

https://doi.org/10.1093/jnci/djad046 Advance Access Publication Date: 11 April 2023

Article

Molecular profiling and treatment pattern differences between intrahepatic and extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma

Kristen Spencer , DO, MPH, Leontios Pappas, MD, PhD, Islam Baiev, BS, Jordan Maurer, BS, MS, Andrea Grace Bocobo, BS, Karen Zhang, BS, Apurva Jain, BS, Anaemy Danner De Armas, MPH, Stephanie Reyes, MD, Tri Minh Le, MD, Osama E. Rahma, MD, Jennifer Stanton, BS, Thomas T. DeLeon, MD, Marc Roth, MD, Mary Linton B. Peters, MD, Andrew X. Zhu, MD, PhD, Chen K. Lennerz , MD, PhD, Andrew X. Zhu, MD, PhD, Lennifer Stanton, BS, Thomas T. DeLeon, MD, PhD, Share, MS, Share

Abstract

Background: Treatment patterns for intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) and extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ECC) differ, but limited studies exist comparing them. This study examines differences in molecular profiling rates and treatment patterns in these populations, focusing on use of adjuvant, liver-directed, targeted, and investigational therapies.

Methods: This multicenter collaboration included patients with ICC or ECC treated at 1 of 8 participating institutions. Retrospective data were collected on risk factors, pathology, treatments, and survival. Comparative statistical tests were 2-sided.

Results: Among 1039 patients screened, 847 patients met eligibility (ICC = 611, ECC = 236). Patients with ECC were more likely than those with ICC to present with early stage disease (53.8% vs 28.0%), undergo surgical resection (55.1% vs 29.8%), and receive adjuvant chemoradiation (36.5% vs 4.2%) (all P < .00001). However, they were less likely to undergo molecular profiling (50.3% vs 64.3%) or receive liver-directed therapy (17.9% vs 35.7%), targeted therapy (4.7% vs 18.9%), and clinical trial therapy (10.6% vs 24.8%) (all P < .001). In patients with recurrent ECC after surgery, the molecular profiling rate was 64.5%. Patients with advanced ECC had a shorter median overall survival than those with advanced ICC (11.8 vs 15.1 months; P < .001).

Conclusions: Patients with advanced ECC have low rates of molecular profiling, possibly in part because of insufficient tissue. They also have low rates of targeted therapy use and clinical trial enrollment. While these rates are higher in advanced ICC, the prognosis for both subtypes of cholangiocarcinoma remains poor, and a pressing need exists for new effective targeted therapies and broader access to clinical trials.

Cholangiocarcinoma (CCA) is a rare, aggressive cancer of the bile ducts with a poor prognosis. It is anatomically subclassified into intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) and extrahepatic

cholangiocarcinoma (ECC). ECC is further subclassified into perihilar CCA, also known as Klatskin tumors, and distal CCA (1,2). This classification has varied over time, with perihilar tumors

¹Department of Medicine, New York University Langone Health Perlmutter Cancer Center, New York University School of Medicine, New York, NY, USA

²Department of Medicine, Mass General Cancer Center, Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA

³Helen Diller Family Comprehensive Cancer Center, University of California San Francisco, San Francisco, CA, USA

⁴Division of Cancer Medicine, Department of Gastrointestinal Medical Oncology, The University of Texas MD Anderson Cancer Center, Houston, TX, USA

⁵Duke University School of Medicine, Durham, NC, USA

⁶Department of Medicine, University of Virginia Comprehensive Cancer Center, Charlottesville, VA, USA

 $^{^7}$ Department of Medical Oncology, Dana-Farber Cancer Institute, Boston, MA, USA

⁸Division of Hematology/Oncology, Mayo Clinic, Scottsdale, AZ, USA

⁹Department of Medical Oncology, St. Luke's Cancer Institute, Kansas City, MO, USA

¹⁰Department of Medicine, Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, Boston, MA, USA

¹¹Jiahui International Cancer Center, Jiahui Health, Shanghai, China

¹² Center for Integrated Diagnostics, Department of Pathology, Massachusetts General Hospital/Harvard Medical School, Boston, MA, USA

¹³Yale University, New Haven, CT, USA

 $^{^{14}\}mbox{Department}$ of Medicine, HCA Florida South Tampa Hospital, Tampa, FL, USA

¹⁵Division of Gastroenterology and Hepatology, Mayo Clinic, Rochester, MN, USA

¹⁶Cholangiocarcinoma Foundation, Herriman, UT, USA

¹⁷Department of Medicine, Vanderbilt-Ingram Cancer Center, Nashville, TN, USA

¹⁸Division of Hematology/Oncology, Mayo Clinic, Jacksonville, FL, USA

 $^{^{19}}$ University of Arizona Cancer Center, University of Arizona, Tucson, AZ, USA

^{*}Correspondence to: Lipika Goyal, MD, MPhil, Stanford Cancer Center, 875 Blake Wilbur Dr, Palo Alto, CA 94305, USA (e-mail: lgoyal@stanford.edu).

being classified as ICC until the International Classification of Diseases (ICD) coding system (ICD-O-3) was adopted in 2001 (3,4). The reclassification of perihilar tumors as ECC poses challenges in characterizing epidemiologic trends and patterns of treatment utilization in the patients with ICC vs ECC.

ICC and ECC have been suspected to be distinct entities as early as Klatskin's description of the hilar tumor in 1965 (5). This theory has been supported by reports of histologic heterogeneity, including disparate cells of origin (6,7). The recent focus on the molecular characterization of CCA has suggested even more heterogeneity in the pathogenesis of ICC and ECC and has provided insights into therapeutic targets unique to each subtype that may result in more tailored approaches to this disease.

Prior reports comparing the anatomic subtypes of CCA have not yet comprehensively examined differences in treatment utilization patterns in large studies (1,2,6-32). Surgical resection is the cornerstone of management for ICC and ECC, and although liver transplant is uncommonly used in CCA, it is considered more commonly in ECC than ICC. However, only a minority of patients are eligible for these approaches as most patients with CCA present with advanced stage disease. Liver-directed therapy (LDT) is sometimes used for locally advanced unresectable ICC, but it is less commonly used in ECC and usually palliatively in this setting (33-42). Most importantly, details regarding the patterns of use and efficacy of systemic therapies, particularly targeted and investigational therapies, in different subtypes of CCA are limited (43-54).

Single institution retrospective reports often contain comprehensive data but are restricted by small numbers of patients and capture practice patterns individual to the institution. Registry studies, such as those involving the Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results Program or National Cancer Database databases, involve large sample sizes but are often constrained by incomplete treatment data and variations in data reporting. We sought to overcome these limitations through a multi-institutional collaboration between high-volume CCA programs and through granular data collection using uniform definitions for data points. We placed a particular focus on patterns of use of systemic therapy in advanced ICC vs ECC, particularly targeted therapy and clinical trial enrollment.

Methods

Data collection

Patients were selected from institutional tumor registries using the ICD codes for CCA (ICD-9-155.1, 156.9, and 156.1 or ICD-10 C22.1, 24.9, 24.8, and 24.0) or from institutional databases of patients with CCA. Eligible patients were aged 18 years or older with a confirmed histologic diagnosis of CCA after June 2, 2009. This date was chosen because the ABC-02 data for gemcitabine and cisplatin were publicly presented and became the standard first-line treatment of advanced CCA on this date. Data were collected on demographics, risk factors, treatments, pathology, tumor genotyping, and survival outcomes through retrospective review of the electronic medical record. Self-reported demographics included age, gender, race (White, Black, Asian, or Other defined as not one of the above or not specific), and ethnicity. Medical oncologists with an expertise in hepatobiliary tumors performed quality control checks on the database. Eight institutions participated in this study: Massachusetts General Cancer Center, University of California San Francisco, MD Anderson Cancer Center, Mayo Clinic, Vanderbilt University, University of Virginia, Beth Israel Deaconess Medical Center, and St. Vincent's

Medical Center. The data were collected in accordance with individual institutional review board-approved protocols and in accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki.

Molecular profiling

Tumor tissue underwent molecular profiling as a routine part of clinical care using FoundationOne (55) or institutional platforms (Supplementary Table 1, available online).

Statistical analysis

A set of prespecified definitions were used across institutions for uniform data collection as per Supplementary Table 2 (available online). Data were extracted by medical trainees or trained research assistants, and attending medical oncologists adjudicated ambiguous cases. Fisher exact, χ^2 , and Wilcoxon rank sum tests were used for comparisons of independent variables. Statistical analyses were performed using Graph Pad Prism version 9 and Medcalc version 19.7, and multivariate analyses were performed with STATA17. A 2-sided test with a P value less than .05 was considered statistically significant. Recurrence-free survival (RFS), progression-free survival (PFS), and overall survival (OS) were calculated by Kaplan-Meier analysis, and log-rank sum tests were used to calculate P values between the cohorts. Patients who did not meet a particular endpoint at the time of last follow-up were censored for that endpoint.

Results

Baseline characteristics and clinical presentation

Among the 1039 patients screened, 847 were eligible, including 611 (72.1%) patients with ICC and 236 (27.9%) with ECC (Table 1). The median age for patients with ICC vs ECC was similar (63.3 vs 65.4 years, respectively; P = .23). Patients with ICC were more likely to be female (51.1% vs 41.9%; P = .02), and those with ECC were more likely to be male (58.1% vs 48.9%; P = .02). Patients with ICC more commonly had a history of chronic hepatitis B infection than patients with ECC (6.3% vs 0.8%; P = .02). No difference was seen in the frequency of other risk factors between the 2 groups.

Stage at diagnosis and patterns of metastasis were also statistically significantly different between the ICC and ECC cohorts. Patients with ECC were more likely to present with early stage disease amenable to surgery or transplant (53.8% vs 28.0%; P < .00001), and those with ICC were more likely to present with metastatic disease (49.3% vs 23.3%; P < .00001). Patterns of metastasis also differed between the patients. ICC, when compared with ECC, was more likely to metastasize to the liver (92.3% vs 58.5%; P < .00001), lung (26.6% vs 9.8%; P = .02), and lymph nodes (51.8% vs 26.8%; P = .003) and less likely to metastasize to the peritoneum (31.7% vs 12.2%; P = .001). Multifocal liver involvement of ICC vs liver metastasis could not be distinguished.

Genomics

Genomic profiling data were available for 64.3% (n = 349/543) of patients with advanced ICC and 50.3% (n = 92/183) of patients with advanced ECC (P < .001) (Figure 1). Molecular alterations more commonly seen in ICC included FGFR2 fusions (21.0% vs 0%; P < .00001), any FGFR alteration (20.6% vs 6.0%; P = .002), and IDH1 mutations (20.3% vs 0%; P < .00001). Genomic alterations that were statistically significantly more likely to occur in patients with ECC included mutations in KRAS (37.1% vs 12.1%; P < .00001), TP53 (34.4% vs 20.2%; P = .004), SMAD4 (8.2% vs 2.0%; P = .003), and APC (8.2% vs 1.8%; P = .001) (Table 2).

Table 1. Patient characteristics and presentation in intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma vs extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma

Characteristics Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (n = 611) Extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (n = 236) Age (n = 611) (n = 236) Age 29 (12.3%) 29 (12.3%) > 50 years old 516 (84.5%) 207 (87.7%) Median (range) 63.3 (22.5-92.5) 65.4 (22.0-93.9) Gender 84.20 137 (58.1%) Male 299 (48.9%) 137 (58.1%) Female 312 (51.1%) 99 (41.9%) Ethnicity 115/101 (12.9%) Hispanic or Latino 19/242 (7.9%) 13/101 (12.9%) Non-Hispanic or Latino 19/242 (7.9%) 88/101 (87.1%) Unknown 369 (60.4%) 135 (57.2%) Race Asian 39/493 (7.9%) 11/184 (6.0%) Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%)	.23 .02 .15	
≤ 50 years old 95 (15.5%) 29 (12.3%) > 50 years old 516 (84.5%) 207 (87.7%) Median (range) 63.3 (22.5-92.5) 65.4 (22.0-93.9) Gender *** Wale *** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Male *** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Male *** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Female *** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Ethnicity *** Hispanic or Latino ** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Non-Hispanic or Latino ** Latino <td rowsp<="" th=""><th>.02</th></td>	<th>.02</th>	.02
≤ 50 years old 95 (15.5%) 29 (12.3%) > 50 years old 516 (84.5%) 207 (87.7%) Median (range) 63.3 (22.5-92.5) 65.4 (22.0-93.9) Gender *** Wale *** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Male *** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Male *** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Female *** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Ethnicity *** Hispanic or Latino ** Sequence (2.0-93.9) Non-Hispanic or Latino ** Latino <td rowsp<="" td=""><td>.02</td></td>	<td>.02</td>	.02
> 50 years old 516 (84.5%) 207 (87.7%) Median (range) 63.3 (22.5-92.5) 65.4 (22.0-93.9) Gender	.02	
Median (range) 63.3 (22.5-92.5) 65.4 (22.0-93.9) Gender 312 (51.1%) 137 (58.1%) Female 312 (51.1%) 99 (41.9%) Ethnicity 59.4 (22.0*) 137 (58.1%) Hispanic or Latino 19/242 (7.9%) 13/101 (12.9%) Non-Hispanic or Latino 223/242 (92.1%) 88/101 (87.1%) Unknown 369 (60.4%) 135 (57.2%) Race 48.3 (7.9%) 11/184 (6.0%) Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%)		
Gender Male 299 (48.9%) 137 (58.1%) Female 312 (51.1%) 99 (41.9%) Ethnicity Hispanic or Latino 19/242 (7.9%) 13/101 (12.9%) Non-Hispanic or Latino 223/242 (92.1%) 88/101 (87.1%) Unknown 369 (60.4%) 135 (57.2%) Race Asian 39/493 (7.9%) 11/184 (6.0%) Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis		
Male 299 (48.9%) 137 (58.1%) Female 312 (51.1%) 99 (41.9%) Ethnicity **** **** Hispanic or Latino 19/242 (7.9%) 13/101 (12.9%) Non-Hispanic or Latino 223/242 (92.1%) 88/101 (87.1%) Unknown 369 (60.4%) 135 (57.2%) Race *** *** Asian 39/493 (7.9%) 11/184 (6.0%) Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis ***		
Female 312 (51.1%) 99 (41.9%) Ethnicity 19/242 (7.9%) 13/101 (12.9%) Non-Hispanic or Latino 223/242 (92.1%) 88/101 (87.1%) Unknown 369 (60.4%) 135 (57.2%) Race		
Ethnicity Hispanic or Latino Non-Hispanic or Latino Unknown Asian Black Other Unknown Hispanic Asian Black Other Hispanic Asian Hispanic Asian Higher Hispanic Hispan	.15	
Hispanic or Latino 19/242 (7.9%) 13/101 (12.9%) Non-Hispanic or Latino 223/242 (92.1%) 88/101 (87.1%) Unknown 369 (60.4%) 135 (57.2%) Race Asian 39/493 (7.9%) 11/184 (6.0%) Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis	.15	
Non-Hispanic or Latino 223/242 (92.1%) 88/101 (87.1%) Unknown 369 (60.4%) 135 (57.2%) Race		
Unknown 369 (60.4%) 135 (57.2%) Race 39/493 (7.9%) 11/184 (6.0%) Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis		
Race Asian 39/493 (7.9%) 11/184 (6.0%) Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis		
Asian 39/493 (7.9%) 11/184 (6.0%) Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis		
Black 25/493 (5.1%) 9/184 (4.9%) Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis		
Other 10/493 (2.0%) 2/184 (1.1%) White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis		
White 419/493 (85.0%) 162/184 (88.0%) ECOG PS at Diagnosis		
ECOG PS at Diagnosis	.18	
0 65/175 (37.1%) 21/52 (40.4%)	.89	
1 94/175 (53.7%) 27/52 (51.9%)		
2 16/175 (9.1%) 4/52 (7.7%)		
Risk Factors		
Primary Sclerosing Cholangitis 24/597 (4.0%) 8/236 (3.4%)	.67	
Diabetés 66/402 (16.4%) 35/189 (18.5%)	.53	
Cirrhosis 43/400 (10.8%) 13/189 (6.9%)	.13	
Median BMI, kg/m ² 27.3 (15.4-59.2) 26.8 (17.6-65.8)	NE	
Mean BMI, kg/m ² 28.21 27.64	.28	
$BMI \ge 30, \text{ kg/m}^2$ 159/477 (33.3%) 50/190 (26.3%)	.08	
HBV 17/272 (6.3%) 1/121 (0.8%)	.02	
HCV 29/486 (6.0%) 6/198 (3.0%)	.11	
Presentation		
Resected, resectable, or transplanted 171 (28.0%) 127 (53.8%)	<.00001	
Locally advanced 139 (22.7%) 54 (22.9%)	.97	
Primary metastatic 301 (49.3%) 55 (23.3%)	<.00001	
Metastatic Sites (Patients with Primary		
Metastatic Disease)		
Liver 205/222 (92.3%) 24/41 (58.5%)	<.00001	
Lymph Node 115/222 (51.8%) 11/41 (26.8%)	.003	
Lung 59/222 (26.6%) 4/41 (9.8%)	.02	
Bone 33/222 (14.9%) 2/41 (4.9%)	.08	
Peritoneum 27/222 (12.2%) 13/41 (31.7%)	.001	
Other 12/222 (5.4%) 4/41 (9.8%)	.28	
Bilirubin		
Median (range) 0.6 (0.0-31.9) 1.9 (0.2-35.0)	<.00001	
Bilirubin > 2 mg/dL 61/460 (13.3%) 83/172 (48.3%)	<.00001	
CA19-9, U/mL		
Median (range) 84 (0-364, 190) 179.5 (0-22, 432)	.11	

a Denominators denote number of patients with known status of variable. BMI = body mass index; ECOG PS = Eastern Cooperative Oncology Group Performance Status; HBV = hepatitis B virus; HCV = hepatitis C virus; NE = not evaluated.

We explored whether tissue availability explained the low rate of genomic profiling seen in patients with ECC. Molecular testing in patients with ECC is often complicated by nondiagnostic biopsies and inadequate tissue specimens because of limitations of brushings and fine needle aspirates (5). Thus, we evaluated patients who had tumor recurrence after resection where tissue specimens were expected to be of sufficient quantity and quality. Of the 76 patients with ECC with tumor recurrence after surgical resection, 49 (64.5%) had molecular profiling, similar to the overall profiling rate in patients with ICC. Data on attempted but failed genotyping efforts from patients with advanced ECC were not available.

Treatment patterns

Differences in presentation and genomics also led to notable differences in treatment patterns. Patients with ECC more commonly underwent surgical resection or transplant than those with ICC (55.1% vs 29.8%; P<.00001) (Table 3). Resected ICCs were statistically significantly larger than ECCs (tumor size \geq 5 cm in 58.0% vs 5.3%; P < .00001), but no difference was seen between the groups in rates of margin or node positivity or lymphovascular invasion. Despite this, patients with ECC were statistically significantly more likely to receive some form of adjuvant therapy (58.3% vs 29.7%; P < .00001).

Differences between the ICC and ECC cohorts were also seen in utilization of locoregional therapy and systemic therapy for unresectable and metastatic disease. Patients with advanced ICC more commonly received LDT (35.7% vs 17.9%; P = .00001), particularly radioembolization (22.2% vs 0%; P < .001), though patients with ECC were more likely to receive radiation to the liver (90.3% vs 56.8%; P = .0004) (Table 4). This may reflect the preponderance

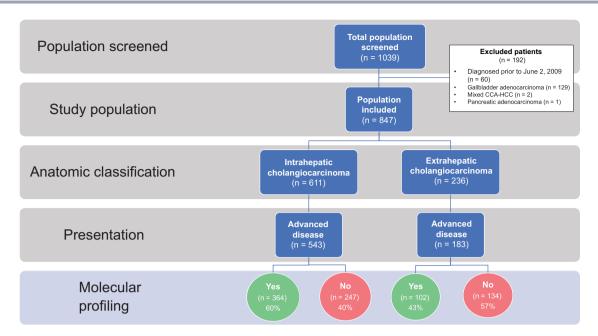


Figure 1. Study consort diagram. Of 1039 patients screened, 847 patients with cholangiocarcinoma (CCA) met eligibility for inclusion in the study, including 611 (72.1%) patients with intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) and 236 (27.9%) with extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ECC). Molecular profiling was performed during routine clinical care in 64.3% of patients with advanced ICC and 50.3% of patients with advanced ECC. CCA-HCC = mixed cholangiocarcinoma-hepatocellular carcinoma.

Table 2. Most common molecular alterations in intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma vs extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma

	Prevalence % (alteratio		
Molecular aberration ^a	Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma	Extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma	P
FGFR2 Fusion	21.0 (48/229)	0 (0/55)	<.00001
Any FGFR alteration	20.6 (64/311)	6.0 (5/83)	.002
IDH1	20.3 (70/344)	0 (0/96)	<.001
CDKN2A	7.2 (25/348)	5.1 (5/99)	.45
HER2 Amplification	6.8 (17/249)	1.4 (1/73)	.07
HER2 Mutation	6.1 (20/329)	2.2 (2/89)	.15
ATM	5.7 (13/221)	6.6 (4/61)	.84
ARID1A	5.0 (11/222)	3.2 (2/63)	.55
PIK3CA	4.9 (17/348)	2.0 (2/99)	.21
cMET	4.6 (15/329)	1.1 (1/88)	.14
MAP2K1 or MAP3K1	3.2 (11/342)	5.3 (5/95)	.35
SMAD4	2.0 (7/342)	8.2 (8/98)	.003
APC	1.8 (6/342)	8.2 (̀8/97)́	.001
TP53	20.2 (69/342)	34.4 (33/96)	.004
KRAS	12.1 (42/346)	37.1 (36/97)	<.00001

Mutations with ≥5% frequency in either ICC or ECC were included for analysis. ICC = intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; ECC = extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; FGFR = fibroblast growth factor receptor; IDH1 = isocitrate dehydrogenase 1; CDKN2A = cyclin dependent kinase inhibitor 2A; HER2 = human epidermal growth factor receptor 2; ATM = ataxia-telangiectasia mutated; ARID1A = AT-rich interactive domain-containing protein 1A; PIK3CA = phosphatidylinositol-4,5-bisphosphate 3-kinase catalytic subunit alpha; cMET = mesenchymal epithelial transition factor; MAPK = mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase; SMAD4 = SMA- and MAD-related protein 4; APC = adenomatous polyposis coli; TP53 = tumor protein 53; KRAS = Kirsten rat sarcoma viral oncogene homolog.

of data for intra-arterial therapies in ICC (34,38), whereas LDT data in ECC are mainly limited to scant reports on external beam radiation therapy and ablation for the management of malignant biliary tract obstruction (33,40,42,56). Similarly, patients with ICC more commonly received 3 or more lines of palliative chemotherapy (24.2% vs 14.7%; P = .03) and triplet first-line chemotherapy (9.0% vs 2.6%; P = .02), whereas patients with ECC were more likely to receive singlet first-line chemotherapy (21.6% vs 10.6%; P = .002). Patients with ECC were also more likely to receive 5-fluorouracil-based first-line palliative chemotherapy (24.1% vs

9.3%; P = .00003), whereas patients with ICC were more likely to receive gemcitabine-based first-line therapy (86.1% vs 69.8%; P = .00006).

The most clinically significant differences between the ICC and ECC cohorts were in utilization patterns for clinical trials and targeted therapies. Patients with advanced ICC were statistically significantly more likely to receive targeted therapy (18.9% vs 4.7%; P < .00001) and/or participate in a clinical trial (24.8% vs 10.6%; P = .00009) (Table 4). Of the trials where the investigational agent was known, the majority was targeted therapy-based in

Table 3. Treatment differences in early stage intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma vs extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma

	Diagnosis (n = 847 ^a)		
Characteristics	Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (n = 611)	Extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (n = 236)	P
Underwent surgery or transplant, yes	182 (29.8%) Of those who underwent surgery	130 (55.1%)	<.00001
Tumor Resection Pathology	0 ,		
Median tumor size of resected patients, cm	5.5 (0.7-20.0)	2.5 (0.1-7.2)	NE
Tumor size \geq 5 cm	91/157 (58.0%)	6/114 (5.3%)	<.00001
Node status N0	36/60 (60.0%)	52/105 (49.5%)	.19
Node status N1	24/60 (40.0%)	51/105 (48.6%)	.29
Node status N2	0/60 (0%)	2/105 (1.9%)	.53
Margin status R0	136/158 (86.1%)	100/122 (82.0%)	.35
Margin status R1	17/158 (10.8%)	20/122 (16.4%)	.17
Margin status R2	5/158 (3.2%)	2/122 (1.6%)	.42
LVI present	61/104 (58.7%)	69/101 (68.3%)	.15
Adjuvant Therapy	, ,	, ,	
Adjuvant therapy status known	165/182 (90.7%)	115/130 (88.5%)	NE
Treated with adjuvant therapy	49/165 (29.7%)	67/115 (58.3%)	<.00001
Adjuvant chemotherapy only	44/165 (26.7%)	59/115 (51.3%)	<.00001
Adjuvant radiation only	12/165 (7.3%)	50/115 (43.5%)	<.00001
Adjuvant chemoradiation	7/165 (4.2%)	42/115 (36.5%)	<.00001

Denominators denote number of patients with known status of variable. NE = not evaluated; LVI = lymphovascular invasion.

both groups (64.6% in patients with ICC, 53.9% ECC), followed by immunotherapy-based (21.2% ICC, 38.5% ECC) (Supplementary Figure 1, available online). Patients with ICC who received targeted therapy most commonly received fibroblast growth factor receptor (FGFR)-, isocitrate dehydrogenase 1 (IDH1)-, and epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR)-targeted therapy (31.2%, 12.5%, and 17.9%, respectively), whereas patients with ECC most commonly received EGFR-targeted (25.0%), followed by human epidermal growth factor receptor 2 (HER2)-, FGFR-, phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase (PI3K)-, and other mitogenactivated protein kinase (MAPK) alteration-targeted agents in 12.5% of patients each for each target (Figure 2). To investigate this further, we again studied the 76 patients with ECC whose disease recurred after surgical resection, of which only 7 (9.2%) enrolled on a clinical trial and only 2 (2.6%) received targeted therapy on or off trial. Of the patients who underwent genomic sequencing but did not receive targeted therapy, a majority (87.0%) of patients did not have actionable targets. Importantly, 35.0% of the patients with advanced ECC who did not receive targeted therapy or enroll into a clinical trial did receive second-line therapy or beyond, suggesting viable treatment options were needed.

Outcomes on systemic therapy and prognosis

Direct comparisons of ICC and ECC with regard to clinical outcomes are limited (14,57). We compared outcomes on systemic therapy between the cohorts and found median OS from the time of diagnosis of advanced disease was longer in patients with ICC compared with ECC (15.1 vs 11.8 months; P < .001) (Figure 3). This difference was maintained when adjusting for several demographic, clinical, and molecular parameters (Supplementary Table 3, available online). No statistically significant difference in RFS after surgery was seen between the groups.

Discussion

The advent of molecular profiling has renewed interest in understanding ICC and ECC as distinct entities beyond genomic signatures. This study is the first multicenter collaboration to examine the differences in treatment patterns between patients with ICC and ECC in a large, modern cohort of patients in granular detail. We identified several key findings: 1) patients with resected or transplanted ECC were more likely to receive adjuvant therapy, 2) patients with advanced ECC were less likely to receive palliative systemic chemotherapy, 3) patients with advanced ECC less commonly enrolled in a clinical trial or received targeted therapy, and 4) patients with advanced ECC had statistically significantly shorter survival than those with advanced ICC.

Many prior attempts at comparing management approaches in ICC and ECC have focused on the perioperative setting (2,28,47,58,59), however, the earlier stage at presentation for many patients with ECC introduces inherent bias (2,5). We confirmed this pattern of earlier stage presentation in ECC and also uncovered statistically significantly different rates of adjuvant therapy use in ECC and ICC. Patients with ECC were more likely to receive adjuvant therapy, although there were no statistically significant differences between the groups in pathology-based prognostic factors other than tumor size, which was greater in the ICC group. Historically, much of the data in support of adjuvant therapy in CCA was in patients with ECC (44,47,60-65), particularly findings from the Southwest Oncology Group (SWOG) S0809 study, which supported adjuvant chemoradiotherapy in patients with ECC or gallbladder carcinoma (66). In 2019, the phase III BILCAP trial also demonstrated a trend toward improved OS with adjuvant capecitabine in patients with ICC (hazard ratio [HR] = 0.65, 95% confidence interval [CI] = 0.35 to 1.18; P = .47) (60). Thus, rates of adjuvant therapy use in patients with ICC and with ECC may become more comparable over time. Notably, in spite of, or perhaps because of, the aforementioned differences in

Table 4. Treatment differences in patients with unresectable or metastatic intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma vs extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma

	Diagnosis	$s(n=847^a)$	P
Characteristics	Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (n = 611)	Extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (n = 236)	
	(11 – 011)	(11 – 250)	
Total No. of patients with advanced disease	()		
Locally advanced, primary metastatic, recurrent metastatic Liver-directed therapy (LDT) in patients with advanced disease	543 (88.9%)	183 (77.5%)	.00002
Known status of LDT	493/543 (90.8%)	173/183 (94.5%)	.11
Received LDT	176/493 (35.7%)	31/173 (17.9%)	.00001
	% of those re	eceiving LDT	
Liver radiation	100 (56.8%)	28 (90.3%)	.0004
Extrahepatic radiation	58 (33.0%)	12 (38.7%)	.05
Ablation	19 (10.8%)	4 (12.9%)	.73
Radioembolization	39 (22.2%)	0 (0%)	.002
Chemoembolization	22 (12.5%)	1 (3.2%)	.13
Bland embolization	4 (2.3%)	1 (3.2%)	.75
Irreversible electroporation	8 (4.6%)	0 (0%)	.61
Palliative Systemic Chemotherapy in Patients with	0 (4.070)	0 (078)	.01
Advanced Disease			
Known status of palliative systemic chemotherapy	589/611 (96.4%)	219/236 (92.8%)	.0249
			.0008
Treated with palliative systemic chemotherapy	388/589 (65.9%)	116/219 (53.0%)	.0008 NE
Median No. of lines of systemic therapy	1 (0-7)	1 (0-5)	
Mean No. of lines of systemic therapy	1.6	1.1	<.0001
1 line of systemic therapy	154 (39.7%)	41 (35.3%)	.40
2 lines of systemic therapy	97 (25.0%)	23 (19.8%)	.25
≥3 lines of systemic therapy	94 (24.2%)	17 (14.7%)	.03
Singlet first line palliative therapy	41 (10.6%)	25 (21.6%)	.002
Doublet first line palliative therapy	310 (79.9%)	84 (72.4%)	.09
Triplet first line palliative therapy	35 (9.0%)	3 (2.6%)	.02
Fluoropyrimidine-based first line palliative therapy	36 (9.3%)	28 (24.1%)	.00003
Gemcitabine-based first line palliative therapy	334 (86.1%)	81 (69.8%)	.00006
Fluoropyrimidine and Gemcitabine-based first line	5 (1.3%)	1 (0.9%)	.71
palliative therapy			
Other	11 (2.8%)	5 (4.3%)	.43
Targeted Therapy in Patients with Advanced Disease			
Known status of targeted therapy	520/543 (95.8%)	170/183 (92.9%)	NE
Received targeted therapy	98 (18.9%)	8 (4.7%)	<.00001
Clinical Trial in Patients with Advanced Disease	, ,	, ,	
Known status of clinical trial	520/543 (95.8%)	170/183 (92.9%)	
Enrolled in a clinical trial	129 (24.8%)	18 (10.6%)	.00009
Recurrence Free Survival, mo	(,	(,	
All resected patients	13.9	15.6	.31
First Progression Free Survival, mo			
All patients who received first line Gemcitabine + Cisplatin	4.53	6.0	.38
Second Progression Free Survival, mo	1.55	5.0	.50
All patients who received second line mFOLFOX	2.0	3.3	.26
Median Overall Survival, mo	2.0	5.5	.20
All patients	21.4	18.5	.80
From diagnosis of advanced disease	15.1	11.8	<.001

^a Denominators denote number of patients with known status of variable. NE = not evaluated.

receipt of adjuvant treatment, there was no statistically significant difference in median RFS between the groups. Further investigation into novel perioperative approaches, including biomarkers predictive of benefit, holds the potential to improve outcomes for patients with CCA and save some patients unnecessary treatment.

Most patients with CCA present with advanced disease (2,22,28,29,51), and thus we performed a focused analysis on the use of systemic therapies. Patients with ECC were statistically significantly less likely than those with ICC to receive any palliative chemotherapy and less likely to receive multiple lines of therapy. Several prior studies have reported similar observations (67-69). A study by the Dutch Pancreatic Cancer Group demonstrated that although the use of palliative chemotherapy in patients with

distal CCA improved over time, only 32.9% of patients received at least 1 line of palliative chemotherapy by 2016 (67). The limited use of systemic therapy in patients with ECC may in part be related to 1) worse nutritional and performance status due to patterns of metastasis (ie, high rates of multi-organ and peritoneal metastasis) (69-71) and 2) local tumor-related complications such as biliary obstruction leading to elevated liver function tests and recurrent cholangitis (2,5,35,70,72,73).

The rate of incorporation of targeted therapies and clinical trials into treatment was encouraging in our population, but both were lowest for the patients with ECC. This higher trial accrual rate in ICC vs ECC appears to be a widespread problem. In the European MOSCATO-01 trial of molecularly matched targeted therapies where 4.0% of the 1035-patient study population had

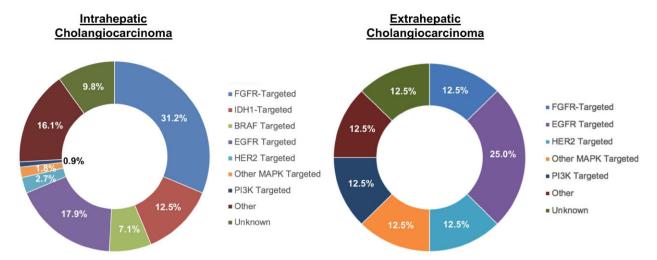


Figure 2. Profile of targeted therapy received in intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma vs extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. Spectrum of targeted therapies received by patients with intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) and patients with extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ECC) during the course of their clinical care. Patients with ICC primarily received FGFR-, EGFR- and IDH1-targeted therapies, and patients with ECC predominantly received EGFRtargeted therapy, followed equally by FGFR-, HER2-, PI3K-, IDH1-, BRAF-, and MAPK-targeted therapies. BRAF = v-raf murine sarcoma viral oncogene homolog B1; EGFR = epidermal growth factor receptor; FGFR = fibroblast growth factor receptor; IDH1 = isocitrate dehydrogenase 1; MAPK = mitogenactivated protein kinase; PI3K = phosphatidylinositol-3 kinase.

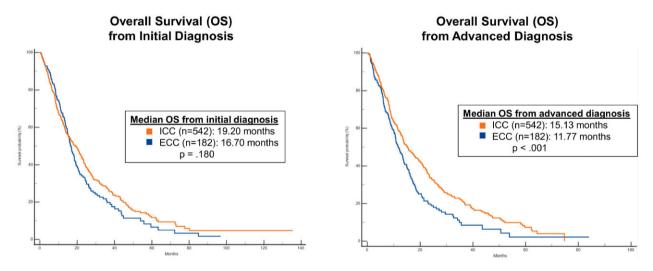


Figure 3. Overall survival in intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma vs extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. Overall survival (OS) in patients with intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ICC) compared with patients with extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (ECC) from the time of diagnosis and from the time of diagnosis of advanced disease. Patients with ICC lived longer with advanced disease than patients with ECC.

biliary tract cancer (BTC), a majority (67.0%) of them had ICC (54). Further, in a single-institution study, of the 40 patients with BTC enrolled on a phase I trial, only 4 (10.0%) had ECC as compared with 30 (75.0%) patients with ICC (49). Low rates of trial enrollment among patients with ECC may be related to the aforementioned barriers to receiving systemic therapy and also to lower rates of molecular profiling, a lack of actionable genomic alterations, and poor access to suitable trials for rare targets or biomarker-agnostic trials.

Several potential avenues exist to directly address these problems. More than half of the patients with advanced ECC did not have molecular profiling performed, limiting the potential for employing targeted therapy and clinical trials. Encouragingly, patients who had tumor recurrence after surgery had rates of profiling on par with those seen in ICC, suggesting adequate quantity and quality of tissue is a relevant challenge. Cholangioscopy-guided forceps biopsy can offer more adequate

tissue acquisition than brushings alone (74,75) in those without surgical tissue. Further, the use of circulating tumor DNA for molecular profiling has shown similar capture rates for actionable alterations as tissue genotyping in BTC (76-79), providing a rapid, noninvasive approach to identifying patients for molecularly matched therapy. Additionally, tissue-agnostic basket trials such as the National Cancer Institute Molecular Analysis for Therapy Choice (NCI-MATCH) and American Society of Clinical Oncology (ASCO) Targeting Agent and Profiling Utilization Registry (TAPUR) trials may offer access to trial therapies for uncommon cancers with uncommon targets. Given most CCAs do not harbor targets that are currently actionable, clinical trials of biomarker-agnostic therapies are also key to improving outcomes for these patients. Finally, patients with CCA can benefit from advances in other cancers with overlapping molecular profiles. For example, 37.0% of patients with ECC in our study had KRAS alterations. Recent advances in targeting KRAS G12C in

lung and colorectal cancer (80-82), and ongoing trials targeting other KRAS variants, open the door for CCA-specific investiga-

Patients with advanced ECC had a worse survival than those with ICC in our study, and the contribution of the treatment pattern differences noted herein requires further study. Notably, the difference in survival was not accounted for by controlling for known positive and negative prognostic mutations, such as FGFR2 fusions found at higher frequencies in ICC and associated with improved survival (16,52,83) and TP53 or KRAS mutations found at higher frequencies in ECC and associated with worse survival (16,84). This disparity persisted on multivariate analysis when controlling for differences in utilization of potentially lifeprolonging palliative therapy, however, unknown factors such as recurrent jaundice and cholangitic sepsis due to biliary obstruction may have contributed as main causes of morbidity and mortality in patients with ECC (85-89).

A limitation of our study is the patient population was limited to those evaluated primarily by medical oncologists at academic cancer centers, potentially limiting the generalizability of our findings to the broader CCA population. Although these patients may have been more likely to seek out clinical trials or undergo molecular profiling, this should not appreciably impact the differences we noted between patients with different anatomic subtypes of CCA. Additionally, given the retrospective data collection, selection bias and incomplete data availability may have impacted the findings. We aimed to minimize their impact by performing a large study across multiple institutions and limiting our analyses to variables with enough known values to achieve sufficient power to calculate statistically significant dif-

Taken together, our findings suggest a critical need for profiling approaches that perform well in the setting of scant tissue obtained in CCA, education of clinicians and patients regarding the potential of molecular profiling to open up therapeutic avenues, and development of drugs for currently actionable and nonactionable genomic alterations and that are biomarker and molecularly agnostic. Lastly, further investigation into the factors contributing to the difference in survival between patients with ICC and ECC has the potential to inform treatment decision making. Ultimately, our study suggests nuanced differences between ICC and ECC beyond anatomic location that warrant treatment of them as distinct entities.

Data availability

Individual participant data cannot be shared publicly due to our institutions' ethical regulations, aiming to protect the privacy of individuals that participated in the study. All source data is available and will be archived at Massachusetts General Cancer Center. The data sharing of individual patient data from each participating institution will be subject to the policy and procedures of each institution. Data requests will be honored pending approval of the institutional review board of each institution in accordance with appropriate human subjects protections.

Author contributions

Kristen Spencer, DO, MPH (Conceptualization; Methodology; Project administration; Writing-original draft; Writing-review & editing); Robin Kate Kelley, MD (Writing—review & editing); Rachna T. Shroff, MD (Writing-review & editing); Mitesh J. Borad, MD (Writing-review & editing); Kabir Mody, MD (Writing—review & editing) Laura Williams Goff, MD, MSCI, MMHC (Writing-review & editing); Nora Horick, MS (Formal analysis; Writing-review & editing); Stacie Lindsey, BS (Writing-review & editing); Lewis R. Roberts, MB ChB, PhD (Writing-review & editing); Christine VanCott, MD, FACS, CPE (Writing—review & editing); Kylie Boyhen, CCRP (Data curation; Writing-review & editing); A. John Iafrate, MD, PhD (Writingreview & editing); Jochen K. Lennerz, MD, PhD (Writing-review & editing); Andrew X. Zhu, MD, PhD (Writing—review & editing); Mary Linton B. Peters, MD (Writing-review & editing); Marc Roth, MD (Writing-review & editing); Thomas T. DeLeon, MD (Writing—review & editing); Jennifer Stanton, BS (Data curation; Writing-review & editing); Osama E. Rahma, MD (Writingreview & editing); Tri Minh Le, MD (Data curation; Writingreview & editing); Stephanie Reyes, MD (Data curation; Writingreview & editing); Anaemy Danner De Armas, MPH (Data curation; Writing—review & editing); Apurva Jain, BS (Data curation; Writing—review & editing); Karen Zhang, BS (Data curation; Writing-review & editing); Andrea Grace Bocobo, BS (Data curation; Writing—review & editing); Jordan Maurer, BS, MS (Data curation; Formal analysis; Writing-review & editing); Islam Baiev, BS (Data curation; Formal analysis; Writing—review & editing); Leontios Pappas, MD, PhD (Data curation; Formal analysis; Methodology; Writing—review & editing); Milind M. Javle, MD (Writing-review & editing); and Lipika Goyal, MD, MPhil (Conceptualization; Methodology; Writing—review & editing).

Funding

No funding was provided for this project.

Conflicts of interest

KS reports advisory/consultancy: QED Therapeutics, Helsinn, the Lynx Group, and Caris Life Sciences.

LP no disclosures. IB no disclosures. IM no disclosures. AGB no disclosures. KZ no disclosures. AJ no disclosures. ADD no disclosures. SR no disclosures. TML no disclosures.

OER reports research support from Merck. Speaker for activities supported by educational grants from BMS and Merck. Consultant for Merck, Celgene, Five Prime, GSK, Bayer, Roche/ Genentech, Puretech, Imvax, Sobi, Boehringer Ingelheim. In addition, Dr Rahma has patent "Methods of using pembrolizumab and trebananib" pending.

JS no disclosures. TTD no disclosures. MR no disclosures.

MLBP institutional funding from Taiho, AstraZeneca, Exelixis, BeiGene, Berg, Merck, Bayer, Nucana, Lilly, and Helsinn Therapeutics; personal consulting fees from Agios. MLBP reports National Cancer Institute (K08CA248473).

AXZ reports advisory/consultancy: Sanofi-aventis, Lilly, Merck, Eisai, Sirtex. Employment: I-MAB Biopharma.

JKL no disclosures.

JKL reports National Institutes of Health (NIH) (R37 CA225655). AJI no disclosures. KB no disclosures. CV no disclosures.

LRR reports research funding (to their institution) from Bayer, Boston Scientific, Exact Sciences, Fujifilm Medical Sciences, Gilead Sciences, Glycotest Inc, RedHill Biopharma, TARGET PharmaSolutions, and QED Therapeutics; and service on scientific advisory committees or as a consultant for AstraZeneca, Bayer, Eisai, Exact Sciences, Gilead Sciences, Global Life Science Consulting, GRAIL Inc, Hepion, MedEd Design LLC, Medscape, Novartis Venture Fund, Pontifax, Roche, and The Lynx Group.

SL no disclosures. NH no disclosures.

LWG reports advisory/consultancy: QED, Genentech, Merck, AstraZeneca, Exelixis, Boehringer Ingelheim. Research Funding: BMS, Agios, ASLAN, BeiGene, Basilea, Merck.

KM reports Stock and Other Ownership Interests: CytoDyn; Consulting or Advisory Role: Celgene, Genentech/Roche, AstraZeneca, Ipsen, Boston Scientific, Incyte (Inst), QED Therapeutics; Research Funding: FibroGen (Inst), Senhwa Biosciences (Inst), MedImmune (Inst), Agios (Inst), ArQule (Inst), Taiho Pharmaceutical (Inst), Gritstone Bio (Inst), Incyte (Inst), Merck (Inst), Vyriad (Inst), Turnstone Bio (Inst), AstraZeneca (Inst), Basilea (Inst).

MB no relevant disclosures.

RTS reports funding from Bayer, Bristol-Myers Squibb, Exelixis, IMV Inc, Loxo, Novocure, NUCANA, Pieris, QED Therapeutics, Rafael Pharmaceuticals, Seagen, and Taiho.

honoraria for serving on scientific advisory committees or as a consultant from AstraZeneca, Boehringer Ingelheim Pharma, CAMI, Clovis, Genentech, Incyte, Merck, QED Therapeutics, Servier, Taiho, Zymeworks, and Syros.

RKK reports research funding (to institution) from Agios, Astra Zeneca, Bayer, BMS, Eli Lilly, EMD Serono, Exelixis, Genentech/ Roche, Loxo Oncology, Merck, Novartis, Partner Therapeutics, OED, Relay Therapeutics, Surface Oncology, Taiho; honoraria for serving on scientific advisory committees or as a consultant from Agios, Astra Zeneca, Exelixis, Ipsen, Merck (to institution) and from Exact Sciences, Gilead, and Kinnate (to self).

MMJ reports research funding (to institution) from Merck, EMD Serono, Novartis, Eli Lilly, Astra Zeneca, Genentech, Transthera, Meclun, BMS, Incyte, QED, Taiho, Servier, Oncosil, Basilea, Nucana and to self or as advisory board/DSMB member from Incyte, Zymeworks, Mundi Pharma, Nucana, MORE health and Origimed.

LG reports research funding (to their institution) from Adaptimmune, Bayer, Merck, Macrogenics, Genentech, Novartis, Incyte, Loxo Oncology, Relay Therapeutics, QED, Taiho Oncology, Leap Therapeutics, Bristol Myers Squibb, Nucana, and Servier; honoraria (to self) for serving on scientific advisory committees or as a consultant from Alentis Therapeutics AG, Black Diamond, Basilea, Genentech, Exelixis, Kinnate, H3Biomedicine, Incyte Corporation, QED Therapeutics, Sirtex Medical Ltd, The Servier Group, SIRTEX, Taiho Oncology, TranstheraBio, and participation on data safety monitoring boards for AstraZeneca. LG receives funding from the American Cancer Society Clinical Scientist Development Grant 134013-CSDG-19-163-01-TBG, the NIH/NCI Gastrointestinal Cancer SPORE P50 CA127003, V Foundation for Cancer Research Translational Grant, and the Cholangiocarcinoma Foundation Andrea Marie Fuguay Research Fellowship.

Acknowledgements

We would like to acknowledge support from the Cholangiocarcinoma Foundation (CCF), the International Cholangiocarcinoma Research Network (ICRN), Jacqui Lewis and the Rare Initiative, and Joe and Katie Comeau.

References

- 1. Shaib YH, Davila JA, McGlynn K, et al. Rising incidence of intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma in the United States: a true increase? J Hepatol. 2004;40(3):472-477.
- Nakeeb A, Pitt HA, Sohn TA, et al. Cholangiocarcinoma. A spectrum of intrahepatic, perihilar, and distal tumors. Ann Surg. 1996;224(4):463-473. discussion 473-5.

- 3. Khan SA, Emadossadaty S, Ladep NG, et al. Rising trends in cholangiocarcinoma: is the ICD classification system misleading us? J Hepatol. 2012;56(4):848-854.
- Welzel TM, McGlynn KA, Hsing AW, et al. Impact of classification of hilar cholangiocarcinomas (Klatskin tumors) on the incidence of intra- and extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma in the United States. J Natl Cancer Inst. 2006;98(12):873-875.
- Klatskin G. Adenocarcinoma of the hepatic duct at its bifurcation within the porta hepatis. An unusual tumor with distinctive clinical and pathological features. Am J Med. 1965;38(2):241-256.
- Bragazzi MC, Ridola L, Safarikia S, et al. New insights into cholangiocarcinoma: multiple stems and related cell lineages of origin. Ann Gastroenterol. 2018;31(1):42-55.
- Cardinale V, Carpino G, Reid L, et al. Multiple cells of origin in cholangiocarcinoma underlie biological, epidemiological and clinical heterogeneity. World J Gastrointest Oncol. 2012;4(5):94-102.
- Ahn DH, Bekaii-Saab T. Biliary cancer: intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma vs. extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma vs. gallbladder cancers: classification and therapeutic implications. J Gastrointest Oncol. 2017;8(2):293-301.
- Andersen JB, Spee B, Blechacz BR, et al. Genomic and genetic characterization of cholangiocarcinoma identifies therapeutic targets for tyrosine kinase inhibitors. Gastroenterology. 2012;142(4):1021-1031 e15.
- 10. Antwi SO, Mousa OY, Patel T. Racial, ethnic, and age disparities in incidence and survival of intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma in the United States; 1995-2014. Ann Hepatol. 2018;17(4):604-614.
- 11. Bertuccio P, Bosetti C, Levi F, et al. A comparison of trends in mortality from primary liver cancer and intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma in Europe. Ann Oncol. 2013;24(6):1667-1674.
- 12. Burke EC, Jarnagin WR, Hochwald SN, et al. Hilar cholangiocarcinoma: patterns of spread, the importance of hepatic resection for curative operation, and a presurgical clinical staging system. Ann Surg. 1998;228(3):385-394.
- 13. Cardinale V, Semeraro R, Torrice A, et al. Intra-hepatic and extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma: new insight into epidemiology and risk factors. World J Gastrointest Oncol. 2010;2(11):407-416.
- 14. DeOliveira ML, Cunningham SC, Cameron JL, et al. Cholangiocarcinoma: thirty-one-year experience with 564 patients at a single institution. Ann Surg. 2007;245(5):755-762.
- 15. Gatto M, Alvaro D. Cholangiocarcinoma: risk factors and clinipresentation. Rev Med Pharmacol Sci. 2010;14(4):363-367.
- 16. Javle M, Bekaii-Saab T, Jain A, et al. Biliary cancer: utility of next-generation sequencing for clinical management. Cancer. 2016;122(24):3838-3847.
- 17. Khan SA, Tavolari S, Brandi G. Cholangiocarcinoma: epidemiology and risk factors. Liver Int. 2019;39(suppl 1):19-31.
- Khan SA, Taylor-Robinson SD, Toledano MB, et al. Changing international trends in mortality rates for liver, biliary and pancreatic tumours. J Hepatol. 2002;37(6):806-813.
- 19. Kirstein MM, Vogel A. Epidemiology and risk factors of cholangiocarcinoma. Visc Med. 2016;32(6):395-400.
- 20. Mosadeghi S, Liu B, Bhuket T, et al. Sex-specific and race/ ethnicity-specific disparities in cholangiocarcinoma incidence and prevalence in the USA: an updated analysis of the 2000-2011 Surveillance, Epidemiology and End Results registry. Hepatol Res. 2016;46(7):669-677.
- 21. Nakamura H, Arai Y, Totoki Y, et al. Genomic spectra of biliary tract cancer. Nat Genet. 2015;47(9):1003-1010.
- 22. Patel N, Benipal B. Incidence of cholangiocarcinoma in the USA from 2001 to 2015: a US cancer statistics analysis of 50 states. Cureus. 2019;11(1):e3962.

- 23. Patel T. Worldwide trends in mortality from biliary tract malignancies. BMC Cancer. 2002;2(1):10.
- 24. Saha SK, Zhu AX, Fuchs CS, et al. Forty-year trends in cholangiocarcinoma incidence in the U.S.: intrahepatic disease on the rise. Oncologist. 2016:21(5):594-599.
- 25. Shaib Y, El-Serag HB. The epidemiology of cholangiocarcinoma. Semin Liver Dis. 2004;24(2):115-125.
- 26. Shaib YH, El-Serag HB, Davila JA, et al. Risk factors of intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma in the United States: a case-control study. Gastroenterology. 2005;128(3):620-626.
- 27. Siegel RL, Miller KD, Jemal A. Cancer statistics, 2018. CA Cancer J Clin. 2018;68(1):7-30.
- 28. Singal AG, Rakoski MO, Salgia R, et al. The clinical presentation and prognostic factors for intrahepatic and extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma in a tertiary care centre. Aliment Pharmacol Ther. 2010;31(6):625-633.
- 29. Surveillance, Epidemiology, and End Results (SEER) Program Database. Cancer stat facts: liver and intrahepatic bile duct cancer. 2018. https://seer.cancer.gov/statfacts/html/livibd.html. Accessed December 12, 2019.
- 30. Taylor-Robinson SD, Toledano MB, Arora S, et al. Increase in mortality rates from intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma in England and Wales 1968-1998. Gut. 2001;48(6):816-820.
- 31. Welzel TM, Graubard BI, El-Serag HB, et al. Risk factors for intrahepatic and extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma in the United States: a population-based case-control study. Clin Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2007;5(10):1221-1228.
- 32. West J, Wood H, Logan RF, et al. Trends in the incidence of primary liver and biliary tract cancers in England and Wales 1971-2001. Br J Cancer. 2006;94(11):1751-1758.
- 33. Alis H, Sengoz C, Gonenc M, et al. Endobiliary radiofrequency ablation for malignant biliary obstruction. Hepatobiliary Pancreat Dis Int. 2013;12(4):423-427.
- 34. Boehm LM, Jayakrishnan TT, Miura JT, et al. Comparative effectiveness of hepatic artery based therapies for unresectable intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. Oncol. 2015;111(2):213-220.
- 35. Boulay BR, Birg A. Malignant biliary obstruction: from palliation to treatment. World J Gastrointest Oncol. 2016;8(6):498-508.
- 36. Brunner TB, Blanck O, Lewitzki V, et al. Stereotactic body radiotherapy dose and its impact on local control and overall survival of patients for locally advanced intrahepatic and extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. Radiother Oncol. 2019;132:42-47.
- 37. Gkika E, Hallauer L, Kirste S, et al. Stereotactic body radiotherapy (SBRT) for locally advanced intrahepatic and extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. BMC Cancer. 2017;17(1):781.
- 38. Hyder O, Marsh JW, Salem R, et al. Intra-arterial therapy for advanced intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma: a multiinstitutional analysis. Ann Surg Oncol. 2013;20(12):3779-3786.
- 39. Jung DH, Kim MS, Cho CK, et al. Outcomes of stereotactic body radiotherapy for unresectable primary or recurrent cholangiocarcinoma. Radiat Oncol J. 2014;32(3):163-169.
- 40. Ohnishi H, Asada M, Shichijo Y, et al. External radiotherapy for decompression of hilar cholangiocarcinoma. Hepatogastroenterology. 1995;42(3):265-268.
- 41. Shinohara ET, Mitra N, Guo M, et al. Radiotherapy is associated with improved survival in adjuvant and palliative treatment of extrahepatic cholangiocarcinomas. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys. 2009;74(4):1191-1198.
- 42. Steel AW, Postgate AJ, Khorsandi S, et al. Endoscopically applied radiofrequency ablation appears to be safe in the treatment of malignant biliary obstruction. Gastrointest Endosc. 2011;73(1):149-153.

- 43. Rizvi S, Khan SA, Hallemeier CL, et al. Cholangiocarcinoma evolving concepts and therapeutic strategies. Nat Rev Clin Oncol. 2018;15(2):95-111.
- 44. Doherty MK, Knox JJ. Adjuvant therapy for resected biliary tract cancer: a review. Chin Clin Oncol. 2016;5(5):64.
- 45. Doherty B, Nambudiri VE, Palmer WC. Update on the diagnosis and treatment of cholangiocarcinoma. Curr Gastroenterol Rep. 2017;19(1):2.
- 46. Anderson C, Kim R. Adjuvant therapy for resected extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma: a review of the literature and future directions. Cancer Treat Rev. 2009;35(4):322-327.
- 47. Heron DE, Stein DE, Eschelman DJ, et al. Cholangiocarcinoma: the impact of tumor location and treatment strategy on outcome. Am J Clin Oncol. 2003;26(4):422-428.
- Shirabe K, Shimada M, Harimoto N, et al. Intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma: its mode of spreading and therapeutic modalities. Surgery. 2002;131(suppl 1):S159-64.
- Subbiah IM, Subbiah V, Tsimberidou AM, et al. Targeted therapy of advanced gallbladder cancer and cholangiocarcinoma with aggressive biology: eliciting early response signals from phase 1 trials. Oncotarget. 2013;4(1):156-165.
- 50. Sulpice L, Rayar M, Boucher E, et al. Treatment of recurrent cholangiocarcinoma. intrahepatic Br 2012;99(12):1711-1717.
- 51. Valle JW. Advances in the treatment of metastatic or unresectable biliary tract cancer. Ann Oncol. 2010;21(suppl 7):vii345--
- 52. Valle JW, Lamarca A, Goyal L, et al. New horizons for precision medicine in biliary tract cancers. Cancer Discov. 2017;7(9):943-962.
- 53. Vauthey JN, Blumgart LH. Recent advances in the management of cholangiocarcinomas. Semin Liver Dis. 1994;14(2):109-114.
- 54. Verlingue L, Malka D, Allorant A, et al. Precision medicine for patients with advanced biliary tract cancers: an effective strategy within the prospective MOSCATO-01 trial. Eur J Cancer. 2017:87:122-130.
- 55. Frampton GM, Fichtenholtz A, Otto GA, et al. Development and validation of a clinical cancer genomic profiling test based on massively parallel DNA sequencing. Nat Biotechnol. 2013;31(11):1023-1031.
- 56. Kuvshinoff BW, Armstrong JG, Fong Y, et al. Palliation of irresectable hilar cholangiocarcinoma with biliary drainage and radiotherapy. Br J Surg. 1995;82(11):1522-1525.
- 57. Waseem D, Tushar P. Intrahepatic, perihilar and distal cholangiocarcinoma: management and outcomes. Ann Hepatol. 2017;16(1):133-139.
- 58. Baton O, Azoulay D, Adam DV, et al. Major hepatectomy for hilar cholangiocarcinoma type 3 and 4: prognostic factors and longterm outcomes. J Am Coll Surg. 2007;204(2):250-260.
- 59. Hanazaki K, Kajikawa S, Shimozawa N, et al. Prognostic factors of intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma after hepatic resection: Univariate and multivariate analysis. Hepatogastroenterology. 2002;49(44):311-316.
- 60. Primrose JN, Fox RP, Palmer DH, et al.; for the BILCAP study group. Capecitabine compared with observation in resected biliary tract cancer (BILCAP): a randomised, controlled, multicentre, phase 3 study. Lancet Oncol. 2019;20(5):663-673.
- 61. Hughes MA, Frassica DA, Yeo CJ, et al. Adjuvant concurrent chemoradiation for adenocarcinoma of the distal common bile duct. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys. 2007;68(1):178-182.
- 62. Horgan AM, Amir E, Walter T, et al. Adjuvant therapy in the treatment of biliary tract cancer: a systematic review and metaanalysis. J Clin Oncol. 2012;30(16):1934-1940.

- 63. Kim S, Kim SW, Bang YJ, et al. Role of postoperative radiotherapy in the management of extrahepatic bile duct cancer. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys. 2002;54(2):414-419.
- 64. Kim TH, Han SS, Park SJ, et al. Role of adjuvant chemoradiotherapy for resected extrahepatic biliary tract cancer. Int J Radiat Oncol Biol Phys. 2011;81(5):e853-e859.
- 65. Mavros MN, Economopoulos KP, Alexiou VG, et al. Treatment and prognosis for patients with intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma: systematic review and meta-analysis. JAMA Surg. 2014;149(6):565-574.
- 66. Ben-Josef E, Guthrie KA, El-Khoueiry AB, et al. SWOG S0809: a phase II intergroup trial of adjuvant capecitabine and gemcitabine followed by radiotherapy and concurrent capecitabine in extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma and gallbladder carcinoma. J Clin Oncol. 2015;33(24):2617-2622.
- 67. Strijker M, Belkouz A, van der Geest LG, et al.; for the Dutch Pancreatic Cancer Group. Treatment and survival of resected and unresected distal cholangiocarcinoma: a nationwide study. Acta Oncol. 2019;58(7):1048-1055.
- 68. Roos E, Strijker M, Franken LC, et al. Comparison of short- and long-term outcomes between anatomical subtypes of resected biliary tract cancer in a Western high-volume center. HPB (Oxford). 2020;22(3):405-414.
- 69. Wang J, Bo X, Nan L, et al. Landscape of distant metastasis mode and current chemotherapy efficacy of the advanced biliary tract cancer in the United States, 2010-2016. Cancer Med. 2020;9(4):1335-1348.
- 70. Jarnagin WR, Ruo L, Little SA, et al. Patterns of initial disease recurrence after resection of gallbladder carcinoma and hilar cholangiocarcinoma: Implications for adjuvant therapeutic strategies. Cancer. 2003;98(8):1689-1700.
- 71. Sallinen V, Siren J, Makisalo H, et al. Differences in prognostic factors and recurrence patterns after curative-intent resection of perihilar and distal cholangiocarcinomas. Scand J Surg. 2020;109(3):219-227.
- 72. Ercolani G, Dazzi A, Giovinazzo F, et al. Intrahepatic, peri-hilar and distal cholangiocarcinoma: three different locations of the same tumor or three different tumors? Eur J Surg Oncol. 2015;41(9):1162-1169.
- 73. Yang LC, Shi HY, Huang JW, et al. Biliary stenting for unresectable cholangiocarcinoma: a population-based study of longterm outcomes and hospital costs in Taiwan. Kaohsiung J Med Sci. 2015;31(7):370-376.
- 74. Navaneethan U, Hasan MK, Lourdusamy V, et al. Single-operator cholangioscopy and targeted biopsies in the diagnosis of indeterminate biliary strictures: a systematic review. Gastrointest Endosc. 2015;82(4):608-614 e2.

- 75. Draganov PV, Chauhan S, Wagh MS, et al. Diagnostic accuracy of conventional and cholangioscopy-guided sampling of indeterminate biliary lesions at the time of ERCP: a prospective, long-term follow-up study. Gastrointest Endosc. 2012;75(2):347-353.
- 76. Pascual J, Attard G, Bidard FC, et al. ESMO recommendations on the use of circulating tumour DNA assays for patients with cancer: a report from the ESMO Precision Medicine Working Group. Ann Oncol. 2022;33(8):750-768.
- 77. Nakamura Y, Taniguchi H, Ikeda M, et al. Clinical utility of circulating tumor DNA sequencing in advanced gastrointestinal cancer: SCRUM-Japan GI-SCREEN and GOZILA studies. Nat Med. 2020;26(12):1859-1864.
- 78. Berchuck JE, Facchinetti F, DiToro DF, et al. The clinical landscape of cell-free DNA alterations in 1671 patients with advanced biliary tract cancer. Ann Oncol. 2022;33(12):1269-1283.
- Mody K, Kasi PM, Yang J, et al. Circulating tumor DNA profiling of advanced biliary tract cancers. J Clin Oncol Precis Oncol. 2019;3:1-9.
- Skoulidis F, Li BT, Dy GK, et al. Sotorasib for lung cancers with KRAS p.G12C mutation. N Engl J Med. 2021;384(25):2371-2381.
- 81. Fakih MG, Kopetz S, Kuboki Y, et al. Sotorasib for previously treated colorectal cancers with KRAS(G12C) mutation (CodeBreaK100): a prespecified analysis of a single-arm, phase 2 trial. Lancet Oncol. 2022;23(1):115-124.
- 82. Janne PA, Riely GJ, Gadgeel SM, et al. Adagrasib in non-smallcell lung cancer harboring a KRAS(G12C) mutation. N Engl J Med. 2022;387(2):120-131.
- 83. Mertens JC, Rizvi S, Gores GJ. Targeting cholangiocarcinoma. Biochim Biophys Acta Mol Basis Dis. 2018;1864(4 pt B):1454-1460.
- 84. Montal R, Sia D, Montironi C, et al. Molecular classification and therapeutic targets in extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. J Hepatol. 2020;73(2):315-327.
- Mosconi S, Beretta GD, Labianca R, et al. Cholangiocarcinoma. Crit Rev Oncol Hematol. 2009;69(3):259-270.
- 86. Patel T. Cholangiocarcinoma-controversies and challenges. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2011;8(4):189-200.
- Banales JM, Marin JJG, Lamarca A, et al. Cholangiocarcinoma 2020: the next horizon in mechanisms and management. Nat Rev Gastroenterol Hepatol. 2020;17(9):557-588.
- 88. Lamarca A, Benafif S, Ross P, et al. Cisplatin and gemcitabine in patients with advanced biliary tract cancer (ABC) and persistent jaundice despite optimal stenting: effective intervention in patients with luminal disease. Eur J Cancer. 2015;51(13):1694-1703.
- Elganainy D, Holliday EB, Taniguchi CM, et al. Dose escalation of radiotherapy in unresectable extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma. Cancer Med. 2018;7(10):4880-4892.