

The choice for the optimal therapy in advanced biliary tract cancers: Chemotherapy, targeted therapies or immunotherapy

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▶ To cite this version:

L.-J. Palmieri, J. Lavolé, S. Dermine, C. Brezault, M. Dhooge, et al.. The choice for the optimal therapy in advanced biliary tract cancers: Chemotherapy, targeted therapies or immunotherapy. Pharmacology and Therapeutics, 2020, 210, pp.107517 -. 10.1016/j.pharmthera.2020.107517 . hal-03490320

HAL Id: hal-03490320 https://hal.science/hal-03490320

Submitted on 22 Aug2022

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P&T #23647

The choice for the optimal therapy in advanced biliary tract cancers:

chemotherapy, targeted therapies or immunotherapy

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Word count: 5074

Abstract word count: 140

Figure: 1

Table: 2

Abstract

Biliary tract cancers (BTCs) represent a heterogeneous group that includes intrahepatic cholangiocarcinomas (CCAs), perihilar-CCAs or Klatskin tumors, extrahepatic-CCAs, and gallbladder adenocarcinoma. These entities have distinct demographics, risk factors, clinical presentation, and molecular characteristics.

In advanced BTCs, the recommendations are mainly supporting a doublet chemotherapy regimen using cisplatin/gemcitabine (CisGem) with a 5-year overall survival rate close to 5% and median overall survival (mOS) of less than a year. The lack of overall efficacy stresses the need for personalized therapies.

Recently, whole-genome and transcriptome sequencing highlighted the diversity of BTCs' subtypes. Distinct genetic alterations were retrieved according to the localization, with a high rate of potentially actionable alterations. Targeted therapies and immunotherapy have since then been tested for BTCs, trying to propose a more personalized treatment.

This review describes the different therapeutic options, validated and in development, for patients with advanced BTCs.

Keywords: Biliary tract cancers; cholangiocarcinoma; targeted therapy; immunotherapy; genome sequencing

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List of abbreviations

ALK Anaplasic Lymphoma Kinase

BRAF Rapidly accelerated Fibrosarcoma B

BSC Best Supportive Care

BTCs Biliary tract cancers

CCA cholangiocarcinoma

CisGem cisplatin/gemcitabine

ECOG-PS ECOG performance status

EGFR Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor

ERK extracellular signal-regulated kinases

FGFR Fibroblast Growth Factor Receptor

FOLFIRI Folinic acid/5-Fluorouracil/Irinotecan

GEMOX gemcitabine/oxaliplatin

HGF hepatocyte growth factor

IDH Isocitrate dehydrogenase

KRAS Kirsten rat sarcoma viral oncogene homolog

m-FOLFOX modified Folinic acid/5-Fluorouracil/Oxaliplatin

MAPK mitogen-activated protein kinase

mTOR mammalian target of rapamycin

mTORC mTOR complex

n number

NCT ClinicalTrials.gov identifier number

NTRK Neurotrophic Tyrosine Receptor Kinase

ORR Overall Response Rate

OS overall survival

PARP poly ADP-ribose polymerase

PFS Progression free survival

PI3K phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase

Ras rat sarcoma

TDM-1 trastuzumab emtansine

TKIs tyrosine kinase inhibitors

TRKs tropomyosin kinase receptors

VEGFR Vascular Endothelial Growth Factor Receptor

1. Introduction

Biliary tract cancers (BTCs) represent a heterogeneous group that includes intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma (CCA), perihilar-CCA or Klatskin tumors, extrahepatic-CCA, and gallbladder adenocarcinoma. These entities have distinct demographics, risk factors, clinical presentation, molecular characteristics and treatment options. The incidence in South-East Asia is up to ten times superior to the incidence in Europe (Banales et al., 2016). The overall incidence in the United States is 12,360 new cases and 3,960 estimated deaths per year (Siegel et al., 2019).

Only 30 to 40% of patients undergo surgery (J. W. Valle et al., 2016). The rate of recurrence after surgery is high and the 5-year overall survival rate is below 40% (Lim et al., 2013). In advanced BTCs, the recommendations are mainly supporting a doublet chemotherapy regimen using cisplatin/gemcitabine (CisGem) with a 5-year overall survival rate close to 5% and median overall survival (mOS) of less than a year (Juan W. Valle, Lamarca, Goyal, Barriuso, & Zhu, 2017).

The lack of overall efficacy stresses the need for personalized therapies. Recently, whole-genome and transcriptome sequencing highlighted the diversity of BTCs' subtypes. Distinct genetic alterations were retrieved according to the localization, with a high rate of potentially actionable alterations. Targeted therapies and immunotherapy have since then been tested for BTCs, trying to propose a more personalized treatment. In the present review, we highlighted the different therapeutic options for patients with advanced BTCs.

2. Epidemiology and molecular pathogenesis of BTCs

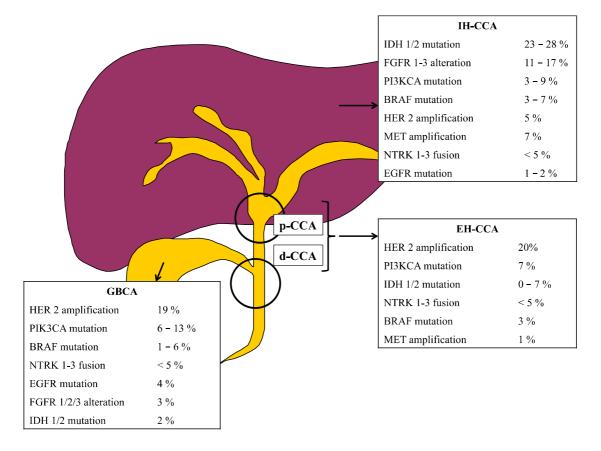
BTCs represent a heterogeneous group of cancers with distinct demographics, risk factors, clinical presentation, and molecular characteristics.

The prevalence of the anatomical subtypes of BTCs is different according to geographical origin. CCAs are more common in Asia (Japan, South Korea, north-east Thailand, China), where there is liver fluke infestation (Opisthorchis viverrini) (Parkin et al., 1991). Gallbladder adenocarcinomas are more common in India and Chile, where there is a high prevalence of cholelithiasis (Randi et al., 2009). Other risk factors for BTCs are primary sclerosing cholangitis, primary biliary cirrhosis, cirrhosis due to other causes, hepatitis C and congenital malformations such as choledochal cysts and multiple biliary papillomatosis (Khan, Toledano, & Taylor-Robinson, 2008). There is also an increased risk of BTCs in Lynch syndrome and BRCA 1 / 2 aberrations (Shigeyasu et al., 2014; Golan et al., 2017).

Whole-genome and transcriptome sequencing recently highlighted the diversity of BTCs' subtypes (**Figure 1**). Nakamura et al. analyzed, using wholeexome and transcriptome sequencing techniques, a large cohort of patients with BTCs including intra-hepatic (n=145), perihilar or distal (n=86) or gallbladder (n=29) BTCs (Nakamura et al., 2015). They identified potential targetable alterations in up to 39% of BTCs. The rate of genetics alterations was different in BTCs subtypes: intra-hepatic CCAs harbored especially recurrent mutations in Isocitrate dehydrogenase 1/2 (IDH 1/2) and Fibroblast growth factors receptors (FGFR) 1/2/3 in 28% and 14% of cases, respectively. FGFR2 alterations were associated with a better response to FGFR inhibitors and better mOS. Extra-hepatic CCAs harbored recurrent mutations in HER genes (up to 25% for epidermal growth factor receptor [EGFR] in peri-hilar CCAs and 14% for ERBB2/3 in distal CCAs). Confirming these data, sequencing of 28 intrahepatic-CCAs revealed potentially actionable alterations in IDH 1/2, FGFR2, Kirsten rat sarcoma viral oncogene homolog (KRAS), PTEN, and CDKN2A (Ross et al., 2014). These data were in line with the integrated genomic analysis from The Cancer Genome Atlas (Farshidfar et al., 2017).

Besides, different etiologies of BTCs might induce different somatic alterations. Whole-exome sequencing data from 108 liver-fluke-related and 101 nonliver-fluke-related tumors highlighted that non-liver-fluke-related intra-hepatic CCAs had a higher prevalence of mutations in IDH1/2 and loss-of-function mutations in the tumor-suppressor gene BAP1 (Chan-On et al., 2013). Mutations in the tumorsuppressor gene TP53 were more frequent in liver-fluke-related CCAs. Altogether, those molecular alterations led to targeted therapies evaluation as indicated below.

Figure 1. Genetic alterations according to the different anatomic subtypes of biliary tract cancers.



BRAF: Rapidly accelerated Fibrosarcoma B; d-CCA: distal cholangiocarcinoma ; **EGFR**: Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor; **EH-CCA**: extrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; **FGFR**: Fibroblasts Growth Factor Receptor;

GBCA: Gall Bladder Carcinoma; HER: Human epidermal growth factor receptor; IDH:

Isocitrate Dehydrogenase; **IH-CCA**: intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; **MET**: Mesenchymal-Epithelial Transition factor; **NTRK**: Neurotrophic tyrosine kinase; p-CCA: perihilar cholangiocarcinoma; **PI3K**: phosphoinositide-3-kinase

3. Chemotherapy

Best supportive care (BSC) offers to patients with advanced BTCs a mOS of 2.5 months. The chemotherapy 5-fluorouracil/leucovorin +/- etoposide was evaluated versus BSC in 37 patients with advanced BTCs, with a gain in term of mOS of 3.5 months (6 months versus 2.5 months, p >0.01) and an improvement in the quality of life (Glimelius et al., 1996).

The ABC-02 study set the CisGem regimen (gemcitabine 1000 mg/m² and cisplatin 25 mg/m² at D1 and D8, every 21 days) as the standard of care in first-line setting. Four hundred and ten patients with BTCs were randomly assigned to receive either CisGem or gemcitabine. mOS was 11.7 versus 8.1 months and median progression-free survival (mPFS) was 8.0 versus 5.0 months, in CisGem and gemcitabine arms respectively (J. Valle et al., 2010). These results were confirmed by a Japanese study on 83 patients. mOS was 11.2 vs 7.7 months, the mPFS 5.8 vs 3.7 months and overall response rate (ORR) was 19.5 vs 11.9%, in CisGem and gemcitabine arms respectively (Okusaka et al., 2010).

Sharma et al evaluated a different option in first-line for BTCs, the gemcitabine + oxaliplatin (GEMOX) regimen compared to BSC. They identified an overall gain in terms of mPFS and mOS in unresectable BTCs of 8.5 months and 9.5 months, respectively (OS: 9.5 versus 4.5 months, p=0.039; PFS: 8.5 versus 2.8 months, p<0.001) (Sharma et al., 2010). André et al. highlighted that GEMOX (gemcitabine 1000 mg/m² and oxaliplatin 100 mg/m² every 14 days) for patients with

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an ECOG performance status (ECOG-PS) 0–2 and a bilirubin <2.5N showed an ORR, a mPFS and a mOS of 36%, 5.7 months and 15.4 months, respectively (André et al., 2004). Patients with an ECOG-PS >2 and/or bilirubin >2.5N and/or prior chemotherapy had an ORR, a PFS and a mOS of 22%, 3.9 months and 7.6 months (André et al., 2004). A systematic review of 104 first-line chemotherapy trials including 2,810 patients identified superior ORR and tumor control rates with gemcitabine plus platinum (cisplatin or oxaliplatin) (Eckel & Schmid, 2007). Therefore, the recommended therapy in first-line is the CisGem regimen (J. W. Valle et al., 2016).

The ABC-06 trial recently identified the best therapy in second-line after disease progression with CisGem. The authors evaluated the modified Folinic acid/5-Fluorouracil/Oxaliplatin (mFOLFOX) regimen versus BSC in patients previously treated with CisGem. Second-line with mFOLFOX significantly improved the mOS versus the BSC alone (6.2 versus 5.3 months; p=0.031) (Lamarca et al., 2019, p. 06). In second-line treatment, the Folinic acid/5-Fluorouracil/Irinotecan (FOLFIRI) regimen was evaluated in a retrospective study (n=52) in patients who experienced disease progression with the GEMOX regimen (Sebbagh et al., 2016). mPFS and mOS were 3.2 months and 8.4 months, respectively. Fluoropyrimidine-based doublet chemotherapy in second-line setting was identified as none superior to fluoropyrimidine alone in terms of mOS and mPFS in a large retrospective study (mPFS: 3.3 vs 3 months, p=0.91; mOS: 6.3 months vs 5.6 months, p=0.93) (Brieau et al., 2015). Four parameters were identified as independent prognostic factors for starting second-line therapy: ECOG-PS, the reason for first-line discontinuation, a prior resection of primary tumor and peritoneal carcinomatosis (Neuzillet et al., 2019).

4. Targeted therapy

Targeted therapies have been evaluated for BTCs, mainly in phase 1 or 2, some with interesting or promising results. Selected ongoing studies on targeted therapies for advanced BTCs are reported in **Table 1**.

4.1. VEGF inhibitors

Vascular Epidermal Growth factors (VEGF) is overexpressed in ~ 42% to 76% of BTCs and its expression correlates with metastases (both hematologic and lymphatic), positive surgical margins and poor survival rates, suggesting the potential for antiangiogenic agents in the treatment of these cancers (Yoshikawa et al., 2008). Intrahepatic CCAs are associated with high VEGF-A expression and increased microvessel density in comparison to other BTCs (Guedj et al., 2009), prompting the evaluation of antiangiogenics in this specific subgroup.

Bevacizumab is a recombinant humanized monoclonal antibody against vascular epidermal growth factor (VEGFR). A non-randomized phase 2 trial evaluated the combination of bevacizumab with GEMOX in advanced BTCs and showed an ORR, a mPFS and a mOS of 40%, 7 months and 12.7 months, respectively (Zhu et al., 2010). The addition of bevacizumab to gemcitabine/capecitabine was tested in a phase 2 study for patients with advanced BTCs. The mPFS and the mOS were of 8.1 months and 10.2 months, respectively. The study failed to improve the mOS compared to historical controls (Iyer et al., 2018). On the other hand, a large retrospective study evaluated the addition of bevacizumab to GEMOX regimen in the first-line setting in patients with advanced or metastatic BTCs. The addition of bevacizumab to chemotherapy compared to chemotherapy alone showed a significant

increase of mPFS (6.48 months versus 3.72 months; p=0.049) but without any benefit in terms of mOS (11.31 months versus 10.34 months; p=0.044) (Bréchon et al., 2018). Also, a small retrospective (n= 13) study with intra-hepatic CCAs treated with FOLFIRI plus bevacizumab in second-line after GEMOX showed interesting results with a mPFS and a mOS of 8 months and 20 months, respectively (Guion-Dusserre, Lorgis, Vincent, Bengrine, & Ghiringhelli, 2015).

Sunitinib is a tyrosine kinase inhibitor (TKI) that inhibits VEGFR 1, 2, 3, platelet-derived growth factor receptor, colony-stimulating factor receptor and the stem cell factor receptor c-KIT. A phase 2 study of sunitinib as a second-line treatment demonstrated marginal efficacy with a median time to progression of 1.7 months (Yi et al., 2012). A prospective phase 2 multicenter trial evaluated sunitinib in advanced intra-hepatic CCAs, with promising preliminary results with a mPFS and a mOS of 5.2 months or 9.6 months, respectively (Neuzillet et al., 2015).

Sorafenib is a multitargeted TKI that inhibits VEGF signaling but also the protein RAF-1. Sorafenib was tested as monotherapy in a phase 2 that reported a mPFS and a mOS of 2.3 months and 4.4 months, respectively (Bengala et al., 2010). Limited antitumor activity was also reported in another phase 2 trial, with a mPFS and a mOS of 3 months and 9 months, respectively (El-Khoueiry et al., 2012). The addition of sorafenib to gemcitabine and cisplatin was also tested but did not improve efficacy over historical data (J. K. Lee et al., 2013).

Cediranib, a TKI targeting VEGFR 1/2/3, has also been tested in combination with CisGem in the ABC-03 trial but did not meet its primary endpoint of improvement of the mPFS (Juan W. Valle et al., 2015).

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Axitinib, a TKI targeting VEGFR 1/2/3, was tested in a phase 2 study for patients with advanced BTCs refractory to gemcitabine-based regimen (Okano et al., 2019). It showed modest activity, with a mPFS of 2.8 months, a mOS of 5.8 months and an ORR of 5.3%.

4.2. HER-family inhibitors

HER family receptors (EGFR/HER1, HER2neu, HER3 and HER4) triggers multiple signaling cascades, including the mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) cascade phosphatidylinositol 3-kinase (PI3K) / AKT pathway and STAT transcription factor, leading to a multitude of effects including cell proliferation, cell differentiation, angiogenesis, metastasis, and inhibition of apoptosis, participating in the development of several carcinomas.

The epidermal growth factor receptor (EGFR/HER1) signaling pathway regulates biliary epithelial cell growth and proliferation. In BTCs, EGFR is overexpressed in 67–100% of cases (Nakazawa et al., 2005). KRAS mutations in BTCs were identified only in 10 to 30% of cases, which support the idea of adding an EGFR inhibitor to the chemotherapy. EGFR expression is associated with a poor outcome in BTCs (Yoshikawa et al., 2008).

Cetuximab is an EGFR chimeric human-murine monoclonal antibody. Three small non-randomized phase 2 studies showed the efficiency of cetuximab for unresectable locally advanced or metastatic BTCs in addition to GEMOX (Gruenberger et al., 2010), to gemcitabine and capecitabine (Rubovszky et al., 2013) or in addition to gemcitabine alone (Borbath et al., 2013). Three larger randomized phase 2 trials did not find any efficiency of cetuximab with GEMOX regimen (Malka et al., 2014), even when stratified on KRAS mutation status (Chen et al., 2015), and neither with gemcitabine and oxaliplatin and capecitabine (Ole Larsen, Taksony Solyom Hoegdall, Hoegdall, & Nielsen, 2016).

Panitumumab, a fully human antibody against EGFR, was also tested in nonrandomized phase 2 studies in KRAS wild-type BTCs (Jensen, Lindebjerg, Ploen, Hansen, & Jakobsen, 2012; Hezel et al., 2014) or without rat sarcoma (RAS) stratification, with a positive signal (Sohal et al., 2013). Meantime, two randomized phase 2 studies evaluated panitumumab in combination with CisGem (Arndt Vogel et al., 2015) or with GEMOX (Leone et al., 2016) in KRAS wild-type BTCs and both were negative. As for example, in the Vecti-BIL trial, panitumumab failed to improve mPFS (5.3 vs 4.4 months; p=0.27) and mOS (10.2 versus 9.9 months; p=0.42) (Leone et al., 2016).

Erlotinib is a reversible TKI inhibiting EGFR. Erlotinib administered with docetaxel in a phase 2 randomized study showed a benefit in terms of mPFS but not mOS (Chiorean et al., 2012). The addition of erlotinib to GEMOX in first-line setting didn't show any benefit in a phase 3 study in term of mPFS (4.2 versus 5.8 months; p=0.087) and mOS (9.5 versus 9.5 months; p=0.611) (J. Lee et al., 2012). However, a subgroup analysis identified a benefit in mPFS for CCA versus gallbladder cancer: 5.9 vs 3.0 months.

Afatinib, an irreversible panErbB TKI, has also been tested in a phase 1 study but failed to show survival benefits in combination with CisGem in chemotherapynaive patients (Moehler et al., 2019).

Vandetanib a TKI targeting VEGFR2, EGFR, and RET kinase, was tested in a randomized phase 2 study, alone or in combination with gemcitabine, versus

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gemcitabine in patients with advanced BTCs and showed no improvement in mPFS (Santoro et al., 2015).

Amplification of HER2 is an oncogenic driver alteration. Protein dimers of HER2 with HER family receptors, such as EGFR, HER2, HER3, or HER4, accelerate cell proliferation and prolong cell survival. Binding of EGF to EGFR at the plasma membrane initiates the activation of various signaling pathways. Well-defined pathways include the RAS- ERK pathway, PI3K-Akt pathway, PLC- γ 1 pathway, STAT pathway, and Src pathway.

In BTCs, HER2 overexpression is observed in ~ 5% of intra-hepatic CCA, ~20% of extra-hepatic CCA and ~19% of gallbladder carcinoma (Galdy et al., 2017). The prognostic value of positive HER2 has not been clarified in BTCs (Roa et al., 2014; Yoshida, Shimada, Kosuge, & Hiraoka, 2016). Two phase 2 studies with lapatinib, a dual tyrosine kinase EGFR and HER2 inhibitor, were conducted and failed to show activity of lapatinib as a single agent in first and second-line of patients with BTCs (Peck et al., 2012; Ramanathan et al., 2009). Alternative anti-HER2 therapies such as monoclonal antibodies trastuzumab and pertuzumab seem to be more promising. Three case reports were reported with dramatic and durable responses for BTCs with HER2 amplification treated with trastuzumab alone (Sorscher, 2013), trastuzumab and paclitaxel (Law, 2012) or with dual HER2 blockade with trastuzumab and pertuzumab (Czink et al., 2016). Nam et al. reported that trastuzumab inhibited cell proliferation in HER2-overexpressing BTC cell lines in vitro but the response of HER2-positive BTC patients to trastuzumab combined with chemotherapy was limited (Nam et al., 2016). Trastuzumab is being evaluated in HER2-positive BTC in a phase 2 trial (ClinicalTrials.gov identifier number (NCT) 03613168). The results of a phase 2 trial on trastuzumab emtansine (**TDM-1**) in BTCs are awaited (NCT02999672).

The SUMMIT cohort, an ongoing phase 2 basket trial, is examining the efficacy of **neratinib**, TKI of EGFR, HER2, and HER4 in HER2-mutated BTCs. Updated interim results were presented at the European Society for Medical Oncology 21st World Congress on Gastrointestinal Cancer 2019. Twenty patients with HER2 – mutated BTC with a median of 2 prior systemic regimens were included. The ORR and the mPFS were 10% and 1.8 months, respectively.

The results of a randomized phase 2/3 randomized controlled trial (NCT03093870) of capecitabine plus **varletinib** (EGFR/Her2 co-inhibitor) or placebo in the second-line setting in BTCs are awaited. It is also being evaluated in combination with CisGem for treatment naïve advanced or metastatic BTCs (NCT02992340).

4.3. PI3K/PTEN/AKT/mTOR pathway inhibitors

Everolimus is a derivative of rapamycin that selectively inhibits mammalian target of rapamycin complex 1 (mTORC1), a key protein kinase complex that regulates cell growth, proliferation, and survival. Activation of mTORC1 is mediated by the PI3K pathway through activation of AKT/PKB and subsequent inhibition of the tuberous sclerosis complex 1/2.

Constitutive activation of the PI3K/AKT/ mTOR pathway occurs in ~10–20% BTCs. In addition, immunohistochemistry staining of PI3K pathway suggests that up to 50% of BTCs may harbor activation of this pathway (Simbolo et al., 2014) which is associated with worse survival outcomes (Herberger et al., 2007). Biomarker studies in a panel of BTC cell lines revealed mutations and/or amplification of KRAS to be

associated with resistance, and high basal p-AKT levels to be associated with response to everolimus (Yeung et al., 2017). In 2014, a phase 2 Italian trial assessed **everolimus** activity in first or second-line in patients (n=39) with locally advanced, metastatic or recurrent BTCs. The mPFS and the mOS were 3.2 months and 7.7 months, respectively (Buzzoni et al., 2014). Another phase 2 study evaluated everolimus in patients with PIK3CA amplification/mutation and/or PTEN loss metastatic BTCs and in \geq 2 lines and observed no objective response (Kim et al., 2017). Everolimus, tested in monotherapy and in first-line (27 patients with metastatic BTCs) showed a mPFS and a mOS of 5.5 months, and 9.5 months (Lau et al., 2018).

Copanlisib is a PI3K inhibitor. A phase 2 trial evaluating copanlisib in combination with gemcitabine and cisplatin in patients with advanced BTC, in a first-line setting, is ongoing (BAY 80-6946).

4.4. RAF/MEK/ERK mitogen-activated protein (MAP) kinase inhibitors

The RAS/RAF/MEK/ERK MAPK pathway regulates cellular proliferation, survival, and migration, and is aberrantly activated in the majority of solid tumors, including BTCs. Alterations in this pathway have been reported in intra-hepatic CCAs (35%) and extra-hepatic CCAs (55%) (Churi et al., 2014).

MEK inhibitors have shown modest signs of activity in BTCs. **Selumetinib** has shown clinical activity as monotherapy in a phase 2 study on 28 patients, with a mPFS and a mOS of 3.7 months and 9.8 months, respectively (Bekaii-Saab et al., 2011). The ABC-04 study, a phase 1b evaluating selumetinib in combination with cisplatin and gemcitabine in first-line, showed a mPFS of 6.4 months (Bridgewater et al., 2016). It is being evaluated with CisGem in a phase 2 study (NCT02151084).

Trametinib was tested in a Japanese phase 2, single-arm study in patients with advanced BTCs refractory to gemcitabine-based therapy. On 20 patients, the mPFS was 10.6 weeks and 1-year OS was 20.0%. Only one patient had confirmed partial response (Ikeda et al., 2018). Trametinib has also been tested in combination with pazopanib (TKI inhibiting VEGFR) on 25 patients with advanced BTCs who received a median of 2 prior systemic therapies. The study did not achieve a statistically significant improvement in the 4-month PFS, with a mPFS of 6.4 months (Shroff et al., 2017).

Binimetinib was evaluated in a phase 1b study in combination with capecitabine in second-line (Bendell et al., 2017). The mPFS and mOS were 3.9 months and 8.0 months, respectively. Additional evaluations of binimetinib in combination with gemcitabine and cisplatin in phase 1/2 studies (NCT01828034, NCT02151084) are ongoing. Intermediate analysis of NCT01828034 study showed that six patients experienced partial responses and four experienced stable diseases among the 12 patients (Lowery et al., 2017).

Activating mutations of the Rapidly accelerated Fibrosarcoma B (BRAF) oncogene are present in approximately 5-10% of all human malignancies and lead to constitutive activation of the MAPK pathway. The most common BRAF mutation results in a single amino acid substitution of valine for glutamic acid at residue 600 (V600E). BRAF V600E mutation is a rare event in BTCs, accounting for only 1% of all subtypes, and mainly in intra-hepatic CCAs (Goeppert et al., 2014). Both genetic and epigenetic alterations play a major role in resistance to BRAF inhibitors by reactivation of the MAPK and/or the PI3K–Akt pathways. **Dual inhibition with BRAF and MEK inhibition** is one of the strategies to overcome this acquired resistance.

Dabrafenib and vemurafenib are inhibitors of the mutated BRAF kinase. Several case reports of dual BRAF and MEK inhibition in patients with BRAF mutant BTCs have shown important objective responses (Kocsis et al., 2017; Lavingia & Fakih, 2016; Loaiza-Bonilla, Clayton, Furth, O'Hara, & Morrissette, 2014). Vemurafenib in addition with an anti-EGFR and chemotherapy has been tested in a phase 2 basket trial for BRAF mutated non-melanoma cancers: on the 8 patients with BTCs included, one had a sustained partial response over a year (Hyman et al., 2015).

4.5. FGFR alterations

Fibroblast growth factors (FGFs) and FGFRs drive crucial developmental signaling pathways, which are responsible for many functions, including cell proliferation, survival (through the activation of PI3K–AKT or STAT signaling), migration and angiogenesis. As such, they are susceptible to be hijacked by cancer cells and have oncogenic roles in many cancers. FGFR genetic alterations (fusions, mutations, amplifications) occur mainly in intra-hepatic CCAs, in 10 to 15% of cases (Graham et al., 2014). FGFR2 gene fusions have been identified as an oncogenic driver in 10–20% of intra-hepatic CCAs. FGFR2 translocations are usually mutually exclusive of KRAS, IDH1/2, and BRAF mutations. BTCs with FGFR alterations seem to have a relatively indolent disease course (Churi et al., 2014).

Infigratinib (**BGJ398**), a pan-FGFR kinase inhibitor, was evaluated in a multicenter, open-label, phase 2 study for patients with advanced BTCs with FGFR alterations, in progression after prior therapy. The Disease control rate was 83.3% in patients with FGFR2 fusions. The mPFS was 5.8 months (Javle et al., 2018). It is currently being evaluated in a phase 3 study (NCT03773302).

Pemigatinib (**INCB054828**) is a potent, selective, oral inhibitor of FGFR isoforms 1, 2 and 3. The updated interim results of phase 2 study FIGHT-202 presented at European society of medical oncology in 2019 showed an ORR of 35.5% on 146 patients with advanced intra-hepatic CCAs with FGFR2 translocations (A. Vogel et al., 2019). The mPFS and mOS were 6.9 months and 21.1 months, respectively. A phase 3 study is currently recruiting to evaluate pemigatinib versus chemotherapy (NCT03656536).

TAS-120 is an irreversible FGFR1–4 inhibitor. A phase 1 trial demonstrated tolerability and preliminary evidence of clinical efficacy for patients with intrahepatic CCAs (Goyal, Arkenau, et al., 2017). A phase 2 study (NCT02052778) is ongoing.

Erdafitinib a pan-FGFR kinase inhibitor has been evaluated in an Asian phase 2 study on 14 patients with BTCs with FGFR alterations. The disease control rate was 83.3% the mPFS was 5.59 months. In 10 evaluable FGFR2+ patients, the disease control rate and the mPFS were 100% and 12.4 months, respectively (Park et al., 2019).

Rogaratinib, a pan-FGFR inhibitor, has been tested in vivo with good efficacy (Grünewald et al., 2019) and clinical trials are currently ongoing (NCT01976741, NCT03410693, NCT03473756).

Derazantinib (**ARQ 087**) has been tested in a phase 1/2 study, with patients with unresectable intra-hepatic CCAs with FGFR2 fusion (n=29). The disease control rate and the mPFS were 82.8% was 5.7 months, respectively (Mazzaferro et al., 2019). Derazantinib is currently being tested in a phase 2 study (NCT03230318).

4.6. IDH inhibitors

The normal function of IDH enzymes is to catalyze the conversion of isocitrate to α -ketoglutarate in the citric acid cycle. Mutated IDH enzymes acquire gain-of-function activity, converting α KG to the oncometabolite D-2-hydroxyglutarate. The resulting D-2-hydroxyglutarate accumulation competitively inhibits α -ketoglutarate-dependent enzymes, causing cellular metabolism alterations, epigenetic regulation, redox states, and DNA repair, all of which may contribute to carcinogenesis. Mutations in the genes encoding for these enzymes occur in various types of malignancies, including >80% of low-grade gliomas and secondary glioblastomas, ~60% of chondrosarcomas and ~10% of acute myeloid leukemias. For BTCs, it occurs mainly in intra-hepatic CCAs (25%) and IDH1 mutations are more common that IDH2 mutations (Borger et al., 2012; Goyal et al., 2015). The prognosis associated with IDH mutations remains controversial.

Concerning BTCs, **Ivosidenib** (AG-120) has been evaluated versus placebo in ClarIDHY, a phase 3 study on 185 patients with mutant IHD1 CCAs progressing after 1 or 2 prior therapies (Abou-Alfa et al., 2019). Ivosidenib improved mPFS: 2.7 vs 1.4 months (p<0.001). By intention-to-treat analysis, mOS was 10.8 vs 9.7 months (p=0.06) with 57% of placebo patient crossed over to ivosidenib. After statistical adjustment taking into account cross-over, hazard ratio was 0.46 (p<0.001).

4.7. Tropomyosin receptor kinases inhibitors

Genomic translocations with chromosomal fusion lead to the constitutive activation of tropomyosin receptor kinases (TRKs). Tyrosine kinases receptors fusions lead to overexpression of the chimeric protein, resulting in constitutively active, ligandindependent downstream signaling. Most common and studied tyrosine kinase fusions involve Anaplasic Lymphoma Kinase (ALK), ROS1, and Neurotrophic Tyrosine Receptor Kinase (NTRK) 1-2-3.

In BTCs, a Chinese study reported overexpression of TRKs in 20.5% of intrahepatic CCAs (Yang et al., 2014) and it is estimated that less than 5% CCAs harbor NTRK gene fusions (Hsiao, Zehir, Sireci, & Aisner, 2019). However, a recent European study retrospectively analyzed 106 patients with BTCs, with a confirmation cohort of 254 cases. TRKs were not expressed in the population, questioning the applicability of TRK inhibitors to European populations (Westphalen et al., 2019). Sporadic fusions of ROS1 (up to 8.7%) and ALK (2.6%) were also described (K.-H. Lee et al., 2015).

Larotrectinib, a highly selective TRK inhibitor, was evaluated in a phase 1/2 study for tumors with TRK fusions (A. Drilon et al., 2018). Larotrectinib induced an ORR of 75% with 71% of responses ongoing at 1 year. More than half of the patients remained progression-free at 1 year. Two patients with BTCs were included in the study, one achieving nearly 80% decrease of its initial tumor size. Therefore, larotrectinib (Vitrakvi) received an FDA – approval for use in patients with metastatic or unresectable solid tumors with an *NTRK* gene fusion and no satisfactory alternative treatment.

Entrectinib, an inhibitor of TRK, ROS1, and ALK, has also demonstrated impressive ORR (57 to 86%) in a phase 1 study in a selected population of solid tumors including BTCs (Alexander Drilon et al., 2017). A basket study of entrectinib for patients with tumors with NTRK 1/2/3, ROS1 or ALK fusions is ongoing (NCT02568267).

The results of a phase 2 trial evaluating **Crizotinib**, an ALK and c-Met inhibitor, for patients harboring an ALK, MET, or ROS1 alteration are awaited

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4.8. PARP inhibitors

IDH1/2 mutations induce a homologous recombination defect that renders tumor cells sensitive to poly ADP-ribose polymerase (PARP) inhibitors. This «BRCAness» phenotype of IDH mutant cells can be completely reversed by treatment with small molecule inhibitors of the mutant IDH1 enzyme. A multicenter retrospective analyzed 18 patients with BTCs with germline or somatic variants in BRCA1/2: 6 were extrahepatic CCAs and the rest intra-hepatic CCAs. Thirteen patients received platinumbased therapy and four were treated with PARP inhibitors, of whom 1 experienced sustained disease response with a PFS of 42.6 months (Golan et al., 2017). Starting from these observations, a basket phase 2 trial of **olaparib** for patients with metastatic solid tumors with *IDH1* or *IDH2* mutations including BTCs has been undertaken (NCT03212274).

4.9. c-met inhibitors

The binding of hepatocyte growth factor (HGF) to the receptor tyrosine kinase c-Met initiates a series of intracellular signals, that mediate embryogenesis and wound healing. However, in cancer cells, aberrant HGF/c-Met axis activation promotes tumor development and progression by stimulating the PI3K/AKT/ mTOR pathway, the MAPK pathway and the STAT pathway. In BTCs, c-MET overexpression is associated with poor prognosis and is detected in 12-25% of intra-hepatic CCAs and 0-16% of extra-hepatic CCAs (Terada, Nakanuma, & Sirica, 1998). c-MET amplification is detected in 7% of intra-hepatic CCAs (Ross et al., 2014). To inhibit c-

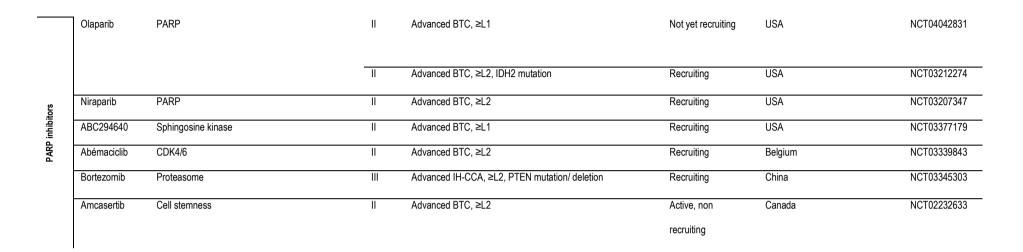
MET signaling, small kinase inhibitors, biological antagonists and monoclonal antibodies targeting either c-MET or HGF can be used.

In 2017 Goyal et al. tested **cabozantinib**, a TKI targeting VEGFR2 and MET, for previously treated patients with advanced BTCs. Cabozantinib demonstrated limited activity and significant toxicity. One patient with a MET-high tumor had a prolonged benefit from treatment, but patients were not selected depending on their MET expression (Goyal, Zheng, et al., 2017). A phase 2 study with **merestinib** (LY2801653) in addition to CisGem in first-line is ongoing (NCT02711553).

Table 1. Selected ongoing studies on targeted therapies in advanced BTCs
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	Drug	Target	Phase	Population	Status	Recruiting countries	NCT
							references
	Ramucirumab	VEGFR2, MET	lir	Advanced BTC, L1	Active, not recruiting	International	NCT02711553
			II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT02520141
ogenics	Apatinib	VEGFR2	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	China	NCT03427242
Anti-angiogenics							
Ant			II	Advanced IH-CCA, ≥L2	Recruiting	China	NCT03521219
	Regorafenib	VEGFR, FGFR, BRAF, PDGFR	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Active, non	USA	NCT02115542
					recruiting		
	Varlitinib	EGFR, HER2, HER4	11/111	Advanced BTC, L2	Active, non	International	NCT03093870
					recruiting		
ER			1/11	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Recruiting	South Korea / Singapore /	NCT02992340
d anti-ŀ						Taiwan	
iFR an			11/111	Advanced BTC, L2	Active, non	China	NCT03231176
Anti-EGFR and anti-HER					recruiting		
-	Trastuzumab	HER2	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L1, HER2+	Recruiting	South Korea	NCT03613168
						China	NCT03185988

	Erlotinib	HER1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Not yet recruiting	South Korea	NCT03110484	
	TAS0728	HER2/3	1/11	Advanced BTC, ≥L2, HER2/3+	Active, non	International	NCT03410927	
					recruiting			
	Afatinib	EGFR	I	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Recruiting	USA	NCT02451553	
	Copanlisib	РІЗК		Advanced BTC, L1	Active, non	USA	NCT02631590	
PI3K					recruiting			
	Selumetinib	MEK	II	Advanced BTC, L1	Active, non	Canada	NCT02151084	
MEK	otidida				recruiting			
	Merestinib	NTRK, MET, ROS1,	lir	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Active, non	International	NCT02711553	
S					recruiting			
TRK inhibitors	Entrectinib	NTRK, ROS1, ALK	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L1, NTRK 1/2/3, ROS1 or ALK fusion	Recruiting	International	NCT02568267	
TRK i				positive				
	Derazantinib	Pan-FGFR	II	Advanced IH-CCA, FGFR2 fusion +, ≥L2	Recruiting	International	NCT03230318	
itors	Infigratinib	FGFR 2		Advanced BTC, FGFR2 rearrangement, ≥L1	Recruiting	International	NCT03773302	
FGFR inhibitors	Pemigatinib	FGFR 1/2/3	III	Advanced BTC, FGFR2 rearrangement, ≥L1	Recruiting	International	NCT03656536	
Ĕ				Advanced BTC, FGFR2 rearrangement, ≥L1	Active, non	International	NCT02924376	
					recruiting			
	_							



Abbreviations: IIR: randomized phase II; ALK: anaplastic lymphoma kinase ; Rapidly accelerated Fibrosarcoma B ; BTC: biliary tract cancer; CDK: cyclin-dependent kinase; EGFR: Epidermal Growth Factor Receptor; FGFR: Fibroblasts Growth Factor Receptor; HER: Human epidermal growth factor receptor; IDH: Isocitrate Dehydrogenase; IH-CCA: intrahepatic cholangiocarcinoma; L1: first-line treatment; L2: second-line treatment; MET: Mesenchymal-Epithelial Transition factor ; NTRK: Neurotrophic tyrosine kinase; PARP: poly-ADP-ribose-polymerase; PI3K: phosphoinositide-3-kinase; PDGFR: Platelet-derived growth factor receptors; VEGFR: Vascular Growth Factor Receptor.

5. Immunotherapy

Check-point inhibitors have had a major impact on the clinical course of various types of malignancies in the last decade. However, their efficacy is limited to a few amount of patients. BTCs have a high mutational load, which could be predictive of the efficacy of immunotherapy (Nakamura et al., 2015). High level MSI has been found in about 10% of intrahepatic and extrahepatic CCAs and in 5% of gallbladder carcinoma (Silva et al., 2016). Expression of PD-L1 has been found in intra-hepatic CCAs in up to ~30 to 40% (Sabbatino et al., 2016).

The KEYNOTE-028 phase 1b basket trial evaluated **pembrolizumab**, an anti-PD1 antibody, for advanced BTCs with prior progression on standard therapy and enrolled 104 patients (M. Ueno et al., 2018). The mPFS and mOS were 2.0 months and 9.1 months, respectively. In patients with PD-L1 CPS \geq 1 compared to those with a CPS < 1, the mPFS and mOS were 1.9 months vs 2.1 months and 7.2 months vs 9.6 months, respectively. The KEYNOTE-158, a phase 2 basket trial of pembrolizumab in patients with advanced solid tumors -including BTCs- progressing on standard of care therapy is currently ongoing (NCT02628067).

Nivolumab, another anti-PD1 antibody, alone or in combination with cisplatin plus gemcitabine was tested in a phase 1 study (Makoto Ueno et al., 2019). Patients with advanced BTCs refractory to gemcitabine-based treatment regimen received nivolumab as monotherapy. Chemotherapy-naive patients with advanced BTCs received nivolumab and cisplatin plus gemcitabine chemotherapy (n=30). In the monotherapy cohort, mPFS and mOS were 1.4 months and 5.2 months, respectively. In the combined therapy cohort, mPFS and mOS were 4.2 months and 15.4 months, respectively. Phases 2 are ongoing, studying in BTCs either nivolumab in monotherapy, (NCT02829918), either in combination with chemotherapy (gemcitabine/cisplatin) or with another immunotherapy (ipilimumab; NCT03101566).

A Chinese study reported the preliminary results of the use of **lenvatinib plus nivolumab and pembrolizumab** in 14 patients with intra-hepatic CCAs in an observational study. All patients had received previously ≥ 2 anticancer therapies. The disease control rate was 92.9%. The mPFS was 5.9 months. High tumor mutational burden from 450-gene NGS panel was strongly associated with a better therapeutic response (Lin et al., 2018).

Selected ongoing studies on immunotherapy for advanced BTCs are reported in **Table 2**.

	Drug	Target	Phase	Population	Status	Recruiting	NCT
						countries	references
	Nivolumab plus ipilimumab	PD-1,	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Active, non	USA	NCT03101566
		CTLA-4			recruiting		
					Recruiting	International	NCT02834013
therapy	Pembrolizumab	PD-1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	International	NCT02628067
In monotherapy or combotherapy				Advanced BTC, L2	Recruiting	South Korea	NCT03110328
notherap)	Nivolumab	PD-1		Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Active, non	USA	NCT02829918
ln mo					recruiting		
	M7824	PD-L1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT03833661
	Adoptive transfer of tumor infiltrating lymphocytes	TIL	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT03801083
	KN035	PD-L1	III	Advanced BTC, L1	Recruiting	China	NCT03478488
	Durvalumab	PD-L1	III	Advanced BTC, L1	Recruiting	International	NCT03875235
	Durvalumab plus	PDL-1,	IIR	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Recruiting	Germany	NCT03473574
	tremelimumab	CTLA-4	II	Advanced BTC, L1	Recruiting	South Korea	NCT03046862
Ус			II	Advanced BTC, L2	Recruiting	France	NCT03704480
With chemotherapy	Pembrolizumab	PD-1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Recruiting	Europe	NCT03260712
chemo			Ш	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT03111732
With			III	Advanced BTC, L1	Recruiting	USA	NCT04003636
	Nivolumab	PD-1	lb/II	Advanced BTC, L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT03785873
	Toripalimab	PD-1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Recruiting	China	NCT03796429
	SHR-1210	PD-1		Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Recruiting	China	NCT03486678
	SHR-1210 + apatinib	PD-1	IIR	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	China	NCT03092895
With other	Nivolumab + DKN-01	PD-1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT04057365

Table 2. Selected ongoing studies on immunotherapies in advanced BTCs

	Nivolumab + rucaparib	PD-1	Ш	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT03639935
	Nivolumab + entinostat	PD-1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT03250273
	(HDAC inhibitor)						
	Pembrolizumab +	PD-1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	International	NCT03797326
	lenvatinib						
	Pembrolizumab +	PD-1	I	Advanced BTC, L2	Active, non	International	NCT02443324
	Ramucirumab				recruiting		
	Pembrolizumab +	PD-1	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L1	Active, non	USA	NCT02703714
	sargramostim				recruiting		
	Avelumab + Regorafenib	PD-L1	1/11	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	France	NCT03475953
	Atezolizumab + cometinib	PD-L1	IIR	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Active, non	USA	NCT03201458
					recruiting		
	Durvalumab and	PDL-1,	II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT03482102
aments	Tremelimumab	CTLA-4					
nal trets			II	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	USA	NCT02821754
locoregional tretaments	Nivolumab +/- ipilimumab	PDL-1,	lir	Advanced BTC, ≥L2	Recruiting	Denmark	NCT02866383
loc		CTLA-4					

Abbreviations: IIR: randomized phase II; BTC: biliary tract cancer; CTLA-4: cytototxic T-lymphocyte-associated antigen 4; GM-CSF: granulocyte-macrophage colony stimulating factor; HDAC: histone desacetylase; L1: first-line treatment; L2: second-line treatment; PD-1: programmed death 1; PD-L1: programmed death ligand-1

6. Conclusions

Advanced BTCs harbor a poor prognosis, with a poor chemosensitivity. Genome sequencing and comprehensive transcriptomic highlighted the diversity of BTCs' subtypes and appear essential in order to propose a precision medicine. FGFR inhibitors and IDH inhibitors are promising emerging targeted therapies, mainly for intra-hepatic CCAs. Other targeted therapies such as anti-HER2 therapies or BRAF inhibitors need further evaluation, with combination strategies. Immunotherapy, either alone or in addition to chemotherapy or other treatments, is still under evaluation in

several ongoing studies. The multiples interactions between signaling pathways of BTCs carcinogenesis make combination therapies interesting.

Conflicts of Interest statement

Dr. Palmieri and Dr. Lavole received honoraria from Servier outside the submitted work. Pr. Coriat received honoraria from AAA, Ipsen, Novartis, Merck, Amgen, Roche, Pfizer, Biologyx and Bayer outside the submitted work. The remaining authors disclose no conflicts. We wish to confirm that there has been no significant financial support for this work that could have influenced its outcome.

Financial Disclaimers

This research did not receive any specific grant from funding agencies in the public, commercial, or not-for-profit sectors.

Author contributions

We confirm that the manuscript has been read and approved by all named authors and that there are no other persons who satisfied the criteria for authorship but are not listed. We further confirm that the order of authors listed in the manuscript has been approved by all of us.

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