

1 **Prevalence of mineralisation of the tendon of the supraspinatus muscle in dogs without clinical**  
2 **evidence of lameness.**

3

4 Keywords: Supraspinatus, mineralisation, dog, lameness

5 Summary

6 Introduction; Mineralisation of the tendon of the supraspinatus muscle has been reported as a  
7 common finding in dogs with thoracic limb lameness. It is not clear if the mineralisation is a clinically  
8 significant cause, or a secondary effect, of lameness.

9 The aim of this retrospective study was to determine the prevalence of mineralisation of the tendon  
10 of the supraspinatus muscle in dogs presented to the clinic for reasons other than lameness and where  
11 lameness was not evident at the time of presentation.

12 Methods; Dogs undergoing computed tomography (CT) of the thorax were identified from the clinical  
13 records. The dogs selected were those presented for clinical issues other than lameness and with no  
14 history of lameness. The CT scans were screened to identify the presence or otherwise of  
15 supraspinatus mineralisation. Signalment was recorded on all the cases.

16 Results; Supraspinatus mineralisation was detected in 4 out of 99 dogs (4%) with all four cases found  
17 in male dogs. Medium to large breed dogs were most frequently affected, with a mean age of 9 years.  
18 Unilateral mineralisation of the left thoracic limb only was identified.

19 Clinical Significance. The prevalence of supraspinatus mineralisation was low in this population of non-  
20 lame dogs. This low level when compared to the higher prevalence level found in lame dogs, suggests  
21 that supraspinatus mineralisation could be associated with lameness in dogs either as an indirect  
22 result of lameness or as a primary cause.

23

24 Introduction

25 The canine shoulder joint is a diarthrodial, ball and socket joint formed between the humerus and the  
26 glenoid cavity. It is a relatively unstable joint, which requires stabilisation by muscles, tendons,  
27 ligaments and, to a lesser extent, the glenoid labrum (Sager and others 2009). The rotator cuff is a  
28 group of four muscles, namely supraspinatus, infraspinatus, teres minor and subscapularis, involved  
29 in maintaining the humeral head within the glenoid cavity (Drake and others 2010). The canine  
30 supraspinatus muscle originates from the whole surface of the supraspinatus fossa and inserts on to  
31 the greater tubercle of the humerus (Sager and others 2009).

32 In dogs, calcification of the supraspinatus tendon is a well-recognised finding, but little evidence exists  
33 as to whether this pathology is a source of pain. The prevalence of mineralisation of the supraspinatus  
34 tendon in lame dogs has been reported as 24.7% (22 out of 89) in one study (Maddox and others 2013)  
35 although it is not clear if the mineralisation was a cause of lameness or a result of the change in  
36 biomechanics due to an altered gait.

37 Calcifying tendinopathy of the human shoulder is a painful disorder with single or multiple deposits in  
38 or around the tendon of the muscle (De Carli and others 2014). It can affect different tendons, but it  
39 is particularly common in the supraspinatus and biceps brachii tendons (Goldman 1989) with an  
40 incidence of between 7.5 and 22% (Castillo-González and others 2014). Calcification of the tendon of  
41 the supraspinatus muscle is frequently bilateral in both canine and human shoulders (Muir and  
42 Johnson 1994, Uhthoff and Sarkar 1989).

43 Identification of these lesions in dogs has historically used radiographs. Currently, in humans MRI and  
44 ultrasound are the primary modalities used to image the shoulder, whereas in dogs CT and or  
45 radiographs are used. A number of reasons may account for this discrepancy and include cost,  
46 availability of scanners and also availability of ultrasonographers with sufficient skills in  
47 musculoskeletal ultrasonography. Dogs also require a general anaesthetic for MRI as compared to  
48 sedation only for a CT scan. Studies have also shown that the sensitivity and specificity of MRI is  
49 variable depending upon the sequences performed and the pathology present (Murphy and others

50 2008). It is also common to be simultaneously assessing the elbows of canine patients for which CT  
51 is a much better modality than radiography(Korbel and others 2001). The overall image quality and  
52 resolution of CT has significantly improved over the last ten years allowing for greater identification  
53 of lesions in the thoracic limb. The role of CT for imaging lesions of the shoulder, in particular  
54 mineralisation of the supraspinatus tendon, has been well characterised (Maddox and others 2013).

55 Limited research has gone into the relevance of mineralisation in the tendon of the canine  
56 supraspinatus muscle and it is therefore unknown if this mineralisation is of clinical significance. Muir  
57 and Johnson explained that in their study of the cases of shoulder calcifying tendinopathy, around fifty  
58 percent of the scapulohumeral joints were asymptomatic (Muir and Johnson 1994) and the study by  
59 Maddox and others suggested that although the supraspinatus lesion was often present, the  
60 significant pathology was more often not in the shoulder (52/94 dogs)(Maddox and others 2013).

61 The aim of this study was to document the prevalence of the lesion in non -lame dogs to add further  
62 to the literature of this pathology of unknown significance. The hypothesis for this current study was  
63 that mineralisation of the tendon of the supraspinatus muscle has a low prevalence in non-lame dogs.

64

## 65 Objective

66 There is no data in the veterinary literature describing the prevalence of this mineralisation in dogs  
67 that have no history of lameness. The objective of the study was to determine this prevalence in a  
68 group of dogs undergoing a CT examination for reasons other than lameness and to identify if there is  
69 a difference between non-lame and lame animals when comparing this cohort with historical data  
70 from the literature.

71

## 72 Method

73 The SharePoint Imaging Computer Tomography database at the Small Animal Teaching Hospital,  
74 University of Liverpool were searched by the lead author for dogs that had undergone a CT scan of the  
75 thorax over a twelve-month period between 2018-2019 using the search terms 'canine' and  
76 'computed tomography'. The retrieved cases were reviewed to confirm that the complete  
77 glenohumeral joints and surrounding musculature were included in the scan -where they were not,  
78 the case was excluded from the study. Client owned dogs of any age, breed, sex and weight were  
79 considered. Any dogs with a history of lameness recorded in their clinical records, who were lame on  
80 presentation or who had tumours of the thoracic limbs were excluded. CT examinations were carried  
81 out using an 80 slice multidetector CT scanner (Aquilion Prime 80, Toshiba Medical Systems Corp,  
82 Tokyo, Japan.) with the dogs positioned in sternal recumbency with the limbs cranially positioned. Left  
83 and right limbs were scanned simultaneously. Scanning parameters were dependent on the area of  
84 interest (primarily thorax in these cases) but most images were acquired using 1mm slice collimation,  
85 120kV and 100-150mAs. Reconstructions were generated with a 1 mm slice thickness using a standard  
86 (soft tissue) kernel and a sharp (lung) kernel. Reconstructions with both standard and sharp algorithms  
87 were available for review. Images were viewed on a computer workstation using proprietary software  
88 (Horos (Horos Project, Pixmeo SARL, Geneva, Switzerland). Each CT scan was assessed by the primary  
89 author (RA) and positive findings confirmed by a board-certified radiologist (TM) using 3D multiplanar  
90 reconstructions (MPR) with a bone window (window level 700 HU/window width 4000 HU). Shoulders  
91 of every CT scan were assessed individually. On the CT scan, the scapular spine of the right shoulder  
92 was found initially, and the right supraspinatus muscle located. Any mineralisation findings were  
93 recorded against the patient ID and which shoulder it was in. The length and width of the  
94 mineralisation was measured using an inbuilt measuring tool, and a transverse image of the  
95 mineralisation in the muscle was taken. If no mineralisation was found in one supraspinatus muscle,  
96 then it would be recorded as negative. The left shoulder was similarly evaluated. The age, breed,  
97 neuter status, sex and weight of all the dogs with mineralisation of their supraspinatus muscles was  
98 recorded.

## 100 Results

101 Ninety-nine cases met the inclusion criteria for this study. Breeds represented were: Labrador  
102 Retriever (15), crossbreed (12), Springer Spaniel (9), Boxer (6), Cocker Spaniel (6), Border Collie (5),  
103 CKCS (4), English Springer Spaniel (4), German Shepherd (4), and 34 dogs of another 27 breeds. 47.5%  
104 of the study population were female dogs (4.0% entire, 43.5% neutered), and 52.5% of the study  
105 population were male dogs (17.2% entire, 35.3% neutered). The mean age of the dogs was 9 years old  
106 (range 0.7 to 14). The mean weight was 21.7kg (3.1kg to 49.4kg).

107 A total of four cases were found to have mineralisation in the tendon. The left thoracic limb was  
108 unilaterally affected in all cases. The age range of these four cases was 7 to 10 years old, and the  
109 weight range was 28.9kg to 49.4kg. All mineralisations were in male dogs, with three neutered and  
110 one entire. Breeds affected were the Boxer (n=2) and one each in the German Shepherd and  
111 Greyhound.

112 The size of the supraspinatus mineralisation varied. The smallest mineralisation of 3.67mm diameter  
113 (circular in shape) was found in the youngest and also the lightest of the dogs, which was a Greyhound.  
114 The Boxer breed dogs had mineralisations of 7.16mm x 4.61mm and 1.43mm x 7.93mm. The  
115 mineralisation in the German Shepherd dog, which was the heaviest of these 4 cases, was 11.6mm x  
116 3.28mm. Figure one shows a 3D surface rendered image of a supraspinatus mineralisation.

117 Mineralisation was also found in the bicep muscles in four dogs and enthesophytes were identified in  
118 two cases, but these were different dogs from those with supraspinatus mineralisation.

## 119 Discussion

120 Calcifying tendinopathy of the supraspinatus tendon has been possibly associated with lameness in  
121 the dog but it has also been reported as an incidental finding (Canapp and others 2016, Maddox and  
122 others 2013). Similar changes exist in the human shoulder, with 80% of the mineralisations occurring

123 in the supraspinatus tendon, where up to 20% are noted as incidental findings in asymptomatic  
124 patients (Serafini and others 2009). Mineralisation has been suggested to be a cause of lameness in  
125 the dog, potentially as an impingement on the biceps' tendon, although there is conflicting and weak  
126 evidence to support this (Canapp and others 2016, Lafuente and others 2009, Laitinen and Flo 2000).  
127 The lesions in those studies, unlike the findings of this one, were often bilateral with a unilateral  
128 lameness. Where they were surgically removed, some improvement was noted but the authors  
129 concluded this was not necessarily due to the surgery itself (Lafuente and others 2009). In humans  
130 there are reports that show that 7% of symptomatic people have calcification of the tendon whereas  
131 7-20% of asymptomatic patients have similar findings (Speed and Hazleman 1999) .

132 Our study results suggest that supraspinatus mineralisation is present in non-lame dogs, although at  
133 a significantly lower frequency, which could imply a link to thoracic limb lameness. This prevalence is  
134 lower than the Maddox study which reported a 24.7% prevalence looking at the same pathology in  
135 lame dogs albeit with a different study population (Maddox and others 2013). Care must be taken  
136 when interpreting results from different study populations but the large difference in prevalence of  
137 the lesions between the two studies, where the major selection criteria differed only in lame or non-  
138 lame, is of interest. Our study results suggest that supraspinatus mineralisation is still present in non-  
139 lame dogs, but at a significantly lower frequency and so it is possibly linked to thoracic limb lameness.  
140 Supraspinatus mineralisation was shown to be more prevalent in dogs presented with lameness albeit  
141 the localisation of the lameness was frequently not the shoulder itself (Maddox and others 2013) so  
142 the role/ effect of the lesion is not currently understood.

143 The primary initiating factor in causing calcium deposits is considered to be hypoxia of the tendon  
144 (Worrall and others 1990) and, in a microangiographic study, the area of the supraspinatus adjacent  
145 to the greater tubercle of the humerus was identified as a hypovascular area predisposing to hypoxia  
146 (Kujat 1990). This leads to fibrocartilaginous transformation and the depositing of calcium crystal  
147 deposits within the tendon. It is possible that any alterations to the gait of an animal could potentially

148 lead to altered blood flow to a region that is already predisposed to hypoxia and therefore potentially  
149 increase the mineralisation of the tendon. This may help explain why the prevalence of supraspinatus  
150 mineralisation is higher in lame dogs but more as an effect of the lameness rather than a primary  
151 cause.

152 Mineralisation of the biceps' tendon was identified in 4 dogs (4%) which was similar to the finding of  
153 the Maddox study where 6/89 (6.7%) of cases had the same mineralisation and the Muir and Johnson  
154 paper who reported a 2.1% prevalence (Maddox and others 2013, Muir and Johnson 1994). The four  
155 dogs in our study were different from those that had mineralisation of the supraspinatus tendon. As  
156 reported in the Maddox paper, the significance there was unclear as the majority of dogs with  
157 mineralisation of any periarticular muscles of the shoulder were either not lame or had lameness  
158 localised to another region (Maddox and others 2013). In our study, a reduced number of  
159 mineralisations' were noted in the supraspinatus tendon but similar numbers of mineralisation of the  
160 biceps' tendon were recorded. The clinical significance of this is unclear, as none of our cases were  
161 reported as lame and, in the Maddox study, no association was found between mineralisation of any  
162 peri-articular structure and shoulder pain and/or lameness (Maddox and others 2013) although a low  
163 statistical power could explain this too. Based on this, the association between mineralisation of a  
164 peri-articular muscle(s) of the shoulder and its contribution to lameness cannot be completely  
165 excluded.

166 From the results there does not seem to be a genetic disposition but, due to the low prevalence in this  
167 study, a larger sample size would be required to confirm this. In this study 33.3% of Boxers were  
168 affected (2/6), 50% of Greyhounds (1/2) and 25% of German Shepherds (1/4). The dogs that were  
169 found to be affected were all medium to large breeds, which suggest that larger dogs are more prone  
170 to this condition. Similar findings were reported in both Maddox (2013) and Muir and Johnson (1994)  
171 studies.

172 Similar numbers of male and female dogs used in this study, therefore no sex bias existed, but all of  
173 the cases of supraspinatus mineralisation's were found in male dogs. The veterinary literature is  
174 inconsistent with respect to a sex predisposition. The study by Laitinen and Flo found an even split of  
175 supraspinatus mineralisation in both male and female lame dogs, whereas Maddox found lame female  
176 dogs to be more affected (Laitinen and Flo 2000, Maddox and others 2013). Both of these contradict  
177 the sex predisposition suggested by the findings in this study. This could reflect the low prevalence in  
178 this study or that there is no general sex predisposition for supraspinatus mineralisation in dogs. Of  
179 the four affected dogs, three of them were neutered and one entire.

180 The selection criteria had the effect of biasing towards an older population. Although the range of  
181 ages was from 7 months to 14 years, the majority of animals were over five years old giving an overall  
182 mean of nine years. Although we report that the lesion was only found in older dogs, we cannot  
183 definitively say that only older patients are affected. A lack of younger patients may have biased the  
184 data and certainly other studies have reported finding these lesions in animals as young as four  
185 months. (Canapp and others 2016, Laitinen 1994). Those dogs were identified as lame so it would be  
186 reasonable to expect to find mineralisation as per the study by Maddox and others who identified this  
187 as a common finding in lame dogs.(Maddox and others 2013)

188 The affected cases were generally heavier, supporting the findings of another study (Lafuente and  
189 others 2009). In that study the clinical significance of this finding was uncertain with respect to  
190 lameness and, given the findings of our study, it is hypothesised that there is no clinical relevance.  
191 Weight, along with age of the dog, did however appear to be positively associated with the size of the  
192 lesion. The size of the mineralisation does not appear to be affected by whether the dog has been  
193 neutered or not.

194 The left thoracic limb was the only one affected in this study but, due to the low prevalence, it is not  
195 possible to determine if this is representative of a larger population. In one other study the left  
196 thoracic limb was overrepresented potentially supporting the theory that the left limb is more



197 susceptible to this condition but greater numbers are needed to confirm this (Laitinen and Flo 2000).  
198 Lateralisation of this lesion has been reported in humans where the condition is seen more in the  
199 dominant arm (El Rassi and others 2016). Dogs do have a degree of natural mechanical asymmetry, so  
200 called handedness, but this is much less apparent than in humans. In one study where a 10%  
201 asymmetry was set as the threshold, ten out of 19 dogs were right dominant and eight were symmetric  
202 which may account for the lesion being commonly found bilaterally (Colborne and others 2011). A  
203 meta-analysis of canine and feline lateralisation showed that 68% of dogs showed either a right or left  
204 sided paw preference with an even split between the two categories (Ocklenburg and others 2019). It  
205 is not possible from this study to determine if the lesion was isolated to the dominant side as the  
206 animals were not assessed for handedness and, as lesions were only noted on the left side, this would  
207 be in contrast to the handedness studies that confirmed asymmetry or right sided dominance.

208

#### 209 Limitations

210 A major limitation of this study is the possible inclusion of some lame dogs as it was not possible for  
211 every case to have been examined by an orthopaedic specialist either before or after the CT scan. All  
212 owners were asked specifically about lameness however and cases excluded if lameness was reported.  
213 The impact of including potentially lame dogs in this study is, in our opinion, minimal given the rare  
214 occurrence of the lesion in our findings. Based on the current literature, inclusion of lame dogs would  
215 have been expected to increase the number of dogs with mineralisation rather than reduce it. A  
216 prospective study comparing lame and non-lame dogs undergoing CT scans, with a full orthopaedic  
217 history and examination by an orthopaedic surgeon would help clarify this potential discrepancy.

218

219 Whether or not patient signalment, body weight, and side of lameness influences the prevalence of  
220 mineralisation cannot be determined from this study, as it is possible that our results may  
221 underrepresent the condition in the non-lame population. There were 36 breeds represented, with

222 only one dog in 21 of those breeds included in the study. The results are suggestive of there being no  
223 specific breed predisposition, although medium to large dogs appear to be most affected which are  
224 the category of dogs most susceptible to shoulder lameness.

225 The CT scans were not all performed with the same slice thickness as the cases were being assessed  
226 for different potential, non-orthopaedic related, pathologies. They were also not reconstructed with  
227 the same algorithms. It is therefore possible that lesions may have been missed albeit due to the small  
228 slice thicknesses used, these lesions would have been very small.

229 This was a retrospective study; therefore, we were limited in the amount of details we could collect.  
230 For example, not all of the cases had a weight for the patient, therefore we had less weights to make  
231 potential correlations with the rest of the data. Follow up on these cases was also not possible to find  
232 out if the cases with supraspinatus muscle mineralisation became lame following the CT examination.

233

#### 234 Conclusion

235 The results from this study indicate that mineralisation of the tendon of the supraspinatus muscle is  
236 less prevalent in non-lame dogs when compared to the prevalence of the lesion in lame dogs in the  
237 historical data of thus proving the hypothesis. Although this may suggest that mineralisation is a  
238 potential cause of lameness, there is no strong evidence to support this and may just be a  
239 consequence of altered biomechanics or an incidental finding. Further studies are needed to evaluate  
240 the mechanical effects of lameness on this region in particular to assess changes in loading and blood  
241 supply in the lame leg. The results support the previously published data that medium to large breed,  
242 older dogs are most affected by this supraspinatus mineralisation. There was also a positive  
243 correlation between the weight and age of the dog and the size of the mineralisation.

244 There is a need for additional studies with a larger population size in order to assess this mineralisation  
245 prevalence in a larger number of dog breeds. A larger population size is also more likely to give more

246 accurate results of the prevalence of supraspinatus mineralisation in non-lame dogs. This will  
247 hopefully help establish if there is a sex predisposition to supraspinatus mineralisation, as this study  
248 opposes the findings of other previous studies in this area. Prospective instead of retrospective studies  
249 will be best, as any dogs which were found to have supraspinatus mineralisation can be followed to  
250 establish if lameness occurs post identification or if it remains sub-clinical.

251 This study has indicated that this is a unilateral condition in non-lame dogs. These results have also  
252 identified that the left thoracic limb appears to be more affected, which agrees with some previous  
253 studies.

#### 254 Acknowledgement

255 The authors would like to thank Dr Tom Maddox for his help in reviewing the images and input into  
256 preparing and reviewing this manuscript.

#### 257 Conflict of Interest

258 No conflicts of interest of interest have been declared

#### 259 References

260

- 261 Canapp, S. O., Canapp, D. A., Carr, B. J., Cox, C. & Barrett, J. G. (2016) Supraspinatus Tendinopathy in  
262 327 Dogs: A Retrospective Study. *Veterinary Evidence* **1**
- 263 Castillo-González, F. D., Ramos-Álvarez, J. J., Rodríguez-Fabián, G., González-Pérez, J. & Calderón-  
264 Montero, J. (2014) Treatment of the calcific tendinopathy of the rotator cuff by ultrasound-  
265 guided percutaneous needle lavage. Two years prospective study. *Muscles, ligaments and*  
266 *tendons journal* **4**, 220-225
- 267 Colborne, G. R., Good, L., Cozens, L. E. & Kirk, L. S. (2011) Symmetry of hind limb mechanics in  
268 orthopedically normal trotting Labrador Retrievers. *American Journal of Veterinary Research*  
269 **72**, 336-344
- 270 De Carli, A., Pulcinelli, F., Rose, G. D., Pitino, D. & Ferretti, A. (2014) Calcific tendinitis of the shoulder.  
271 *Joints* **2**, 130-136
- 272 Drake, R., Vogl, W. & Mitchell, A. (2010) Glenohumeral Joint. Elsevier, Philadelphia (PA)
- 273 El Rassi, G., Matta, J., Haidamous, G., Brogard, P., Clavert, P., Kempf, J. F. & Irani, J. (2016) Arthroscopic  
274 treatment of non-homogeneous calcifying tendinitis of the rotator cuff. *Springerplus* **5**
- 275 Goldman, A. B. (1989) Calcific tendinitis of the long head of the biceps brachii distal to the  
276 glenohumeral joint: plain film radiographic findings. *American Journal of Roentgenology* **153**,  
277 1011-1016

278 Korbel, J., Wilcken, R. & Huskamp, B. (2001) Computed tomographic examination of the canine elbow  
279 joint. *Kleintierpraxis* **46**, 325-+

280 Kujat, R. (1990) The Microangiographic Pattern of the Rotator Cuff of the Dog. *Archives of Orthopaedic*  
281 *and Trauma Surgery* **109**, 68-71

282 Lafuente, M. P., Fransson, B. A., Lincoln, J. D., Martinez, S. A., Gavin, P. R., Lahmers, K. K. & Gay, J. M.  
283 (2009) Surgical Treatment of Mineralized and Nonmineralized Supraspinatus Tendinopathy in  
284 Twenty-four Dogs. *Veterinary Surgery* **38**, 380-387

285 Laitinen, O. (1994) Prospective clinical study of biodegradable poly-L-lactide implant as an  
286 augmentation device with fascia lata in cranial cruciate ligament repair in the dog: early  
287 results. *Veterinary and Comparative Orthopaedics and Traumatology* **7**, 51-55

288 Laitinen, O. M. & Flo, G. L. (2000) Mineralization of the supraspinatus tendon in dogs: a long-term  
289 follow-up. *Journal Of The American Animal Hospital Association* **36**, 262-267

290 Maddox, T. W., May, C., Keeley, B. J. & McConnell, J. F. (2013) Comparison Between Shoulder  
291 Computed Tomography And Clinical Findings In 89 Dogs Presented For Thoracic Limb  
292 Lameness. *Veterinary Radiology & Ultrasound* **54**, 358-364

293 Muir, P. & Johnson, K. A. (1994) Supraspinatus And Biceps Brachii Tendinopathy In Dogs. *Journal Of*  
294 *Small Animal Practice* **35**, 239-243

295 Murphy, S. E., Ballegeer, E. A., Forrest, L. J. & Schaefer, S. L. (2008) Magnetic resonance imaging  
296 findings in dogs with confirmed shoulder pathology. *Veterinary Surgery* **37**, 631-638

297 Ocklenburg, S., Isparta, S., Peterburs, J. & Papadatou-Pastou, M. (2019) Paw preferences in cats and  
298 dogs: Meta-analysis. *Laterality: Asymmetries of Body, Brain and Cognition* **24**, 647-677

299 Sager, M., Herten, M., Ruchay, S., Assheuer, J., Kramer, M. & Jager, M. (2009) The Anatomy of the  
300 Glenoid Labrum: A Comparison between Human and Dog. *Comparative Medicine* **59**, 465-475

301 Serafini, G., Sconfienza, L. M., Lacelli, F., Silvestri, E., Aliprandi, A. & Sardanelli, F. (2009) Rotator Cuff  
302 Calcific Tendinitis: Short-term and 10-year Outcomes after Two-Needle US-guided  
303 Percutaneous Treatment— Nonrandomized Controlled Trial. *Radiology* **252**, 157-164

304 Speed, C. A. & Hazleman, B. L. (1999) Calcific tendinitis of the shoulder. *New England Journal of*  
305 *Medicine* **340**, 1582-1584

306 Uhthoff, H. K. & Sarkar, K. (1989) Calcifying tendinitis. *Baillière's Clinical Rheumatology* **3**, 567-581

307 Worrall, J. G., Phongsathorn, V., Hooper, R. J. L. & Paice, E. W. (1990) Racial Variation in Serum  
308 Creatinine Kinase Unrelated to Lean Body Mass. *Rheumatology* **29**, 371-373

309