The term *metabolism* is derived from the Greek *metabol*, meaning “to change.” It includes the broad array of chemical pathways that are necessary for normal development and homeostasis. In practice, clinicians generally use the term *metabolism* in reference to energy utilization for anabolism or catabolism. Alternatively, intermediary metabolism describes the myriad cellular pathways that convert energy sources from one form to another (e.g., citric acid cycle). The emerging field of *metabolomics* is based on the premise that the identification and measurement of metabolic products will enhance our understanding of physiology and disease.

Over the years, the classification of metabolic diseases has extended beyond traditional pathways involved in fuel metabolism to include disorders such as lysosomal storage diseases or connective tissue diseases. Thus, metabolic diseases really reflect disorders of cell biology. For example, lysosomal storage diseases (Chap. 361) result from a variety of defects, usually in a lysosomal enzyme, causing accumulation of a substrate within the lysosome. Certain lipodystrophies and cardiomyopathies can be caused by mutations in lamin A, a structural protein in the nuclear envelope. Membrane defects (Chap. 365), usually involving transporters of amino acids, sugars, or ions, cause disorders such as cystinuria, Hartnup’s disease, or Wilson’s disease. Connective tissue diseases (Chap. 363) frequently involve defects in collagen synthesis or structure (osteo- genesis imperfecta, Ehlers-Danlos syndrome, Alport’s syndrome) or in other extracellular matrix structural proteins such as fibrillin (Marfan syndrome). Many metabolic disorders originate from defects in enzymes involved in the synthesis or degradation of amino acids, carbohydrates, lipids, purines, or pyrimidines. (Chaps. 359, 362, 364). Lipoprotein disorders (Chap. 336) are caused by defects in a wide array of cellular pathways including membrane receptors (LDL-R), enzyme defects (lipoprotein lipase), carrier proteins (apoB100), or transporters (ABCA1). In some instances, metabolic abnormalities induce compensatory physiologic responses that reflect the interactions of multiple different metabolic pathways. For example, the metabolic syndrome (Chap. 242) includes a constellation of clinical features (central obesity, hypertriglyceridemia, low high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, hyperglycemia, and hypertension). It likely has multiple genetic and environmental origins. Cushing’s syndrome reflects the metabolic effects of excess cortisol on multiple tissues (Chap. 342).

This broader definition results in a plethora of metabolic diseases, numbering in the thousands. Fortunately, comprehensive reference sources exist, such as the Online Metabolic and Molecular Bases of Inherited Disease (OMMBID): (http://genetics.accessmedicine.com/) and the Online Mendelian Inheritance in Man (OMIM): (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/entrez/query.fcgi?db=OMIM). The study of metabolic diseases has been invaluable for advancing our understanding of human genetics by providing insight into principles such as patterns of inheritance, variable expressivity, phenotypic variation, and novel approaches to therapy, including screening programs, blood and organ transplantation, gene therapy, and enzyme replacement (Chap. 61).

This atlas provides a visual survey of selected metabolic disorders with references to the topics elsewhere in the text. The authors encourage submission of additional illustrations that might be used to facilitate learning among our peers and thereby enhance the recognition and care of patients with these disorders.


**Figure e41-3** Podagra with gouty inflammation of the first metatarsophalangeal (MTP) joint. Note the swelling and erythema of the left first MTP. (Courtesy of Kevin J. Knoop, MD, MS; with permission.) See Chaps. 333 and 359.

**Figure e41-4** Gout. Large tophi of gout located in and around the right knee. (Courtesy of Daniel L. Savitt, MD; with permission.) See Chaps. 333 and 359.

**Figure e41-5** Gout. The finger is an unusual site for gouty arthritis. Examination of the synovial fluid confirmed the diagnosis. (Courtesy of Alan B. Storrow, MD; with permission.) See Chaps. 333 and 359.


Figure e41-9  Early and late radiographs of Paget’s disease of the tibia, taken when the male patient was 45 years of age (A) and when he was 65 years of age (B). (Source: HB Skinner: Current Diagnosis & Treatment in Orthopedics, 4th ed. New York, McGraw-Hill, 2007, www.accessmedicine.com.) See Chap. 355.


Figure e41-12  Papular eruptive xanthomas.  

A. Multiple, discrete, red-to-yellow papules becoming confluent on the elbow of an individual with uncontrolled diabetes mellitus; lesions were present on both elbows and buttocks.  


Figure e41-13  Forms of xanthomas and other lipid deposits frequently seen in familial hypercholesterolemia homozygotes.  

A. Arcus corneae.  

B, C, E, and F. Cutaneous planar xanthomas, which usually have a bright orange hue.  


Figure e41-14  Examples of xanthomas in type III hyperlipoproteinemic subjects.  

A. Tuberoeruptive xanthomas of the elbows.  

B. Tuberoeruptive xanthomas of the digits and xanthomas of the palmar creases (xanthoma strata palmaris) (arrows). (Courtesy of Dr. Thomas P. Bersot; with permission.) See Chap. 356.

Figure e41-15  A 17-year-old patient with abetalipoproteinemia with generalized weakness, kyphoscoliosis, and lordosis. (Courtesy of Drs. Peter Herbert, Gerd Assmann, Antonio M. Gotta, Jr., and Donald Fredrickson; with permission.) See Chap. 356.
Mucopolysaccharidosis type IH (Hurler’s syndrome) in a 4-year-old boy. Diagnosis was made at the age of 15 months, at which time he had developmental delay, hepatomegaly, and skeletal involvement. At the time of the picture, the patient had short stature, an enlarged tongue, persistent nasal discharge, stiff joints, and hydrocephalus. Verbal language skills consisted of four to five words. The patient had a severe hearing loss and wore hearing aids. (Source: CR Scriver, AL Beaudet, WS Sly, D Valle, eds: The Metabolic and Molecular Bases of Inherited Disease online, 8th ed. New York, McGraw-Hill, www.ommbid.com.) See Chap. 361.

Growth and development in two patients with type Ia glycogen storage disease. A. Patient at age 7 years and at age 39 years. B. Another type Ia patient at age 10 years, and follow-up at age 33 years. Both patients survive despite their disease not being adequately treated. Note that the abdomen is less protuberant with age. Hypoglycemia also improves with age. In adulthood, however, both patients continue to be short, and both have gout, multiple liver adenomas, and a progressive renal disease. (Source: CR Scriver, AL Beaudet, WS Sly, D Valle, eds: The Metabolic and Molecular Bases of Inherited Disease online, 8th ed. New York, McGraw-Hill, www.ommbid.com.) See Chap. 362.

Progressive myopathy in a patient with type IIIa glycogen storage disease. The patient has a debrancher deficiency in both liver and muscle (subtype IIIa). As a child, he had hepatomegaly, hypoglycemia, and growth retardation. After puberty, he no longer had hepatomegaly, and his final height is normal. Note the muscle wasting in the lower legs and both hands at age 44 years (left panel); this progressed to a pronounced muscle atrophy at age 53 years (two right panels). (Source: CR Scriver, AL Beaudet, WS Sly, D Valle, eds: The Metabolic and Molecular Bases of Inherited Disease online, 8th ed. New York, McGraw-Hill, www.ommbid.com.) See Chap. 362.


Figure e41-22  Ochronotic pigmentation of the femur of a 56-year-old alkaptonuric patient. (Courtesy of Dr. H. W. Edmonds of the Washington Hospital Center, Washington, DC; with permission.) See Chap. 364.

Figure e41-23  Clusters of dark-red to blue angiokeratomas (telangiectases) on the buttocks (A) and in the umbilical area (B) of a hemizygote with Fabry disease. (Source: CR Scriver, AL Beaudet, WS Sly, D Valle, eds: The Metabolic and Molecular Bases of Inherited Disease online, 8th ed. New York, McGraw-Hill, www.ommbid.com.) See Chap. 361.


Figure e41-25  “Cherry red” spot in the eye of a Tay-Sachs patient. See Chap. 361. (From http://www.nei.nih.gov/resources/eyegene.asp.)
Figure e41-27  Anterior view of patients with different forms of lipodystrophy.  

A. Congenital generalized lipodystrophy: a 16-year-old girl with generalized loss of fat, acromegaloïd features, severe acanthosis nigricans affecting axillae and abdomen, umbilical hernia. (From A Garg et al: J Clin Endocrinol Metab 84:3390, 1999; with permission.)  

B. Familial partial lipodystrophy, Dunnigan variety: a 43-year-old woman with marked loss of subcutaneous fat from both the limbs and trunk and excess fat deposition in the face, chin, supraclavicular area, and labia majora. (From JM Peters et al: Nat Genet 18:292, 1998; with permission.)  

C. Acquired generalized lipodystrophy: a 10-year-old boy who developed generalized loss of fat that also affected the palms and soles after panniculitis at the age of 3 months.  

D. Acquired partial lipodystrophy: a 30-year-old woman with onset of lipodystrophy at age 14 years shows loss of fat from the face, neck, upper limbs, trunk, and anterior thighs. There is accumulation of excess fat in the hips and other regions of lower limbs.  

Figure e41-26  Kayser-Fleischer ring.  

This develops in Wilson’s disease from copper deposition in Descemet’s membrane, producing brownish discoloration of the peripheral cornea. It should not be confused with the yellow-white lipid ring of arcus senilis, which is common in the elderly and occasionally signifies hyperlipidemia, especially when it appears at a young age. (Courtesy of Jonathan C. Horton, MD, PhD; with permission.) See Chap. 360.