4.24 THz, the magnetic field becomes more distributed and intense along the central and diagonal branches of the resonator, with higher-order rotational symmetry

TABLE III: Regression-based forward and inverse design algorithm used for surrogate modeling of the metamaterial absorber. The table summarizes dataset structure, model selection, training steps, evaluation criteria, and optimization workflow

Regression-Based Forward and Inverse Design Algorithm
Input: – Dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^N$ where $x^{(n)} = [I, IS, IO, S]$ (geometric parameters) and $y^{(n)} = [f_1, f_2, A_1, A_2]$ (resonant frequencies and amplitudes) – Train/test split ratio r – Candidate regression models $M = \{\text{Linear, Lasso, DT, RF, GB}\}$ – Error metrics: R^2 , RMSE, MAE, MAPE, NRMSE
Steps: 1. Initialization: – Load dataset $\mathcal{D}$; split into feature matrix X and target matrix Y . – Normalize or standardize X if needed. – Split into training and testing sets using ratio r . 2. Forward Model Training: For each target $y_k \in Y$: • Train all models $m \in M$ on $X \rightarrow y_k$. • Tune hyperparameters (e.g., GridSearchCV). • Evaluate models using R^2 , RMSE, MAE, MAPE, NRMSE. • Select best model m_k^* . Store chosen models as forward surrogate $\mathcal{S}_f = \{m_{f_1}^*, m_{f_2}^*, m_{A_1}^*, m_{A_2}^*\}$. 3. Inverse Model Training: – Build inverse dataset $\mathcal{D}_i = \{(y^{(n)}, x_i^{(n)})\}$ where $x_i = [I, IS, IO, S]$. For each inverse target x_i : • Train models $m \in M$ on $Y \rightarrow x_i$. • Tune hyperparameters and select best model m_i^* . Store chosen models as inverse surrogate $\mathcal{S}_i = \{m_I^*, m_{IS}^*, m_{IO}^*, m_S^*\}$. 4. Prediction / Optimization: – Forward prediction: For a new geometry x^* , compute $\hat{y} = \mathcal{S}_f(x^*)$. – Inverse prediction: For a target response y^* , compute $\hat{x}_i = \mathcal{S}_i(y^*)$. – (Optional) Optimize geometry by minimizing $\mathcal{L}(x) = w_f[(\hat{f}_1 - f_1)^2 + (\hat{f}_2 - f_2)^2] + w_A[(\hat{A}_1 - A_1)^2 + (\hat{A}_2 - A_2)^2].$ using global or Bayesian optimization with $\mathcal{S}_f$ as surrogate. 5. Repeat or Terminate: – If metrics meet tolerance, stop. – Otherwise, add new samples to $\mathcal{D}$, retrain surrogates, and repeat Steps 2–4.
Output: – Trained forward surrogate $\mathcal{S}_f$ (geometry $\rightarrow$ response) – Trained inverse surrogate $\mathcal{S}_i$ (response $\rightarrow$ geometry) – (Optional) Optimized geometry $x^\dagger$ achieving target response

and field flow along multiple curved paths. This more intricate distribution indicates a higher-order magnetic resonance, where multiple inductive loops are activated simultaneously. Although the color scale peaks lower at 90 dB/m, the relative field enhancement is significant, especially near the junctions of structural arms, highlighting areas of strong magnetic flux density. These patterns confirm that at this frequency, the absorber engages more complex inductive coupling, contributing to strong absorption by capturing energy through multiple

resonant pathways.

At the resonant frequency of 1.44 THz, the surface current distribution shows strong and directed current flow along the vertical connector and circular side resonators as illustrated in Fig. 5(c). The current loops around the outer circular arms and flows vertically through the central bar, forming closed-loop patterns. This indicates the formation of a magnetic dipole, where circulating currents induce magnetic flux. The current intensity peaks near the junctions and edges, confirming efficient energy coupling at this fundamental mode. The anti-parallel currents between the top layer and ground plane (not shown) are expected to support strong magnetic resonance, contributing to effective absorption at this frequency. At the higher resonance of 4.24 THz, the surface current becomes more distributed and complex, with visible loops extending along multiple branches of the circular resonators. The current flows both vertically and radially around the arms, indicating a higher-order resonance mode with multi-path current loops. These intricate patterns suggest that multiple resonance pathways are engaged simultaneously, enhancing energy trapping and absorption. The elevated current density along the curved paths and resonator edges reflects strong electromagnetic interaction, enabling efficient suppression of reflection through destructive interference at the surface.

Compared to the earlier designs presented in TABLE II, the proposed merged circular ring resonator demonstrates clear advantages in structural simplicity in using less materials and layers. While the orthogonal coupled split-ring design by [58] achieves dual peaks at frequencies (0.67 and 0.87 THz) for phase-transition applications and the cross-shaped structure by [59] supports tunability with peaks at 0.474 and 0.831 THz, they both rely on more complex conductive materials such as VO_2 , Au, or graphene. The hybrid bi-element resonator of [61] offers a single broadband peak at 0.85 THz for modulation performance. In contrast, our proposed absorber achieves dual resonances at higher THz frequencies (1.44 THz and 4.24 THz) using a simpler copper-based merged ring design, making it more suitable for compact THz sensing applications. This combination of compact geometry, and simple metal composition underlines the novelty and enhanced practicality of the proposed structure.

VI. PARAMETRIC STUDY AND DATASET GENERATION

To analyze the influence of geometrical parameters on the absorption characteristics of the metamaterial absorber, a comprehensive parametric sweep was conducted. Four key geometric parameters of the integrated CSRR structure were systematically varied across a defined range to explore their impact on resonance

behavior. In this work, the machine-learning dataset was generated from a total of 400 full-wave electromagnetic simulations by systematically varying four key geometric parameters within predefined physically meaningful ranges. This procedure provided representative coverage of the feasible absorber design space while excluding geometrically invalid configurations. Because the input space is limited to four direct geometric variables, the resulting learning problem remains comparatively low-dimensional and physically interpretable.

The inner radius of the small circular resonators (IS) was swept from 0.5 to 3.5 μm , while the outer radius (IO) was varied from 2.5 to 4.9 μm . For the larger circular resonator, the inner radius (I) ranged from 12.5 to 17.5 μm . In addition, the split length (S) of the resonators was varied from 0.2 to 3 μm . Each of these parameters was sampled linearly, with 100 points in each range, to ensure adequate coverage of the design space. Although changing the inner and outer radii of a ring may appear to represent a similar geometric modification (i.e., adjusting ring thickness), we observed significant spectral and absorption changes when varying the small resonator radii (IS and IO). Therefore, it is important to treat IS and IO as independent parameters for the smaller resonators, since this preserves sensitivity to both the absolute radius and effective ring width, which together strongly influence the resonant response. However, the full factorial combination of these ranges naturally includes some unphysical geometries, for example, cases where the inner radius of the small ring (IS) exceeds the corresponding outer radius (IO). These infeasible configurations were not simulated. Instead, the complete list of parameter combinations was generated first, and only the geometrically valid cases satisfying $\text{IO} \geq \text{IS}$ were retained for electromagnetic simulation. As a result, the total number of realizable samples reduced to 373, reflecting the elimination of non-physical geometries as well as other numerical-stability exclusions. This approach preserves the independence of the parameter sweeps while ensuring that the dataset used for machine-learning modeling consists solely of physically meaningful resonator structures.

For every unique combination of the five geometric variables, a full-wave electromagnetic simulation was performed using a finite-element solver. A total of 500 unique simulations were executed to generate a comprehensive dataset. From each simulation, the frequency positions of the first and second resonance peaks were extracted along with their corresponding absorption amplitudes. These values serve as the target outputs for forward ML studies, while the geometric parameters constitute the input features.

This dataset serves as the foundation for both forward and inverse design tasks. In the forward approach, the

objective is to predict the resonant frequencies and absorption amplitudes from known geometric configurations. Conversely, in the inverse design, desired resonance frequencies are used to infer the appropriate geometric parameters needed to achieve them.

VII. MACHINE LEARNING-BASED MODELING

The probabilistic modeling of the metamaterial absorber in this study is based on five geometric parameters as features, with the outputs being the resonance frequencies and absorption amplitudes at two resonances. Five regression models were employed: Linear Regression, Lasso Regression, Decision Tree Regression, Random Forest Regression, and Gradient Boosting Regression.

With the dataset consisting of 400 simulations, the regression task is comparatively well conditioned as only four direct geometric parameters are used as input features. This is fundamentally different from high-dimensional spectrum-based datasets [69], where many sampled frequency points are treated as separate input columns, often increasing feature dimensionality and inter-feature redundancy. In the present case, the target outputs are reduced spectral descriptors, namely the resonance frequencies and corresponding absorption amplitudes, rather than the full absorption spectrum. To assess generalization and reduce the likelihood of overfitting, model performance was evaluated using multiple train-test split ratios of 80:20, 70:30, and 60:40. The consistent performance trends across these different partitions indicate that the stronger-performing models learned stable relationships between geometric inputs and spectral responses rather than memorizing a single subset of the data. Furthermore, the inverse-design predictions were revalidated through full-wave electromagnetic simulation, providing an additional physics-based check on the reliability of the learned mapping.

Linear Regression models the relationship between inputs and outputs by minimizing the residual sum of squares between observed and predicted values. The prediction function is:

$$\hat{y} = \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x} + b \quad (4)$$

where y and x terms are targets and features with w referring to weights with b bias.

In expanded scalar form, the linear regression model becomes:

$$\hat{y} = b + w_1 I + w_3 IS + w_4 IO + w_5 S, \quad (5)$$

where b is the intercept term, I and O denote the inner and outer radii of the larger circular resonator, IS and IO represent the inner and outer radii of the smaller circular resonator, and S is the split length of the resonator.

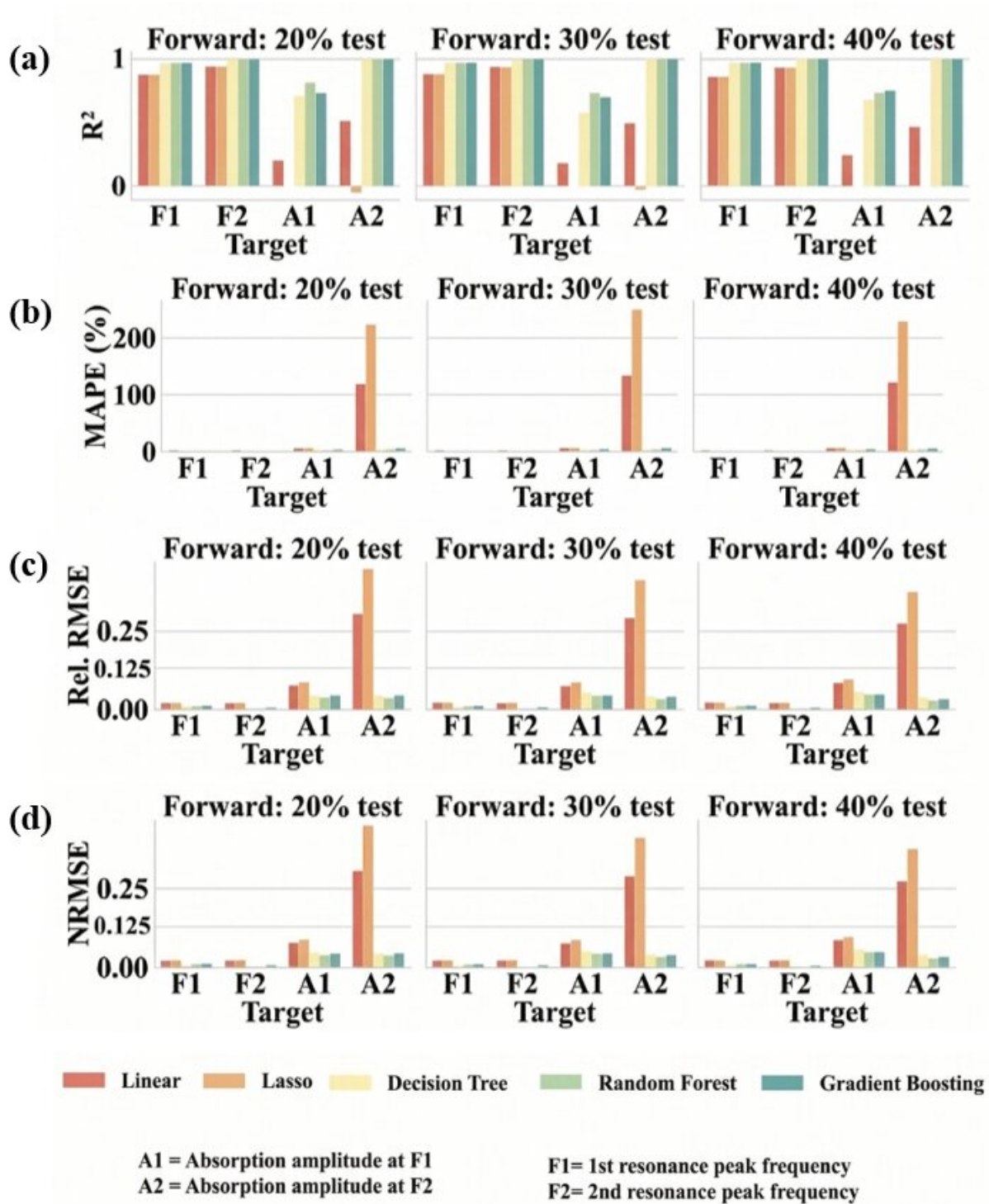


Fig. 8: Forward-design performance metrics across different regression models for multiple train–test splits. The plots compare the accuracy of predicting resonant frequencies and absorption amplitudes from geometric parameters

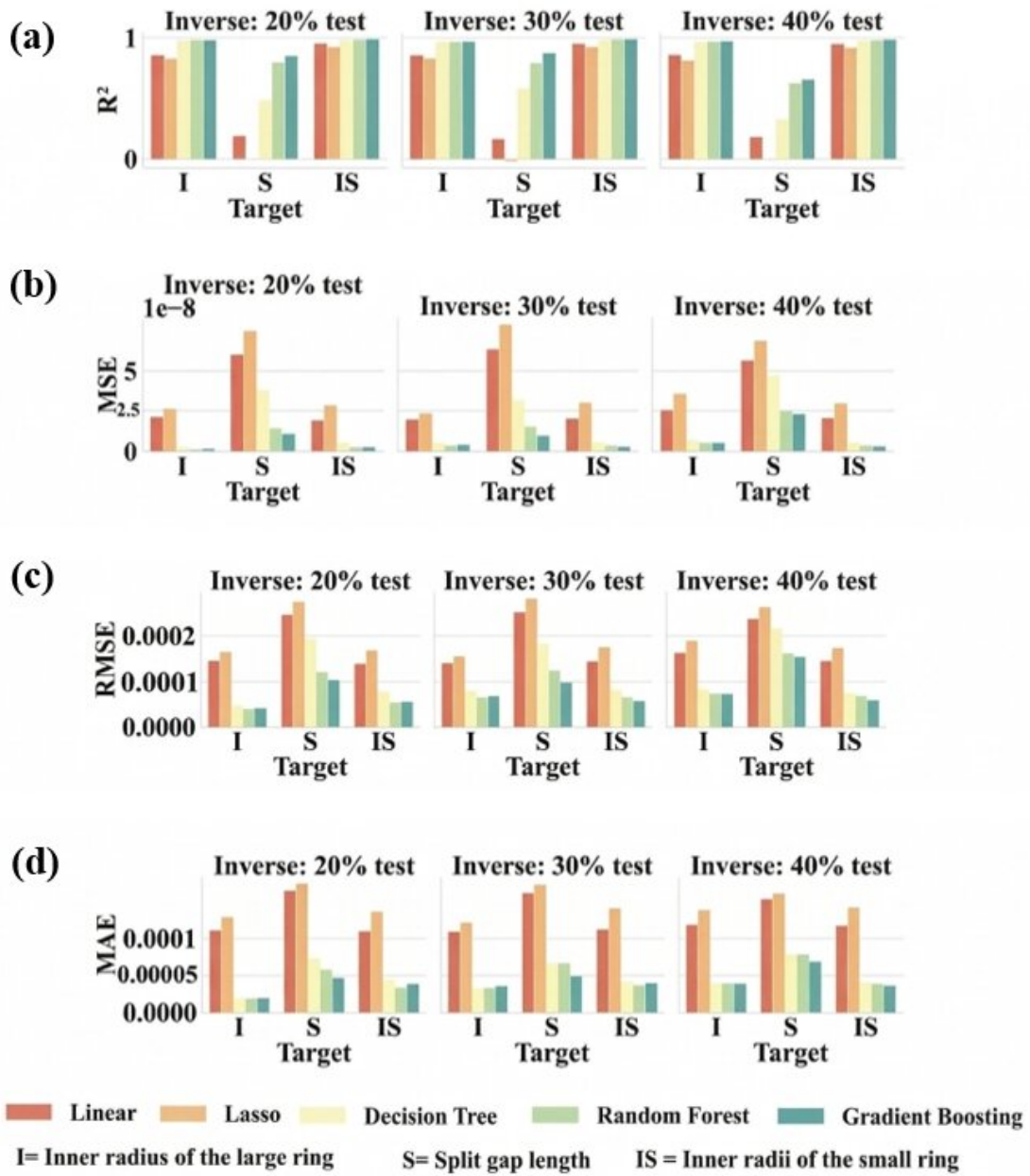


Fig. 9: Inverse-design performance metrics for predicting geometric parameters from target spectral responses using different regression models and test-set ratios. Ensemble models demonstrate the highest accuracy and stability

Lasso Regression extends Linear Regression by adding an regularization term to encourage sparsity in the coefficients and reduce overfitting [70]:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{Lasso}} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \mathbf{w}^\top \mathbf{x}_i)^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{w}\|_1 \quad (6)$$

Decision Tree Regression partitions the feature space into regions and assigns each region the average of the training outputs that fall within it [71]. Random Forest Regression is an ensemble of T decision trees [72]:

$$\hat{f}_{\text{RF}}(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T f_t(\mathbf{x}) \quad (7)$$

Gradient Boosting Regression builds an additive model in a forward stage-wise fashion, fitting each new learner to the negative gradient of the loss function [73]:

$$\hat{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{m=1}^M \gamma_m h_m(\mathbf{x}) \quad (8)$$

The performance of these models is evaluated using various metrics: coefficient of determination (R^2), mean squared error (MSE), root mean squared error (RMSE), mean absolute error (MAE), mean absolute percentage error (MAPE), relative root mean squared error (Rel. RMSE) and normalized root mean squared error (NRMSE) etc.

The coefficient of determination is:

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2}{\sum_{k=1}^n (y_k - \bar{y})^2} \quad (9)$$

The mean squared error (MSE) is:

$$\text{MSE} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2}{n} \quad (10)$$

The root mean squared error (RMSE) is:

$$\text{RMSE} = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{k=1}^n (y_k - \hat{y}_k)^2}{n}} \quad (11)$$

The mean absolute error (MAE) is:

$$\text{MAE} = \frac{\sum_{k=1}^n |y_k - \hat{y}_k|}{n} \quad (12)$$

The mean absolute percentage error (MAPE) is:

$$\text{MAPE} = \frac{100}{n} \sum_{k=1}^n \left| \frac{y_k - \hat{y}_k}{y_k} \right| \quad (13)$$

The relative root mean squared error (Rel. RMSE) is:

$$\text{Rel. RMSE} = \frac{\text{RMSE}}{\bar{y}} \quad (14)$$

where $\bar{y}$ is the mean of the observed values.

These metrics were chosen to provide both absolute and relative measures of prediction error. R^2 assesses the proportion of variance explained by the model,

indicating the overall goodness of fit. MSE, RMSE, and MAE quantify the absolute magnitude of errors, with RMSE penalizing larger deviations more heavily. MAPE expresses errors as percentages, facilitating comparison across targets of different scales. Rel. RMSE normalizes RMSE by the mean of the observed data, making it scale-independent and suitable for comparing predictions across targets with different magnitudes. The flowchart of the study is presented in Fig.6 and Fig. 7.

VIII. FORWARD DESIGN PERFORMANCE

We evaluated five regression models, Linear Regression, Lasso Regression, Decision Tree, Random Forest, and Gradient Boosting, for predicting the two resonance peaks (f_1, f_2) and their absorption amplitudes (A_1, A_2) from the geometric parameters (I, O, IS, IO, S). The performance summary is reported in TABLE IV and visual examples for different percentage of test datasets are shown in Fig 8.

Four complementary metrics are reported; the coefficient of determination (R^2), Normalized RMSE (NRMSE), Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE), and Relative RMSE. We include R^2 to quantify explained variance (model fit). NRMSE and Relative RMSE normalize errors by the target scale (range or mean), enabling fair comparisons across targets with very different magnitudes. MAPE expresses error in percent, which is directly interpretable for practitioners. This combination is particularly important here because some targets (the frequencies) are large in absolute value (THz); even when R^2 indicates an excellent fit, raw errors like RMSE or MAE can look numerically large simply due to scale. Using normalized/relative metrics removes this artifact and reflects the true predictive quality.

Across targets, tree-based ensembles outperform linear models. Random Forest and Gradient Boosting achieve the highest R^2 and the lowest NRMSE/Relative RMSE for f_1 and A_2 ; f_2 and A_1 are more nonlinear and thus relatively harder, but ensembles still lead. Decision Trees are competitive yet less robust than ensembles, while Linear/Lasso models underfit the nonlinear dependencies between geometry and response.

IX. INVERSE DESIGN PERFORMANCE

For inverse design, we predict geometric parameters from the electromagnetic response. Based on sensitivity analysis and stability, we focus on I , S , and IS as targets, using (f_1, f_2, A_1, A_2) as inputs as shown in TABLE V and Fig. 9. We deliberately exclude parameters with near-constant values (e.g., O , IO) to avoid ill-posed learning and degenerate error metrics. Because electromagnetic inverse problems are generally non-unique, the inverse-design task in this work

TABLE IV: Forward design performance of regression models for predicting resonance frequencies and absorption amplitudes from geometric parameters for 20% test set

Metric / Model	Linear	Lasso	Decision Tree	Random Forest	Gradient Boosting
<i>1st resonance frequency prediction (f_1, THz)</i>					
R^2	0.9067	0.8961	0.9343	0.9747	0.9641
NRMSE	0.0737	0.0777	0.0618	0.0834	0.0457
MAPE (%)	1.35	1.27	0.87	0.49	0.59
Rel. RMSE	0.0176	0.0148	0.0597	0.0553	0.0331
<i>2nd resonance frequency prediction (f_2, THz)</i>					
R^2	0.2048	0.2048	0.6400	0.8427	0.7626
NRMSE	0.1664	0.1664	0.1119	0.0740	0.0976
MAPE (%)	6.84	6.84	4.55	2.93	3.84
Rel. RMSE	0.0897	0.0897	0.0593	0.0553	0.0638
<i>Absorption amplitude at 1st resonance (A_1, %)</i>					
R^2	0.2005	0.2007	0.5998	0.8094	0.7223
NRMSE	0.1879	0.1879	0.1330	0.0972	0.1108
MAPE (%)	6.62	6.43	4.79	2.94	3.81
Rel. RMSE	0.0788	0.0788	0.0526	0.0410	0.0414
<i>Absorption amplitude at 2nd resonance (A_2, %)</i>					
R^2	0.5116	0.5115	0.9811	0.9926	0.9884
NRMSE	0.2279	0.2283	0.0438	0.0274	0.0343
MAPE (%)	11.22	11.26	6.19	3.97	6.00
Rel. RMSE	0.3041	0.3041	0.0468	0.0526	0.0468

is formulated in a constrained rather than unrestricted manner. Instead of seeking an arbitrary metasurface geometry from a desired response, the inverse mapping is limited to a single absorber topology within a bounded and fabrication-relevant geometric space. The inverse model is constrained using multiple physical response quantities simultaneously, namely the two resonance frequencies (f_1, f_2) and the corresponding absorption amplitudes (A_1, A_2), which reduces ambiguity compared with matching only one spectral feature. Moreover, based on sensitivity and stability considerations, only the most informative geometric parameters are predicted in the inverse stage, while weakly varying parameters are excluded to avoid ill-posed learning and degenerate solutions. During dataset construction, non-physical geometries are removed, and the final inverse-predicted structures are further checked by full-wave electromagnetic re-simulation. The inverse-design framework mitigates non-uniqueness by restricting the problem to a bounded fabrication-feasible absorber topology, using multiple spectral targets (f_1, f_2, A_1, A_2) as simultaneous constraints, screening the inverse outputs to the most sensitive geometric parameters, and verifying predicted solutions through full-wave re-simulation [74]

Here we report R^2 , RMSE, and MAE (in the original

geometric units). Unlike the forward case, target ranges for geometry are modest, so absolute-error metrics are naturally interpretable and stable; normalized errors (e.g., NRMSE, MAPE) can become misleading when target ranges are very small or values approach zero. Ensembles (Random Forest, Gradient Boosting) again yield the best performance, often achieving $R^2 \gtrsim 0.98$ with very small RMSE/MAE for I and IS . The parameter S remains more challenging—consistent with its weaker sensitivity to the available response features—yet ensemble models still provide the most reliable predictions. Linear and Lasso regressions trail due to their limited capacity to capture nonlinear inverse mappings.

The forward design experiments, conducted with 20%, 30%, and 40% test splits, reveal consistent trends across evaluation metrics such as R^2 , MSE, RMSE, MAE, MAPE, and Relative RMSE. For predicting the resonance frequencies and absorption amplitudes from geometric parameters, ensemble-based models such as Random Forest and Gradient Boosting consistently achieved the highest R^2 scores (often exceeding 0.95 for certain targets) and the lowest error metrics across all test sizes. In contrast, linear and lasso regression models showed weaker performance, particularly for parameters exhibiting nonlinear relationships with the outputs. Increasing

TABLE V: Inverse design performance of regression models for predicting geometric parameters from frequency and amplitude targets for 20% test set

Metric / Model	Linear	Lasso	Decision Tree	Random Forest	Gradient Boosting
<i>Prediction of large resonator size (I)</i>					
R ²	0.8638	0.8271	0.9386	0.9903	0.9899
MSE ($\times 10^{-8}$)	2.117	2.688	3.193	1.506	1.709
RMSE ($\times 10^{-4}$)	1.46	1.64	1.79	1.23	1.31
MAE ($\times 10^{-4}$)	1.11	1.29	1.10	0.99	1.02
<i>Prediction of cut (S)</i>					
R ²	0.1911	-0.9045	0.4897	0.8064	0.8556
MSE ($\times 10^{-8}$)	6.045	7.521	3.818	1.448	1.080
RMSE ($\times 10^{-4}$)	2.246	2.746	1.954	1.204	1.040
MAE ($\times 10^{-4}$)	1.65	1.87	0.77	0.51	0.47
<i>Prediction of small resonator size (IS)</i>					
R ²	0.9564	0.9352	0.9816	0.9934	0.9932
MSE ($\times 10^{-8}$)	1.927	2.861	1.635	0.292	0.299
RMSE ($\times 10^{-4}$)	1.39	1.69	1.28	0.54	0.55
MAE ($\times 10^{-4}$)	1.10	1.35	0.46	0.33	0.38

the test set size generally led to a slight reduction in model accuracy for all approaches, as reflected by marginal increases in RMSE and MAPE, although the effect was less pronounced for the ensemble models, demonstrating their superior generalization capability.

In the inverse design tasks, where the goal was to predict geometric parameters from the resonance frequencies and absorption amplitudes, a similar performance hierarchy emerged. Random Forest and Gradient Boosting again dominated in R² scores and maintained low error rates across different test splits, indicating robustness in capturing the complex, often many-to-one mappings from outputs to inputs. Decision Tree regression performed moderately well but exhibited greater variability in performance as the test set size increased. Linear and lasso regressions struggled with the inverse mapping, often producing higher MSE and MAPE values, especially for larger test sets. Notably, the inclusion of Relative RMSE and MAPE provided a more scale-independent view of the errors—important because the target parameters span large numerical ranges, making traditional metrics like MSE or RMSE alone insufficient for fair comparison.

All test sizes show incredibly low errors for Resonant Frequency 1 and 2 and amplitude 2 prediction. A near-perfect fit for all the targets using tree based regression models are shown by an R² value that is extremely close to 1 for all test sizes. Stable MAE and MAPE: The model appears to have tiny forecast errors from actual values, as indicated by the Mean Absolute Percentage Error (MAPE) staying below 0.004%.

For Resonant Frequency 2, the RMSE is higher (for example, 0.1842, 20% test size). Relatively higher prediction errors are also confirmed by the MSE and MAE figures. As the test size grows, the negative R² score for Resonant Frequency 2 becomes negative (for example, -0.0497 for 40% test size). For higher test sizes, this shows that the model's predictions are worse than the mean of the actual values. Resonant Frequency 2 may be more difficult to model because of increased noise or nonlinearity in the data, as indicated by MAPE remaining between 4 and 5%, which suggests moderate percentage errors.

The design of an metamaterial absorber with target resonance frequencies and absorption efficiency greater than 90% was optimized using the suggested method. In comparison to traditional approaches, the regression based optimization method requires fewer evaluations and showed rapid convergence to the target resonant frequency and absorption percentage when the geometric parameters were adjusted within predetermined limits. The search was successfully directed into promising areas of the parameter space using the acquisition function. Important information about how sensitive the performance measurements were to each parameter was revealed by the posterior distributions. In contrast to the substrate width and back wire width, the split length was shown to have a more noticeable impact on both resonance frequency and absorption. From the error metrics comparison, it is clear that the prediction accuracy is quite high making it suitable for replacing traditional time consuming design method where computational

resources requires is also very high.

X. PHYSICS INFORMED CONFIRMATION AND TUNABILITY

Although the inverse regression models demonstrate strong quantitative performance, inverse design in metamaterials is inherently susceptible to non-uniqueness (i.e., multiple geometries can yield similar spectral signatures). Therefore, to ensure that the inverse-predicted geometric parameters correspond to physically valid absorber responses, we perform a physics-informed confirmation step using full-wave electromagnetic simulation.

In this validation, we first select three inverse-design test cases. For each case, a desired spectral response is specified in terms of the two resonance frequencies and corresponding absorption amplitudes, i.e., $\mathbf{y}^{\text{des}} = [f_1^{\text{des}}, f_2^{\text{des}}, A_1^{\text{des}}, A_2^{\text{des}}]$. These desired values are then passed through the trained inverse regression surrogates to obtain the predicted geometry $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = [\hat{I}, \hat{IS}, \hat{S}]$ (with the remaining parameters fixed as described in Section IX). Next, the predicted geometry is imported into the same FEM simulation environment and boundary conditions used throughout this work. From the simulated absorption spectrum, we extract the two dominant resonance peaks and their peak absorption levels, yielding $\mathbf{y}^{\text{sim}} = [f_1^{\text{sim}}, f_2^{\text{sim}}, A_1^{\text{sim}}, A_2^{\text{sim}}]$.

To quantify agreement between the inverse target and the physics-validated response, we compute the percentage error for each spectral component as

$$\epsilon_k(\%) = \left| \frac{y_k^{\text{sim}} - y_k^{\text{des}}}{y_k^{\text{des}}} \right| \times 100, \quad k \in \{f_1, f_2, A_1, A_2\}. \quad (15)$$

We also report an overall validation error as the mean of the four component-wise percentage errors:

$$\bar{\epsilon}(\%) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_k \epsilon_k. \quad (16)$$

This physics-informed confirmation not only validates physical consistency but also emphasizes a crucial practical implication: tunability. The suggested framework makes it possible to directly retrieve the geometry needed to achieve that response because the inverse regression models accept a desired spectral specification as input (target resonance frequencies and peak absorption amplitudes). To put it another way, by choosing $\mathbf{y}^{\text{des}} = [f_1^{\text{des}}, f_2^{\text{des}}, A_1^{\text{des}}, A_2^{\text{des}}]$, the inverse surrogate provides $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = [\hat{I}, \hat{IS}, \hat{IO}, \hat{S}]$ that can be immediately validated through full-wave simulation. Instead of depending on laborious manual sweeps, this creates a tunable absorber design path where the residual peaks and absorption levels can be purposefully changed by prescribing new desired values and carrying out inverse design.

The physics-informed confirmation results for the three inverse-predicted designs are compiled in Table

VI and Fig. 10. The recovered peak locations and absorption magnitudes nearly match the expected values, resulting in very low percentage errors, and the full-wave simulated absorption spectra consistently replicate the intended dual-band behavior. As a result, the inverse regression models provide dependable and adjustable design for target spectral needs by producing geometries that are consistent under Maxwell-equation-based electromagnetic validation in addition to statistically accurate predictions. To position the present study with respect to representative THz absorber ML-assisted and other optimization based design approaches, a critical comparison is provided in TABLE VII.

XI. FABRICATION FEASIBILITY AND EXPERIMENTAL PROSPECTS

The proposed dual-band THz metamaterial absorber is relevant to several practical application areas, particularly frequency-selective sensing, detection, filtering, and imaging-related spectral selection in the terahertz regime. It follows the fundamental metal–dielectric–metal THz metamaterial absorber configuration [16], which provides near-zero transmission, enhanced resonant absorption, and strong field confinement at the patterned surface. These same features also facilitate sensing by making the resonance highly sensitive to changes in the surrounding environment as demonstrated in our prior dual-band ITO-based absorber for biomedical refractive-index sensing [9], [75]. In detection, the absorber efficiently localizes incident THz energy into a lossy region that can be converted into a measurable signal, such as in the metamaterial absorber–micro-bolometer platform and later room-temperature metamaterial bolometers for low-power THz detection [76]. In imaging, absorber-based THz pixels can be scaled into focal-plane arrays to improve coupling efficiency and image formation [77], [78]. Finally, in stealth applications, THz metamaterial absorbers suppress reflected THz energy and reduce electromagnetic signature, with flexible absorber designs showing nearly 400-fold radar-cross-section reduction at THz range [79] and is being explored for cloaking technologies as well [80].

Fabrication Feasibility

The presence of two strong and well-defined absorption resonances can be advantageous in applications requiring selective interaction at multiple frequencies, such as multi-band sensing or spectrally selective detection. From a practical implementation perspective, the present design is based on a planar metal–dielectric–metal resonator geometry on a dielectric substrate, which is

TABLE VI: Physics-informed confirmation of forward regression model: comparison between full-wave simulated responses and regression-predicted outputs for selected geometries.

Predicted Design / Geometry D $\hat{x} = [\hat{I}, \hat{S}, \hat{IO}, \hat{IS}]$	Simulated ($f_1^{\text{sim}}, f_2^{\text{sim}}, A_1^{\text{sim}}, A_2^{\text{sim}}$) from D	Desired Responses ($f_1^{\text{des}}, f_2^{\text{des}}, A_1^{\text{des}}, A_2^{\text{des}}$)	Error ($ \Delta f_1 /f_1^{\text{sim}}, \Delta f_2 /f_2^{\text{sim}}$)
Case 1: D1 (13.6, 1.21, 3.99, 1.79) μm	$f_1^{\text{sim}} = 1.44$ THz $f_2^{\text{sim}} = 4.205$ THz $A_1^{\text{sim}} = 0.96$ $A_2^{\text{sim}} = 0.92$	$f_1^{\text{des}} = 1.45$ THz $f_2^{\text{des}} = 4.21$ THz $A_1^{\text{des}} = 0.90$ $A_2^{\text{des}} = 0.90$	$ \Delta f_1 /f_1^{\text{sim}} = 0.694\%$ $ \Delta f_2 /f_2^{\text{sim}} = 0.119\%$
Case 2: D2 (13.4, 1.19, 3.93, 1.78) μm	$f_1^{\text{sim}} = 1.445$ THz $f_2^{\text{sim}} = 4.168$ THz $A_1^{\text{sim}} = 0.97$ $A_2^{\text{sim}} = 0.94$	$f_1^{\text{des}} = 1.45$ THz $f_2^{\text{des}} = 4.17$ THz $A_1^{\text{des}} = 0.98$ $A_2^{\text{des}} = 0.95$	$ \Delta f_1 /f_1^{\text{sim}} = 0.346\%$ $ \Delta f_2 /f_2^{\text{sim}} = 0.048\%$
Case 3: D3 (13.5, 1.19, 4.49, 1.79) μm	$f_1^{\text{sim}} = 1.41$ THz $f_2^{\text{sim}} = 4.21$ THz $A_1^{\text{sim}} = 0.91$ $A_2^{\text{sim}} = 0.85$	$f_1^{\text{des}} = 1.44$ THz $f_2^{\text{des}} = 4.20$ THz $A_1^{\text{des}} = 0.85$ $A_2^{\text{des}} = 0.85$	$ \Delta f_1 /f_1^{\text{sim}} = 2.128\%$ $ \Delta f_2 /f_2^{\text{sim}} = 0.238\%$

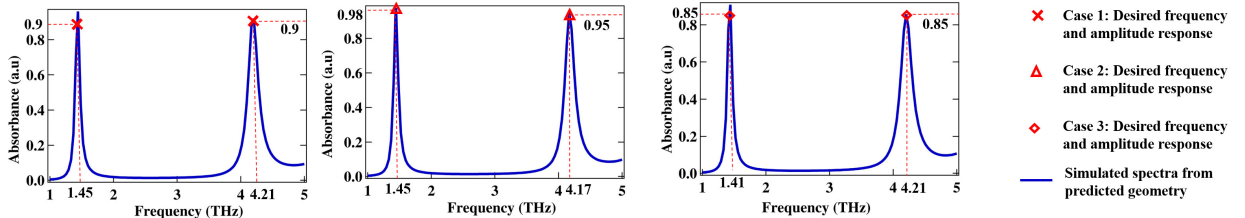


Fig. 10: Physics-informed confirmation of the inverse-design framework. Full-wave simulated absorption spectra (blue) obtained from regression-predicted geometries for three representative cases (Cases 1–3). Red symbols mark the desired resonance frequencies and corresponding peak absorption levels, while red dashed vertical lines indicate the target frequencies. The close match between the simulated spectra and the prescribed dual-band targets demonstrates physical validity and tunability of the proposed absorber.

conceptually compatible with commonly used microfabrication approaches for terahertz metamaterial absorbers [55]. Material losses are also inherently included in the electromagnetic model through the assigned conductive and dielectric properties used in the full-wave simulations [54]. The present study incorporates a simulation-driven optimization approach to guide the future fabrication and implementation of the proposed absorber. To further assess practical robustness, a fabrication-tolerance study was performed using the optimized design parameters. The results show that even with a 5% variation in the split-gap length, the simulated spectrum remains nearly identical to the nominal case, demonstrating that the optimized structure is reasonably tolerant to realistic fabrication imperfections. After applying a 5% variation to the split-length structural parameter as shown in Fig. 11, the simulated absorption spectra exhibit only negligible deviations, indicating that the overall device performance remains nearly unchanged.

This result demonstrates that the proposed absorber design has strong fabrication tolerance, thereby confirming its practical feasibility for real-world implementation.

Experimental Prospects

To further illustrate a practical realization pathway, Fig. 12 shows a conceptual fabrication flow together with a representative reflection-mode terahertz time-domain spectroscopy (THz-TDS) setup for future experimental validation. As illustrated in Fig. 12(a), the absorber may be realized through a planar fabrication sequence involving resist patterning, metal deposition, and lift-off on the substrate. A future experimental characterization of the fabricated absorber may then be carried out using a commercial THz-TDS system in reflection mode, as illustrated in Fig. 12(b). In such a setup, a femtosecond fiber laser excites a biased photoconductive emitter to generate THz pulses, which are then focused onto the absorber sample using parabolic mirrors. The reflected THz signals are collected and directed to a photoconductive

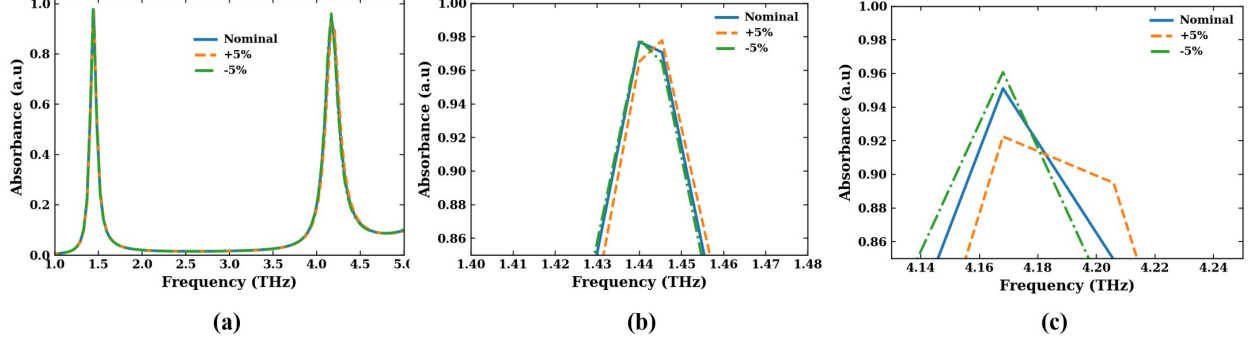


Fig. 11: Fabrication tolerance analysis of the proposed absorber under $\pm 5\%$ variation in the split-length parameter: (a) full absorption spectra, (b) enlarged view around the first resonance, and (c) enlarged view around the second resonance, showing only minor spectral changes and thus confirming good fabrication feasibility.

TABLE VII: Critical comparison of representative THz metamaterial absorber optimization studies and related design approaches with the present work.

Attribute	Wang et al. (2020) [51]	Abdulkarim et al. (2022) [52]	Soni and Misra (2023) [55]	Jain et al. (2024) [56]	Li et al. (2025) [57]	This work
Frequency range	0.1–3.0 THz	0–1 THz	0.1–6 THz	13–16 THz	0.2–1.2 THz	0.5–5 THz
Metastructure type	Dual-band THz metal–dielectric–metal absorber with two identical square metallic patches	Dual-band THz metal–dielectric–metal absorber with fractal resonators on flexible PET substrate	Multiband metal–insulator–metal THz absorber with open polygon-shaped meta-atom	Dual square-ring metal–dielectric–metal THz absorber	Dual-band metal–dielectric–metal absorber with circular SRR nested in a swastika-inspired structure	Compact dual-band THz metal–dielectric–metal absorber with merged circular SRR
ML methodology	N/A	N/A	Forward and inverse ML using LR, KNN, DT, and NN	Forward regression using DT, KNN, RF, ET, Bagging, XGB, and CatBoost	Multi-objective evolutionary optimization	Forward and inverse design with tree based regression ML frameworks
Dataset size	N/A	N/A	~6000 simulated spectra	Sample count not explicitly stated	Optimization population size 15, maximum iterations 15	400 simulated samples containing 4 varied geometric input parameters
Validation strategy	Full-wave simulation, absorption analysis, impedance matching, field distribution, and sensing evaluation	Full-wave simulation, parameter optimization, sensing analysis, and experimental THz-TDS validation	MSE evaluation, epoch–loss monitoring, and full-wave re-simulation of inverse-predicted structures	Random train–test splits and MAE, MSE, and RMSE evaluation	Full-wave simulation	Multiple train–test splits (80:20, 70:30, 60:40) (for validation and overfit check), MSE, RMSE, NRMSE etc. evaluation, and full-wave revalidation of inverse-predicted structures
Key difference with the proposed work	Depends on time-intensive simulation-driven optimization based on manual parametric sweeps	Before experimental validation, required computationally expensive trial-and-error based parameter sweeps	Higher-dimensional full-spectrum learning framework, lower feature-to-sample ratio, high computational cost	Forward-prediction-only framework, no inverse design and no closed-loop geometry revalidation	Search-based optimization study, not data-driven	Integrates structural simplicity with forward prediction and inverse geometric retrieval, low computational cost, high feature-to-sample ratio, and full-wave revalidation for practical spectrum-to-structure design

detector to record the time-domain waveform, which can subsequently be transformed into the frequency domain using fast Fourier transform (FFT). To obtain reflectance, the sample response may be normalized to a reference measurement taken from a standard gold mirror. Such measurements are commonly performed in dry air to reduce undesired terahertz absorption by water vapor [55], [81].

XI. CONCLUSION

In this work, a novel dual-band THz metamaterial absorber based on merged circular split-ring resonators was designed, simulated, and analyzed. The structure exhibited very strong absorption peaks near 1.44 THz and 4.24 THz. Electromagnetic properties, including effective permittivity, permeability, refractive index, impedance, and field distributions, confirmed the resonant behavior and absorption mechanism of the unit

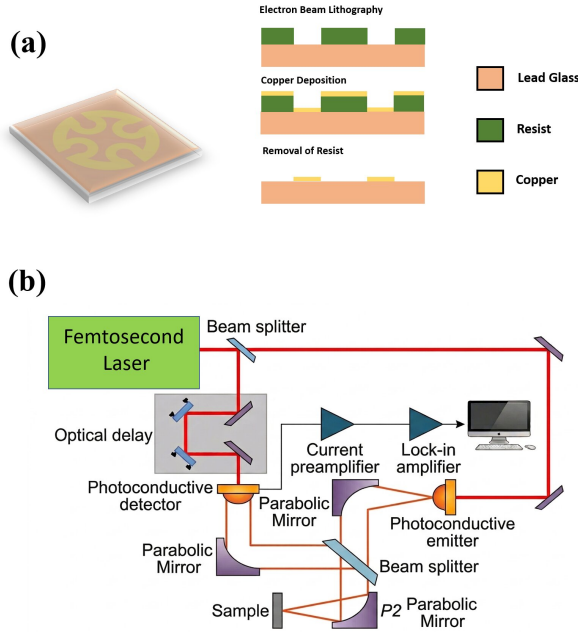


Fig. 12: Practical realization pathway of the proposed dual-band THz metamaterial absorber. (a) Conceptual planar fabrication flow of the absorber, illustrating resist patterning, copper deposition, and lift-off on the substrate (similar process applicable for bottom copper wire). (b) Representative reflection-mode terahertz time-domain spectroscopy (THz-TDS) setup for experimental characterization, including the femtosecond laser, beam splitters, optical delay, photoconductive emitter/detector, parabolic mirrors, and sample position.

cell. A parametric study was performed by varying key geometric parameters to generate a dataset of 373 simulations selected from 400 full-wave runs, enabling machine-learning-based forward and inverse design. Regression models accurately predicted spectral responses from geometry (forward mapping) and retrieved geometric configurations from desired resonance frequencies and absorption amplitudes (inverse mapping). To ensure physical reliability beyond statistical performance, a physics-informed confirmation step was carried out by re-simulating multiple inverse-predicted designs in a electromagnetic full-wave solver and comparing the extracted peak frequencies and absorption amplitudes with the intended target frequencies, yielding low percentage errors. This validation demonstrates the tunability of the proposed absorber, as the inverse design framework enables direct spectrum-to-structure synthesis for user-specified dual-band requirements. Overall, the proposed approach provides a robust and efficient route for rapid prototyping and optimization of THz absorbers while reducing dependence on computationally expensive it-

erative simulations.

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AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

SM conceptualized the original idea, performed all electromagnetic simulations, and drafted the initial manuscript. SS and YB supervised the project, provided direction on refining the concept and further developing the physics-informed design section, and critically reviewed and edited the manuscript for technical accuracy. All authors (SM, SS, and YB) contributed equally to the final manuscript.

DATA AVAILABILITY

The datasets generated during and/or analyzed during the current study are made publicly available. Click here.

DECLARATIONS

The authors declare no competing interests

COMPETING INTERESTS

The authors declare no competing interests.