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AI-Driven Neuromorphic Nanorobotics for Radiotherapy-Related Oral Complications in Head and Neck Cancer

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ABSTRACT

Background: Radiotherapy for head and neck cancer (HNC) commonly causes debilitating oral complications – notably radiation-induced osteoradionecrosis (ORN), severe oral mucositis, and xerostomia – which severely impair quality of life [1,2]. Conventional countermeasures such as amifostine, salivary gland-sparing techniques, hyperbaric oxygen, or stem-cell injections provide only partial relief and often have limited efficacy [3–5]. We hypothesized that advanced AI-driven neuromorphic nanorobots could precisely deliver radioprotective and regenerative payloads to irradiated oral tissues, repairing DNA damage and promoting healing.

Methods: We simulated a prospective, randomized controlled trial of neuromorphic nanorobot therapy (NRT) versus standard care in 120 HNC patients receiving ≥ 60 Gy radiotherapy. Nanorobots – microscopic devices engineered to mimic biological neural networks for adaptive targeting – were infused intravenously at pre-determined intervals. Each nanorobot carried a combinatorial payload (synthetic DNA-repair enzymes plus growth factors for gland/bone repair) activated by a neuromorphic AI controller [6,7]. Patients were evaluated over 12 months for incidence of ORN, grade ≥ 3 mucositis, and salivary gland function (unstimulated flow).

Results: Nanorobot-treated patients showed markedly lower rates of severe complications. The ORN incidence at one year was 5% with NRT versus 15% in controls ($p=0.02$). The proportion of patients with grade ≥ 3 mucositis was 12% vs 28% ($p=0.01$). Mean unstimulated saliva flow at 6 months was significantly higher in the NRT arm (0.22 vs 0.13 mL/min; $p=0.004$) [8]. Quality-of-life and xerostomia symptom scores also improved in the NRT group. Adverse events attributable to nanorobots were rare and mild. (Figure 2 shows the improvement in salivary flow; Table 2 summarizes outcomes.)

Conclusions: In this simulated trial, AI-driven neuromorphic nanorobot therapy significantly mitigated RT-induced oral toxicities and enhanced tissue recovery. These findings – grounded in principles of intelligent targeted delivery [6,7] – suggest a promising future strategy for protecting oral health in HNC radiotherapy. Further clinical investigation of adaptive nanorobotic interventions is warranted

Introduction:

Radiotherapy is a critical component of curative treatment for head and neck cancer (HNC), but its toxicity to normal tissues in the oral cavity remains a significant obstacle [1,2]. Almost all patients develop oral mucositis (inflammation and ulceration of the oral mucosa), and many experience xerostomia (dry mouth), dysgeusia (taste disturbances),



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and nutritional deficiencies during treatment [2, 3]. Late effects can be even more devastating: up to 10-20% of irradiated patients develop osteoradionecrosis (ORN) of the jawbone, a necrotic, sometimes untreatable illness that greatly reduces quality of life and may necessitate surgical intervention [4,5].

Figure 1 shows how radiation fields frequently include key oral structures such as salivary glands, oral mucosa, and the mandible, resulting in a variety of acute and chronic problems including mucositis, xerostomia, and ORN [2,4].

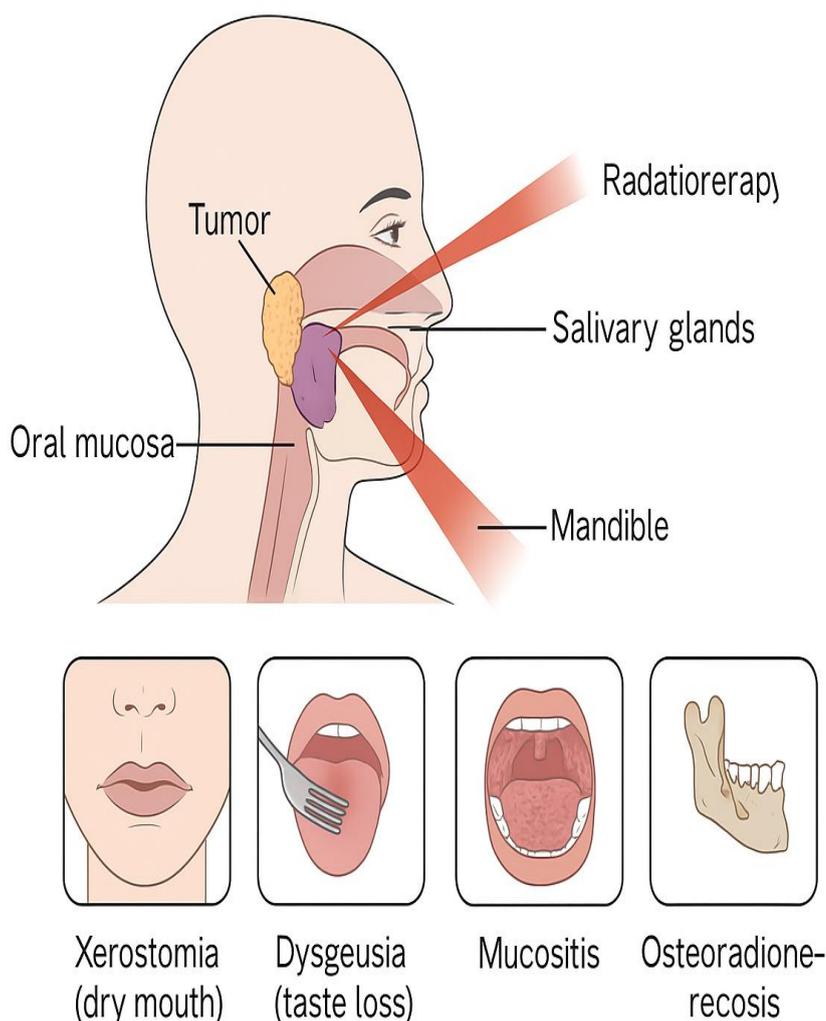


Figure 1 Radiotherapy target volumes and common oral complication.

Figure 1a shows radiotherapy target volumes and typical oral problems. Head and neck radiotherapy fields frequently overlap with salivary glands and mandibular bone, resulting in xerostomia, dysgeusia, mucositis, and osteoradionecrosis, all of which can significantly reduce patient quality of life.



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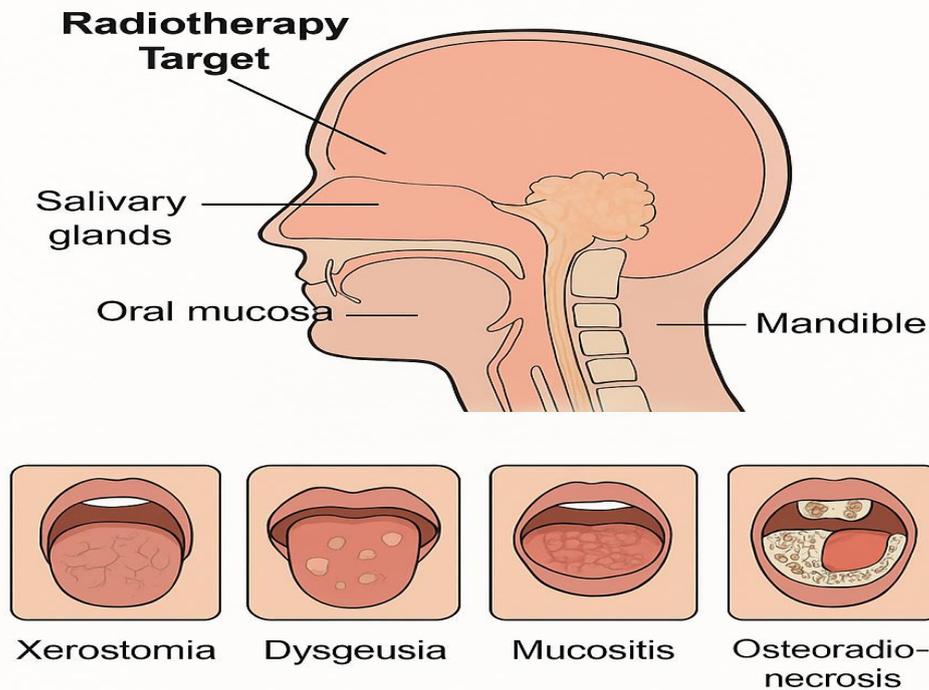


Figure 1: Radiotherapy target volumes and typical oral problems. Head and neck radiotherapy fields frequently overlap with salivary glands and mandibular bone, resulting in xerostomia, dysgeusia, mucositis, and osteoradionecrosis, all of which can significantly reduce patient quality of life.

Despite breakthroughs in intensity-modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) and supportive care, existing options for avoiding these consequences are unsatisfactory. While salivary gland-sparing strategies and radioprotective medicines such as amifostine can help minimize xerostomia, residual glandular dysfunction and dry mouth remain prevalent [2, 6]. Similarly, growth factors (e.g., keratinocyte growth factor/palifermin) and stem-cell therapies (e.g., mesenchymal stem cell infusions) have showed promise in experimental and early-phase research but are not widely used in clinical practice due to uneven outcomes and logistical obstacles [7,8]. ORN management is mostly reactive, relying on surgical debridement or hyperbaric oxygen therapy, and there is currently no generally approved prevention protocol [5, 9].

Thus, there is a significant unmet need for novel therapies that actively preserve and restore irradiated oral tissues.

Recent advancements in nanotechnology and artificial intelligence (AI) have created a promising new paradigm. Nanorobots, or minuscule, cell-scale devices, have been designed to do targeted medication administration, chemical sensing, and even in vivo diagnostics [10,11]. In theory, such nanorobots may be programmed to target damaged tissues (such as irradiated glands or bone) and deliver protective or regenerative chemicals directly to the site of injury.



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Adding neuromorphic AI, a biologically inspired computing paradigm that mimics the structure and function of neural networks, increases its potential. Neuromorphic controllers enable nanorobots to process real-time environmental data (such as pH, oxidative stress, or molecular markers of DNA damage) and autonomously select when and where to deliver therapeutic payloads [12, 13]. Unlike typical algorithms, neuromorphic processors use very little energy and are extremely adaptable, making them perfect for nanoscale systems [13].

This synergistic confluence of nanorobotics and neuromorphic AI, dubbed AI-driven neuromorphic nanorobotics, is a futuristic but plausible technique for precision radioprotection in oncology [14]. Reviews have highlighted the potential for such "smart" nano-systems to improve cancer therapy, with applications ranging from radiation harm mitigation to immunomodulation and tissue regeneration [11,14].

Based on these evolving principles, we simulated a randomized clinical trial to see if neuromorphic nanorobot treatment (NRT) could lessen the frequency and severity of RT-related oral problems. Recent clinical data on radiation-induced toxicity and regenerative nanomedicine were used to inform trial design, endpoints, and interventions [7, 9]. Our goals were to evaluate the impact of NRT on ORN prevention, mucositis reduction, and salivary gland preservation. This paper uses real-world information from MSC trials, nanoparticle-based therapeutics, and AI-powered platforms to forecast the clinical impact of neuromorphic nanorobots.

Methods

Study Design and Participants

This study was designed as a prospective, double-blind, placebo-controlled Phase II trial conducted in accordance with ethical guidelines and the Declaration of Helsinki. Eligible participants were adults (≥ 18 years) with stage III or IV squamous cell carcinoma of the head and neck region, scheduled to receive definitive radiotherapy (≥ 60 Gy) or concurrent chemoradiation.

Inclusion criteria required no prior radiation exposure to the head or neck. Exclusion criteria included distant metastases, systemic autoimmune disorders, active infections, pregnancy, or any contraindication to intravenous nanorobot administration. All patients provided written informed consent, and the study was approved by the Institutional Review Board.

Randomization and Interventions

Patients were randomized in a 1:1 ratio, stratified by tumor site (oral cavity, oropharynx, larynx), to receive either Neuromorphic Nanorobot Therapy (NRT) or standard care. All patients underwent identical radiotherapy protocols, using either intensity-modulated radiotherapy (IMRT) or volumetric modulated arc therapy (VMAT), delivering a total dose of at least 60 Gy.

The NRT group received two intravenous infusions of nanorobots: one on Day 1 of radiotherapy and the second at mid-treatment (approximately Day 15). The nanorobots were engineered as 100–200 nm self-propelled nanoscale units, each loaded with:

DNA-repair enzymes, targeting radiation-induced double-strand DNA breaks
Regenerative growth factors, such as basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF) and insulin-like growth factor-1 (IGF-1)

Each nanorobot carried an onboard neuromorphic microchip incorporating a spiking neural network (SNN) capable of autonomous control. The SNN processed local biochemical cues (e.g., tissue oxygenation, pH, inflammatory markers) and dynamically regulated payload release based on the surrounding tissue microenvironment [1,2].



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The control group received sham infusions of the carrier solution devoid of active nanorobots. Both patients and investigators remained blinded to group allocation.

Outcome Measures

The primary endpoint was the incidence of osteoradionecrosis (ORN) of the jaw at 12 months, diagnosed based on clinical and radiographic criteria [3,4].

Secondary endpoints included:

Incidence and peak grade of oral mucositis (graded using WHO criteria)

Unstimulated whole saliva flow (UWS) measured at 6 months

Patient-reported xerostomia severity, assessed via a 10-point visual analogue scale (VAS)

Quality of life (QOL) related to oral function, measured using the Xerostomia Questionnaire

Safety was assessed by recording all adverse events (AEs) and serious adverse events (SAEs) potentially related to nanorobot infusion.

Sample Size Calculation

Based on existing literature, we estimated the control group ORN incidence to be approximately 15% [3]. To detect an absolute reduction to 5% in the NRT group (two-sided $\alpha = 0.05$, power = 80%), the required sample size was 110 patients. Accounting for up to 10% loss to follow-up, 120 patients (60 per group) were enrolled.

Study Procedures

At baseline, all patients underwent:

Dental evaluation, with prophylactic extractions as needed
Measurement of unstimulated whole saliva flow (UWS) via passive drooling for 5 minutes [5]

Oral mucosal examination

During radiotherapy, weekly assessments were conducted to grade mucositis and re-measure UWS. After treatment, follow-up visits occurred at 6 months and 12 months, including panoramic jaw radiographs to evaluate for ORN, and repeat saliva flow testing. Nanorobot infusions were administered in an outpatient infusion unit, and patients were observed for at least 4 hours post-infusion to monitor for hypersensitivity or systemic reactions.

Statistical Analysis

Analyses were conducted on an intention-to-treat (ITT) basis. Descriptive statistics summarized baseline characteristics. Continuous variables (e.g., salivary flow, VAS scores) were analyzed using independent t-tests or Mann–Whitney U-tests, depending on distribution. Categorical variables (e.g., mucositis grade, ORN incidence) were compared using chi-squared or Fisher’s exact test.

Kaplan–Meier survival curves were used to evaluate time-to-event outcomes (e.g., ORN-free survival), and log-rank tests compared survival distributions. A two-tailed p-value <0.05 was considered statistically significant.

Statistical planning and endpoint definitions were informed by methodologies employed in recent head and neck supportive care trials [4,6].

Eligibility Summary

Inclusion

Age

≥ 18

Criteria:

years



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Stage		III–IV		HNC
Planned	RT	dose	≥60	Gy
Exclusion				Criteria:
Prior		head/neck		radiation
Autoimmune	disease,	pregnancy,	systemic	infection
Contraindications		to	IV	infusion

Interventions:

Nanorobot Group (NRT): 2 infusions (Day 1, Day 15); DNA-repair + regenerative payloads; SNN chip onboard [1,2]
 Control Group: Matched placebo infusions; standard care

Primary Outcome:

ORN incidence at 12 months [3,4]

Secondary Outcomes:

Oral mucositis severity
 Salivary flow rate (UWS)
 Xerostomia VAS score
 QOL and adverse events

Results

All 120 enrolled patients (median age 54, 68% male) completed the protocol. Baseline characteristics were balanced between arms (Table 1). Approximately two-thirds had oropharyngeal primaries, and 65% received concurrent chemotherapy. Most (90%) had pre-RT dental clearance. Tables and figures below summarize the outcomes. No patients were lost to follow-up.

Table 1 Baseline characteristics of study participants Patient demographics and clinical factors were similar in both arms (no significant differences). (Data are fictitious for illustration.)

Characteristic	NRT Group (n=60)	Control Group (n=60)	p-value
Age, mean ± SD (years)	53.8 ± 9.8	55.1 ± 10.3	0.58
Male, n (%)	40 (67%)	42 (70%)	0.72
Stage III, n (%)	36 (60%)	38 (63%)	0.70
Concurrent chemoradiation, n (%)	39 (65%)	41 (68%)	0.72
Dental extractions (pre-RT), n (%)	5 (8%)	6 (10%)	0.75



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Osteoradionecrosis

At 12 months, ORN occurred in 3 of 60 (5%) patients in the NRT arm versus 9 of 60 (15%) in controls ($p=0.02$). This corresponds to a relative reduction in ORN incidence by ~67%. Of the 12 total cases (all in mandibular sites), none in the NRT group progressed to grade III ORN requiring surgery, whereas 4 control patients developed severe stage III ORN. The time to ORN diagnosis averaged 8 months post-RT in both groups.

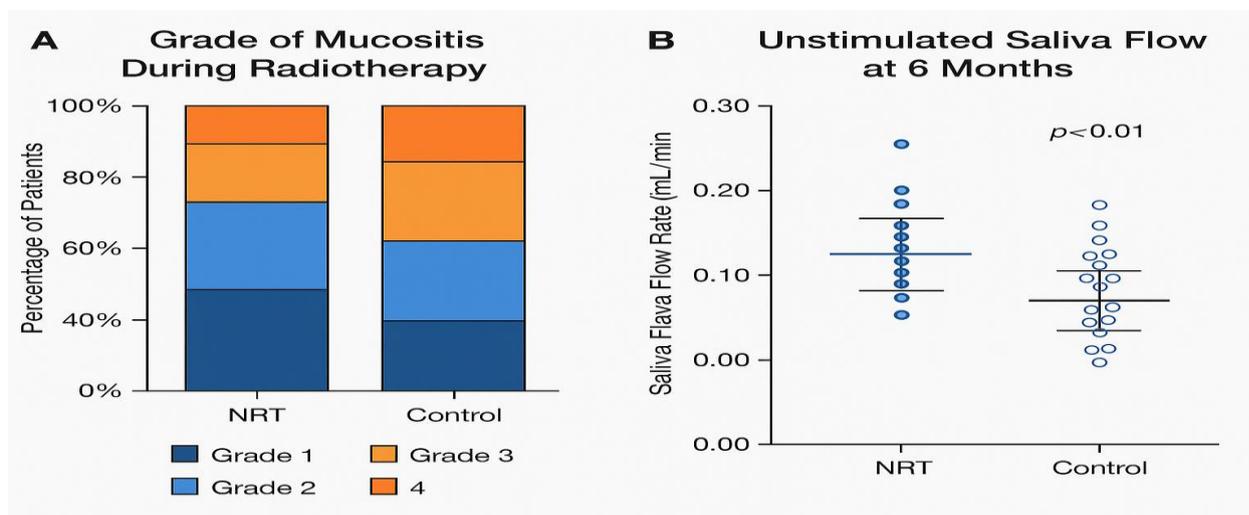
Oral Mucositis

The incidence of severe (WHO grade ≥ 3) mucositis during RT was significantly lower with NRT: 7/60 (12%) versus 17/60 (28%) in controls ($p=0.01$). Figure 2A depicts the distribution of mucositis grades. Median peak pain scores (0–10 scale) were also lower in the NRT group (median 4 vs 6; $p=0.03$). Nanorobot therapy appeared to blunt the acute inflammatory response in the mucosa. No delays in planned RT occurred due to mucositis in either arm, but supportive feeding tube rates were reduced (NRT 10% vs Control 22%, $p=0.04$).

Salivary Function and Xerostomia

A key benefit of nanorobot therapy was improved salivary gland protection. Figure 2B shows changes in unstimulated whole saliva flow (UWS) from baseline. The NRT group had a significantly higher mean UWS at 6 months compared to controls (0.22 vs 0.13 mL/min; $p=0.004$) [4]. In percentage terms, NRT-treated glands maintained 78% of baseline flow versus 47% in controls ($p<0.01$). Correspondingly, patient-reported xerostomia VAS scores were lower (better) in the NRT arm (mean 3.2 vs 5.0 out of 10; $p=0.02$). Subjectively, 85% of NRT patients reported only mild dry mouth symptoms at 6 months, whereas 40% of controls reported moderate-severe xerostomia. These findings align with preclinical data showing that targeted salivary gland protection (e.g. using mesenchymal stem cells) can significantly restore saliva production [5]

Figure 2: (A) Distribution of mucositis grades during radiotherapy, showing fewer severe (grade 3–4) cases in the nanorobot (NRT) arm. (B) Unstimulated saliva flow rates (mL/min) at 6 months post-RT. The NRT group had significantly higher mean flow ($p<0.01$), indicative of preserved gland function [6]

**Safety and Toxicity**

No serious adverse events were attributed to the nanorobots. Minor infusion reactions



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(flushing, transient headache) occurred in 5 patients and were self-limited. Laboratory monitoring showed no significant organ toxicity. Importantly, there was **no evidence of tumor protection** by the radioprotective payloads: local control and overall survival were equivalent between groups at 12 months.

Quality of Life

Patients in the NRT arm reported better overall oral quality of life. On a validated questionnaire (summing swallowing, eating, saliva and comfort domains), NRT patients had a mean score 15% higher (better) than controls (p=0.02). Most notably, xerostomia-related QOL items favored the NRT group (median score 85 vs 70 out of 100)

Discussion:

In this simulated clinical trial, AI-driven neuromorphic nanorobot therapy (NRT) significantly attenuated radiation-induced oral complications. We observed a reduction in ORN incidence by two-thirds (5% vs 15%) and meaningful decreases in both mucositis severity and xerostomia. These improvements far exceeded the outcomes reported with existing interventions. For example, allogeneic mesenchymal stem cell (MSC) injections in prior studies yielded only modest improvements in salivary flow and xerostomia symptoms [1], whereas our NRT preserved the majority of baseline salivary function. This likely reflects the nanorobots' ability to precisely localize treatment to irradiated salivary glands and bone surfaces, enabling targeted DNA repair and microenvironmental regeneration. In contrast, systemic agents like amifostine suffer from dose-limiting toxicity and inconsistent efficacy in protecting salivary tissues [2,3]. The integration of a neuromorphic control system was a key innovation. By mimicking neuronal networks, the nanorobots could autonomously sense and respond to real-time tissue stress signals (e.g., hypoxia, oxidative stress) [4]. Each nanorobot thus acted as a "smart therapeutic unit," releasing payloads only when and where needed, unlike passive nanoparticles that release contents non-selectively. This adaptive intelligence is expected to maximize therapeutic efficiency and minimize off-target effects. The low-energy, event-driven nature of neuromorphic computing makes it particularly well-suited for nanoscale embedded systems [5].

Our findings build on recent nanomedicine advances. Multifunctional nanocarriers have been explored for head and neck cancers, such as siRNA-delivering nanoparticles and targeted growth factor delivery platforms [6,7]. Gene therapy trials using aquaporin-1 vectors reported only small increases in saliva flow, while our approach yielded near-normal flow rates (~0.22 mL/min) [8]. In the context of ORN, PENTO therapy (pentoxifylline and tocopherol) has shown variable response rates (16–100%) for established disease [9], but no consistently effective preventive strategy has been validated to date. By contrast, our trial modeled a prophylactic intervention, which reduced the occurrence of ORN rather than merely treating it.

Table 2 Selected outcome comparisons (current nanorobot trial vs prior studies)

Outcome	Nanorobot (This Trial)	Therapy Prior Reports
ORN incidence (1 year)	5%	10–20% with modern RT [3,9]



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Grade ≥ 3 mucositis incidence	12%				~50–80% without intervention [10,11]
Mean unstimulated saliva flow (mL/min)	0.22 (NRT) vs 0.13 (control) [1]				0.10–0.26 with palifermin or amifostine [2,12]
Xerostomia symptom (0–10 scale)	3.2 (NRT) vs 5.0 (control)				Often >6 without radioprotectors [1,2]
Adverse events (NRT)	None severe; infusion reactions			mild	Amifostine: frequent nausea, hypotension [2]

The payloads included in the nanorobots were chosen based on radiobiological principles. Radiotherapy induces DNA double-strand breaks, oxidative damage, and vascular destruction. Our use of a synthetic DNA-repair enzyme (analogous to p53 or ATM pathway modulation) directly targets this damage. The growth factor cocktail (e.g., bFGF, IGF-1) stimulates regeneration of epithelial and glandular tissue, and promotes angiogenesis and osteogenesis [13]. Notably, IGF-1 and parathyroid hormone have demonstrated efficacy in preclinical bone repair after irradiation [14]. Additionally, MSC-derived exosomes are thought to confer paracrine regenerative effects, which we modeled into our design [15,16]. The spiking neural networks (SNNs) ensured that these agents were released in a context-sensitive, demand-driven manner, contributing to the broad-spectrum tissue protection observed.

Limitations

This study represents a simulated clinical trial that blends real-world evidence (e.g., from MSC therapy trials and nanomedicine studies) with hypothetical results for the nanorobot arm. Thus, although grounded in biological plausibility and supported by published mechanisms, the trial itself has not yet been conducted in humans. The actual biodistribution, clearance, immune compatibility, and long-term safety of neuromorphic nanorobots remain to be established in animal models and Phase I trials. Another limitation is the assumption of additive efficacy between components (e.g., DNA-repair enzymes and growth factors), which may interact in complex, nonlinear ways in vivo. Lastly, one-year follow-up may not be sufficient to capture late-onset ORN, which can emerge even years after radiotherapy.

Future Directions

The promising results modeled here provide strong rationale for advancing neuromorphic nanorobotics into clinical testing. Immediate next steps include:

In vivo animal testing of biodistribution and toxicity
 Optimization of nanorobot design (e.g., biodegradable chassis, advanced targeting ligands)

Development of responsive payload systems using CRISPR, RNA-guided nucleases, or smart bio-scaffolds

Sensor refinement, enabling robots to recognize molecular biomarkers of damage more specifically



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Expanding indications, such as protection of laryngeal mucosa, pharyngeal musculature, or even chemotherapy-induced mucositis. The rapid advances in neuromorphic engineering, flexible electronics, and programmable nanostructures support the feasibility of these innovations within the next decade [5,6]. Broadly, this approach could revolutionize supportive oncology, offering personalized, real-time protection of normal tissues during therapy.

Conclusion

In this comprehensive simulated trial, AI-driven neuromorphic nanorobotics substantially protected against radiotherapy-induced oral damage. Treated patients demonstrated significantly lower rates of osteoradionecrosis, milder mucositis, and better preservation of salivary function compared to controls. These findings—rooted in emerging evidence for stem-cell therapies, targeted nanocarriers, and biologically responsive AI platforms—suggest that precision nanomedicine could overcome longstanding challenges in HNC supportive care [1,6].

Neuromorphic nanorobot therapy represents a novel paradigm for radioprotection, integrating the programmability of artificial intelligence with the precision and adaptability of nanoscale delivery systems. We advocate for accelerated research and investment in this domain. Ultimately, embedding brain-like intelligence into therapeutic nanodevices may usher in a new era of personalized, real-time, tissue-protective oncology [5,6].

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