

# The Prevalence of Hepatitis C Virus Infection in Oral Lichen Planus in an Ethnic Chinese Cohort of 232 Patients

Yu Zhou<sup>1</sup>, Lu Jiang<sup>1</sup>, Jie Liu<sup>2</sup>, Xin Zeng<sup>1\*</sup>, Qian-ming Chen<sup>1\*</sup>

<sup>1</sup>State Key Laboratory of Oral Diseases, West China College of Stomatology, Sichuan University, Chengdu, China

<sup>2</sup>Section of Oral Biology, College of Dentistry, the Ohio State University, Columbus, USA

## Abstract

**Aim** Oral lichen planush (OLP) is a chronic inflammatory disease, and has been reported to have a correlation with hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection in some regional investigations. In this study, we investigated the prevalence of HCV in patients with oral lichen planus in an ethnic Chinese cohort.

**Methodology** The antibody of HCV infection was detected by using enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay. Moreover, the clinical characteristics of whole the cohort have also been studied, such as the gender, age, clinical type, habits and social factors.

**Results** Of all 232 patients, the antibody of HCV infection was detected positive in 4 patients (1.72%) using enzyme-

linked immunosorbent assay. It was lower than that in control group of 2.5%, but not significant ( $P=0.309$ ). The positive rate of HCV antibody in the erosive type ones (4.2%) was higher than that in the reticular type ones (1.0%), but this difference was proved to be not significant ( $P=0.389$ ). The clinical characteristics of whole cohort, such as the gender, age, clinical type, habits and social factors, showed the outcome obtained in the present study were similar to that of our previous study.

**Conclusion** HCV may play no etiological role in oral lichen planus in ethnic Chinese OLP patients.

**Keywords** hepatitis C virus, oral lichen planus, epidemiology, Chinese cohort

Received Dec. 23, 2009; Revision accepted Mar. 6, 2010

## Introduction

Lichen planus (LP) is a chronic inflammatory disease that affects skin and mucous membranes of squamous cell origin. The oral form of lichen planus (OLP) seems more common, chronic, and recalcitrant than the cutaneous type, with prevalence ranging from 0.5% to 2% in the general population (Edwards and Kelch, 2002), persisting up to more than 20 years without spontaneous remission (Miles and Howard, 1996). OLP causes bilateral white striations, papules, or plaques on the buccal mucosa, tongue, and gingivae. Erythema, erosions, and blisters may or may not be present (Bermejo-Fenoll and López-Jornet, 2006). Since the characteristics of persistence and anxiety eruption (aching and malignant transformation),

OLP remarkably cut down the patient's quality of life.

However, the etiology of OLP is still undefined. To date, some scholars advocate that the central role may be accredited to T lymphocytes, mast cells, intercellular adhesion molecule-1 (ICAM-1) and major histocompatibility complex class II antigens (Dissemond, 2004). The factor of psychosomatic disorders has also been involved. Ivanovski *et al.* showed that prolonged stress evidenced by hypochondriasis, depression, and hysteria may contribute to psychosomatization in the OLP subjects (Ivanovski *et al.*, 2005). Other authors prefer genetic predisposition by demonstrating that OLP affected families have an increased frequency of HLA-B7 (De Moura Castro Jacques *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, several studies

have shown that hepatitis C virus (HCV) infection is supposed to be a potential factor increasing the OLP susceptibility, and OLP has been reported as an extra-hepatic manifestation of HCV infection (Campisi *et al.*, 2004). However, it is controversial since the incidence of the coexistence of OLP and HCV varies remarkably in different geographic regions (Al Robaee and Al Zolibani, 2006).

In China, the studies of prevalence of HCV in OLP patients in the last 10 years consistently demonstrated that HCV was significantly associated with OLP, with prevalence ranging from 11.7% to 29.3% (Zhang *et al.*, 1998; Huang, 1999; Wu, 2000; Huang *et al.*, 2000; Zhang and Wang, 2000). However, the size of the studied group (from 31 to 80) in these studies seems too small to be completely convincing. To counteract, we conduct this larger-scale study to determine whether the correlation between HCV infection and OLP exists or not in ethnic Chinese population. Meanwhile, the clinical and epidemic characteristics of the OLP patients have also been recorded and analysed.

## Patients and methods

### Subjects

This study was held in West China Hospital of Stomatology, Sichuan University, and ratified by the Committee for the Use of Human Subjects in Research, Sichuan University. A total of 232 consecutive patients with OLP were enlisted in from January 2005 to December 2006. Meanwhile, 240 gender and age-matched patients with other oral mucosal diseases (recurrent aphthous ulcer, burning mouth syndrome, fissured tongue, geographic glossitis, chronic cheilitis) were recruited as the control group. All the recruits voluntarily provided signed written informed consent. Based on the definition of OLP by World Health Organization (Kramer *et al.*, 1978) and other recent report (van der Meij *et al.*, 2003), the patients were all clinically and partially pathologically confirmed when necessary by proficient specialists in oral medicine and oral pathology with more than 10 years experience. The typical clinical pictures were shown (Figures 1, 2 and 3).



**Figure 1** Reticular form of oral lichen planus: white striations on the buccal mucosa



**Figure 2** Atrophic/erythematous form of oral lichen planus: erythematous mucosa with white striations



**Figure 3** Erosive form of oral lichen planus: combination of ulceration, erythematous, and keratosis

### Serologic examination

The sera of the patients were screened for the anti-HCV antibodies by using the third generation enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA III; Shanghai Kehua Biotechnology Co., Ltd, China) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Briefly, first, place 100  $\mu$ L sample dilution plus 10  $\mu$ L patient's serum into the testing well, 100  $\mu$ L HCV<sup>+</sup> serum into 2 wells for positive control, 100  $\mu$ L HCV<sup>-</sup> serum into 2 wells for negative control, and 100  $\mu$ L sample dilution into 1 well for blank control, then incubate at 37°C for 30 minutes. Second, discard the solution and then wash all the wells 5 times. Third, place 100  $\mu$ L enzyme-compound into each well, and incubate the plate at 37°C for 30 minutes again, then discard the solu-

tion and wash the wells as before. Subsequently, add chromogenic reagent A and B 50  $\mu$ L respectively into each well, after the incubation at 37°C for 30 minutes, place a stop buffer of 50  $\mu$ L into each well. Finally, assess the value of optical density (OD value) at a wave length of 450 nm within 10 minutes. The blank control is used for zero setting, and samples were judged to be positive when the OD value were equal to or larger than COV (COV=0.1\* mean OD valve of positive control + mean OD value of negative control), and others were considered to be negative.

The latest largest-scale investigation (assuming ELISA assessment) of HCV-antibody screening in general population (Liu and Wei, 2007) was used as the control. In this study, the rate of HCV infection in the general population had been demonstrated as 2.5%.

### Questionnaire survey

The questionnaire comprised various topics. These were: gender, age, illness course, complaint, educational level, occupation, living condition, smoking, drinking, eating habits, lesion form, lesion site, lesion surrounding (dental cusp, oral hygiene), malignant transformation, as well as the presence of systemic disease, and skin involvement. As to the classification of the lesion, we categorized OLP into 3 clinical forms based on the literature (Silverman *et al.*, 1985; Chainani-Wu *et al.*, 2001; Xue *et al.*, 2005). These are reticular, atrophic/erythematous, and erosive. If the patient had more than one lesion at the point of examination, this

would be ranked as the most severe form.

### Statistical analysis

Data analysis was performed with the Statistical Package for the Social Science (Windows 10.0, SPSS Inc., USA). The Chi square test was used to compare lesion forms according to symptoms as well as HCV affection rate in reticular and erosive lesion type. The Rank-sum test was used to compare the lesion form according to gender, occupation, inhabitation, dental margin, smoking and alcohol consumption, systematic disease, and eating habits. Rank-correlation test was used to compare the lesion form according to age, educational level and oral hygiene. A probability of 0.05 or less was considered significant.

## Results

### The situation of HCV infection in OLP patients

Four patients (1.72%) demonstrated positive antibodies against HCV, which was lower than the prevalence of 2.5% in control group, but not significant ( $P=0.791>0.05$ ). Among the 4 HCV infected patients, 2 were detected liver cirrhosis, and the other 2 were chronic hepatitis C.

### The clinical characteristics of the HCV positive OLP patients

As shown in Table 1, in the present study, one

**Table 1** Pheromone of HCV infected OLP patients

Case No	1	2	3	4
Gender/age(year)	Male/44	Female/42	Female/52	Female/59
Liver disease	chronic hepatitis C	chronic hepatitis C	liver cirrhosis	liver cirrhosis
Occupation	Yes/brain worker	Yes/brain worker	Yes/brain worker	Retired/brain orker
Education experience (year)	15	15	15	12
Inhabit condition	City/cohabiting	City/cohabiting	City/cohabiting	City/alone
Smoking/drinking	Nil/nil	Nil/nil	Nil/nil	Nil/nil
Eating habit	Spicy	Spicy	Spicy	mild
Skin involvement	No	No	No	No
Systemic disease		rheumatism		
Malignant transformation	No	No	No	No
Lesion type	erosive	erosive	reticular	erosive
Lesion site	Lip	Buccal	Buccal	Buccal/tongue/lip
Course of disease (month)	5	24	9	61

male and three female patients were detected positive antibody against HCV. These were all in 40–59 years group, had endured OLP from 5 to 61 months, with a mean of 25 months. Of the four HCV infected OLP patients in our study, three had sharp dental cusps around the lesion, and two were in poor oral hygiene, three patients favored spicy diet, consumed no cigarettes or alcohol. All the four HCV infected OLP patients were urban brain workers with education experience from 12 to 15 years, one case had retired and lived alone. Of the four HCV infected OLP patients, one suffered rheumatism except for HCV infection and OLP, and none were found with skin involved or malignant transformed. Three of the four HCV infected OLP patients presented erosive lesion, and the

other one manifested reticular lesion, and all complained of soreness. The infection rate of HCV in the erosive type OLP patients (4.2%) was higher than that in the reticular type ones (1.0%), but this difference was proved to be not significant ( $P=0.389>0.05$ ).

### The clinical characteristics of the total studied OLP patients

Apart from HCV detection, we also analyzed the epidemic characteristics of OLP, especially the correlation between precipitating factors (such as educational level, occupation, living conditions, smoking, drinking, eating habits, lesion surrounding) and lesion form (Tables 2–5).

**Table 2** Lesion profiles in different age and gender

	Lesion type <i>n</i> (%)			Total 232 (100)
	Reticular 100 (43.1)	Atrophic/ erythematous 61 (26.3)	Erosive 71 (30.6)	
<b>Age group (years)*</b>				
18–19	2 (2.0)	1 (1.6)	1 (1.4)	4 (1.7)
20–29	9 (9.0)	4 (6.6)	4 (5.6)	17 (7.3)
30–39	27 (27.0)	14 (21.4)	18 (25.4)	59 (25.4)
40–49	29 (29.0)	11 (23.0)	20 (28.2)	60 (25.9)
50–59	23 (23.0)	22 (46.0)	19 (26.7)	64 (27.6)
60–	10 (10.0)	9 (14.8)	9 (12.7)	28 (12.1)
<b>Gender**</b>				
male	23 (23.0)	15 (24.6)	26 (36.6)	64 (27.6)
female	77 (77.0)	46 (75.4)	45 (63.4)	168 (62.4)

\* $P=0.000$ , \*\* $P=0.16$ .

**Table 3** Incidence of site involvement in each lesion form of OLP

Site	Total <i>n</i> (% , <i>N</i> =232)*	Reticular <i>n</i> (% , <i>N</i> =100)	Atrophic/erythematous <i>n</i> (% , <i>N</i> =61)	Erosive <i>n</i> (% , <i>N</i> =71)
Buccal	185 (79.8)	75 (75.0)	48 (78.7)	62 (87.3)
Dorsal tongue	50 (21.6)	28 (28.0)	8 (13.1)	14 (19.7)
Floor of mouth and ventral tongue	33 (14.2)	15 (15.0)	4 (6.5)	14 (19.7)
Gingiva	31 (13.4)	16 (16.0)	10 (16.4)	5 (7.0)
Vestibular groove	30 (14.9)	13 (13.0)	11 (18.0)	6 (8.5)
Lower lip	16 (12.9)	9 (9.0)	5 (8.2)	2 (2.8)
Upper lip	2 (0.8)	1 (1.0)	1 (16.4)	0 (0)
Palate	3 (1.3)	3 (3.0)	0 (0)	0 (0)

\*% of subgroup.

**Table 4** Features of each subtype of oral lichen planus

	Reticular 100 (43.1)	Atrophic/erythematous 61 (26.3)	Erosive 71 (30.6)	Total 232 (100)	<i>P</i>
<b>Symptom</b>					0.002
Yes	9 (9.0)	34 (55.7)	61 (85.9)	104 (44.8)	
No	91 (91.0)	27 (44.3)	10 (14.1)	128 (55.2)	
<b>Occupation</b>					0.009
Brain worker	26 (26.0)	20 (32.8)	27 (38.0)	73 (31.5)	
Manual worker	38 (38.0)	26 (42.7)	27 (38.0)	91 (39.2)	
Retiring and unemployment	36 (36.0)	15 (24.5)	17 (24.0)	68 (29.3)	
<b>Educational level</b>					0.000
0–6	17 (17.0)	14 (23.0)	19 (26.8)	50 (21.6)	
7–9	22 (22.0)	16 (26.3)	17 (23.9)	55 (23.7)	
10–12	18 (18.0)	15 (25.0)	15 (21.1)	48 (20.7)	
13–15	22 (22.0)	10 (16.4)	14 (19.7)	46 (19.8)	
16—	21 (21.0)	6 (9.8)	6 (8.5)	33 (14.2)	
<b>Inhabited condition</b>					0.076
Living alone	5 (5.0)	4 (6.6)	4 (5.6)	12 (5.1)	
Cohabiting	95 (95.0)	57 (93.4)	67 (94.4)	220 (94.9)	
<b>Inhabited place</b>					0.532
City	72 (72.0)	43 (70.5)	45 (63.3)	160 (69.0)	
Suburb	8 (8.0)	10 (16.4)	7 (9.9)	25 (10.8)	
Country	20 (20.0)	8 (13.1)	19 (26.8)	47 (20.2)	
<b>Amount of calculus<sup>#</sup></b>					0.301
0	17 (17.0)	8 (13.1)	8 (11.3)	33 (14.2)	
1	38 (38.0)	31 (50.8)	30 (42.3)	99 (42.7)	
2	24 (24.0)	10 (16.4)	14 (19.7)	48 (20.7)	
3	21 (21.0)	12 (19.7)	19 (26.7)	52 (22.4)	
<b>Dental margin</b>					0.011
Sharp	32 (32.0)	22 (36.1)	33 (46.5)	87 (37.5)	
Mutic	68 (68.0)	39 (63.9)	38 (53.5)	145 (62.5)	
<b>Eating habit</b>					0.000
Spicy	50 (50.0)	47 (77.5)	46 (64.8)	143 (61.6)	
Bland	50 (50.0)	14 (22.5)	25 (35.2)	89 (38.4)	
<b>Smoking</b>					0.04
Yes	26 (26.0)	7 (11.4)	12 (16.9)	45 (19.4)	
No	74 (74.0)	54 (88.6)	59 (83.1)	187 (80.6)	
<b>Drinking</b>					0.197
Yes	25 (25.0)	9 (14.7)	15 (21.1)	49 (21.1)	
No	75 (75.0)	52 (85.3)	56 (78.9)	183 (88.9)	
<b>Systematic disease</b>					0.005
Yes	22 (22.0)	20 (32.8)	26 (36.6)	72 (31.0)	
No	78 (78.0)	41 (67.2)	41 (63.4)	160 (69.0)	

Data given as *n* (%). # oral hygiene was evaluated by the amount of calculus as follow: (0) No calculus present. (1) Supragingival calculus covering not more than third of the exposed tooth surface. (2) Supragingival calculus covering more than one third but not more than two thirds of the exposed tooth surface or the presence of individual flecks of subgingival calculus around the cervical portion of the tooth or both. (3) Supragingival calculus covering more than two third of the exposed tooth surface or a continuous heavy band of subgingival calculus around the cervical portion of the tooth or both.

**Table 5** Profiles of the two OLP patients with Malignant transformation

Case	Age /year	Gender	Site	Clinical type at the point of transformation	Smoking	Drinking	Course /month	Systemic diseases
1	52	male	Dorsum of tongue	erosive	yes	yes	180	hepatitis B
2	66	male	lower lip	erosive	no	yes	38	gastric ulcer

The mean age of patients was ( $45.9 \pm 13.3$ ) years, with end points of 18 and 76. The majority (53.4%) of patients were aged 40 to 59 years, and females were more than males in the ratio of 2.6:1. Reticular form was the most common (43.3%), followed by atrophic/erythematous (26.4%) and erosive (30.3%). Two male patients (0.86%) with erosive lesion were recorded with malignant transformation, which was significantly higher than the prevalence in general male population, which is reported to be about 8.7/100 000 (Guo and Zhang, 2003) ( $P=0.000$ ). Age, educational level, occupation, smoking, systematic disease, sharp dental margin around lesions as well as the eating habit had statistically significant correlations with the lesion form ( $P<0.05$ ). In contrast, the lesion form was unrelated to gender, alcohol consumption, living conditions and poor oral hygiene ( $P>0.05$ ). In the results, no remarkable difference was found from that of our former study in 767 Chinese OLP patients (Chen *et al.*, 2008).

## Discussion

Oral lichen planus is a chronic inflammatory mucocutaneous disease, whose etiology is still mysterious. To date, immunologic disorder, mental disease, genetic predisposition, systemic illness and HCV infection *etc* are proved to play important role in OLP pathogenesis by some scholars.

As yet, the correlation between HCV and OLP is still controversial. First, some confirmative evidence has been found in laboratory tests. Pilli *et al.* have manifested the HCV-specific T-cell response at the site of the lesion (Pilli *et al.*, 2002), and HCV RNA has been detected in epithelial cells from oral lichen planus lesions using *in situ* hybridization through other experiments (Arrieta *et al.*, 2000). On the other hand, the outcome of epidemic investigations varies considerably in different geographic regions. In Japan, Italy, Nige-

ria, Thailand (Nagao *et al.*, 1995; Carrozzo *et al.*, 1996; Figueiredo *et al.*, 2002; Daramola *et al.*, 2003; Klanrit *et al.*, 2003; Lodi *et al.*, 2004), the prevalence of HCV infection in OLP patients ranging from 8.33% to 60% was statistically higher than the controls. However, reports from other areas, such as Holland, Germany, Serbia, Rio de Janeiro (van der Meij *et al.*, 2000; Friedrich *et al.*, 2003; Bokor-Bratic *et al.*, 2004; Cunha *et al.*, 2005) showed no difference in the HCV infection rate between the patients with OLP and the common population. In this study, we investigated the prevalence of HCV in 232 ethnic Chinese OLP patients and no association was found between these two diseases. Why does it vary so considerably in different geographic regions? Human leukocyte antigen (HLA) may play a very important role in the variation. OLP had been reported associated with HLA-DRB1\*09 and DRB1\*07 in Chinese patients (Li *et al.*, 2006), HLA-DRB1\*0101 in Mexican patients (Luis-Montoya *et al.*, 2007), HLA-DR3 in Swedish patients (Homey *et al.*, 2000), HLA-DR2 in Israeli Jewish patients (Shai and Halevy, 1992), and HLA-DR9 in Japanese patients (Watanabe *et al.*, 1986). Carrozzo *et al.* proposed that HCV-related OLP appears to be associated with the human leukocyte antigen (HLA) class II allele HLA-DR6. This could partially explain the particular geographic heterogeneity of the association between HCV and OLP (Carrozzo *et al.*, 2001). Excluding the aforementioned standpoint, the difference of study sample size, age and sex structure, as well as sensitivity of the assay methods may also affect the results. Regarding the age structure, HCV peaks dramatically over the fifth decade of age. Therefore, the age of the enrolled ones would affect the result considerably. Concerning assay method, for example, in the Japan study (Nagao *et al.*, 1995), polymerase chain reaction (which is more sensitive than ELISA, but with a high percentage of false positives) was used for the HCV RNA assay.

Chung *et al.* had reported that, in southern Taiwan, OLP was significantly associated with HCV, particularly atrophic-erosive type (Chung *et al.*, 2004), which is consistent with the conclusion which Ghodsi *et al.* had obtained in the Tehran cohort (Ghodsi *et al.*, 2004). Similar results were found in our study. The infection rate of HCV in the erosive type of OLP was 4.2%, which was higher than that in the reticular type lesions, however, no significant results were obtained.

Moreover, some other factors, such as smoking, systemic disease, eating habits, as well as sharp dental margin around lesions should have more attention in clinical management. Routine further consultation is necessary for screening malignant transformation.

## Conclusion

In conclusion, HCV seems to play no etiologic role in ethnic Chinese OLP patients. To clarify the correlation between OLP and HCV, more active epidemic investigation and penetrating laboratory tests should be carried out.

## Acknowledgements

This work was supported by grants from the National Science Funds for Talented Professionals (No.30725041), the National Basic Research Program of China (2008CB517307, 2006CB504303), the National Natural Science Foundation of China (No. 30300387, 30471891, 30672323).

## References

- Al Robaee AA, Al Zolibani AA (2006). Oral lichen planus and hepatitis C virus: is there real association? *Acta Dermatovenerol Alp Panonica Adriat*, 15(1): 14–19.
- Arrieta JJ, Rodriguez-Inigo E, Casqueiro M, Bartolomé J, Manzarbeitia F, Herrero M, *et al.* (2000). Detection of hepatitis C virus replication by *in situ* hybridization in epithelial cells of anti-hepatitis C virus-positive patients with and without oral lichen planus. *Hepatology*, 32(1): 97–103.
- Bermejo-Fenoll A, López-Jornet P (2006). Familial oral lichen planus: presentation of six families. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*, 102(2): e12–e15.
- Bokor-Bratic M (2004). Lack of evidence of hepatic disease in patients with oral lichen planus in Serbia. *Oral Dis*, 10(5): 283–286.
- Campisi G, Fedele S, Lo Russo L, Di Fede O, Aricò P, Craxì A, *et al.* (2004). HCV infection and oral lichen planus: a weak association when HCV is endemic. *J Viral Hepat*, 11(5): 465–470.
- Carrozzo M, Francia Di Celle P, Gandolfo S, Carbone M; Conrotto D, Fasano ME, *et al.* (2001). Increased frequency of HLA-DR6 allele in Italian patients with hepatitis C virus-associated oral lichen planus. *Br J Dermatol*, 144(4): 803–808.
- Carrozzo M, Gandolfo S, Carbone M, Colombatto P, Broccoletti R, Garzino-Demo P (1996). Hepatitis C virus infection in Italian patients with oral lichen planus: a prospective case-control study. *J Oral Pathol Med*, 25(10): 527–533.
- Chainani-Wu N, Silverman S Jr, Lozada-Nur F, Mayer P, Watson JJ (2001). Oral lichen planus: patient profile, disease progression and treatment responses. *J Am Dent Assoc*, 132(7): 901–909.
- Chen QM, Zhou Y, Zhou ZT, Sun Z, Liu HW, Gao WX, *et al.* (2008). Oral lichen planus in an ethnic Chinese cohort of 767 patients: a cross-sectional multicenter survey. *Hong Kong Dent J*, 5: 31–37.
- Chung CH, Yang YH, Chang TT, Shieh DB, Liu SY, Shieh TY (2004). Relationship of oral lichen planus to hepatitis C virus in southern Taiwan. *Kaohsiung J Med Sci*, 20(4): 151–159.
- Cunha KS, Manso AC, Cardoso AS, Paixão JB, Coelho HS, Torres SR (2005). Prevalence of oral lichen planus in Brazilian patients with HCV infection. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*, 100(3): 330–333.
- Daramola OO, Ogunbiyi AO, George AO (2003). Evaluation of clinical types of cutaneous lichen planus in anti-hepatitis C virus seronegative and seropositive Nigerian patients. *Int J Dermatol*, 42(12): 933–935.
- De Moura Castro Jacques C, Cardozo Pereira AL, Cabral MG, Cardoso AS, Ramos-e-Silva M (2003). Oral lichen planus part I: epidemiology, clinics, etiology, immunopathogeny, and diagnosis. *Skinmed*, 2(6): 342–347.
- Dissemond J (2004). Oral lichen planus: an overview. *J Dermatolog Treat*, 15(3): 136–140.
- Edwards PC, Kelsch R (2002). Oral lichen planus: clinical presentation and management. *J Can Dent Assoc*, 68(8): 494–499.
- Figueiredo LC, Carrilho FJ, de Andrade HF, Migliari DA (2002). Oral lichen planus and hepatitis C virus infection. *Oral Dis*, 8(1): 42–46.
- Friedrich RE, Heiland M, El-Moawen A, Dogan A, von Schrenck T, Löning T (2003). Oral lichen planus in

- patients with chronic liver diseases. *Infection*, 31(6): 383–386.
- Ghodsí SZ, Daneshpazhooh M, Shahi M, Nikfarjam A (2004). Lichen planus and hepatitis C: a case-control study. *BMC Dermatol*, 4: 6.
- Guo J, Zhang ZY (2003). Investigation of apoptosis mechanism of arsenic trioxide on oral squamous cell carcinoma. *Chin J Stomatol*, 38(1): 20–23.
- Homey B, Wang W, Soto H, Buchanan ME, Wiesenborn A, Catron D, et al. (2000) Cutting edge: the orphan chemokine receptor G protein-coupled receptor-2 (GPR-2, CCR10) binds the skin-associated chemokine CCL27 (CTACK/ALP/ILC). *J Immunol*, 164(7): 3465–3470.
- Huang H, Sun G, Yi DY, Jiang ZX, Zhang XX (2000). Study on the relationship between oral lichen planus and hepatitis C virus infection. *J Compr Stomatol*, 16(1): 38–40.
- Huang HF (1999). A preliminary study of hepatitis C virus infection in the patients with oral lichen planus. *J Pract Stomatol*, 15: 112–114.
- Ivanovski K, Nakova M, Warburton G, Pesevska S, Filipovska A, Nares S, et al. (2005). Psychological profile in oral lichen planus. *J Clin Periodontol*, 32(10): 1034–1040.
- klanrit P, Thongprasom K, Rojanawatsirivej S, Theamboonlers A, Poovorawan Y (2003). Hepatitis C virus infection in Thai patients with oral lichen planus. *Oral Dis*, 9(6): 292–297.
- Kramer IR, Lucas RB, Pindborg JJ, Sobin LH (1978). Definition of leukoplakia and related lesions: an aid to studies on oral precancer. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol*, 46(4): 518–539.
- Li HY, Xu LD, Tang GY (2006). Association of HLA-DR/DQ with oral lichen pianus. *J Shanghai Jiaotong Unive (Med Sci)*, 26(10): 1127–1129.
- Liu LJ, Wei L (2007). Epidemic characteristics of hepatitis C virus. *Infect Dis Inform*, 20(5): 261–64.
- Logi G, Giuliani M, Majorana A, Sardelia A, Bez C, Demarrosi F, et al. (2004). Lichen planus and hepatitis C virus: a multicentre study of patients with oral lesions and a systematic review. *Br J Dermatol*, 151(6): 1172–1181.
- Luis-Montoya P, Yamamoto-Furusho JK, Vega-Memije E, Rodríguez-Carreón A, Ruiz-Morales JA, Vargas-Alarcón G, et al. (2007). HLA-DRB1\*0101 is associated with the genetic susceptibility to develop lichen planus in the Mexican Mestizo population. *Arch Dermatol Res*, 299(8): 405–407.
- Miles DM, Howard MM (1996). Diagnosis and management of oral lichen planus. *Dermatol Clin*, 14(2): 281–290.
- Nagao Y, Sata M, Tanikawa K, Itoh K, Kameyama T (1995). Lichen planus and hepatitis C virus in the northern Kyushu region of Japan. *Eur J Clin Invest*, 25(12): 910–914.
- Pilli M, Penna A, Zerbini A, Vescovi P, Manfredi M, Negro F, et al. (2002). Oral lichen planus pathogenesis: a role for the HCV-specific cellular immune response. *Hepatology*, 36(6): 1446–1452.
- Shai A, Halevy S (1992). Lichen planus and lichen planus-like eruptions: pathogenesis and associated diseases. *Int J Dermatol*, 31(6): 379–384.
- Silverman S Jr, Gorsky M, Lozada-Nur F (1985). A prospective follow-up study of 570 patients with oral lichen planus: persistence, remission, and malignant association. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol*, 60(1): 30–34.
- van der Meij EH, Schepman KP, van der Waal I (2003). The possible premalignant character of oral lichen planus and oral lichenoid lesions: a prospective study. *Oral Surg Oral Med Oral Pathol Oral Radiol Endod*, 96(2): 164–171.
- van der Meij EH, van der Waal I (2000). Hepatitis C virus infection and oral lichen planus: a report from the Netherlands. *J Oral Pathol Med*, 29(6): 255–258.
- Watanabe T, Ohishi M, Tanaka K, Sato H (1986). Analysis of HLA antigens in Japanese with oral lichen planus. *J Oral Pathol*, 15(10): 529–533.
- Wu GY (2000). Oral lichen planus and hepatitis C virus infection assessing the association between them. *J Clin Stomatol*, 16(1): 47–48.
- Xue JL, Fan MW, Wang SZ, Chen XM, Li Y, Wang L (2005). A clinical study of 674 patients with oral lichen planus in China. *J Oral Pathol Med*, 34(8): 467–72.
- Zhang L, Wang ZY(2000). The relationship between OLP and HCV. *Stomatol*, 20(2): 80–81.
- Zhang SL, Xu GQ, Cao HK, Zhou ZT (1998). The significance of hepatitis C virus in oral lichen planus pathogenesis. *J Pract Stomatol*, 14(4): 253–255.

\*Corresponding authors: Qian-ming Chen, Xin Zeng

Address: State Key Laboratory of Oral Diseases, West China College of Stomatology, Sichuan University, No.14, 3<sup>rd</sup> Section, Renmin South Road, Chengdu 610041, China

Tel & Fax: 86 28 85405251 E-mail: qmchen@scu.edu.cn, zengxin22@163.com