

American Journal of Applied Science and Technology

Molecular Mechanisms Of Catabolism And Their Significance For Cellular Metabolism

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Received: 10 September 2025; Accepted: 02 October 2025; Published: 05 November 2025

Abstract: This study examines the molecular mechanisms of catabolism as the foundation of energy and plastic metabolism in the cell. Particular attention is given to the sequence of biochemical reactions that ensure the breakdown of complex organic compounds into simple metabolites. The oxidative pathways of carbohydrate, lipid, and protein degradation, as well as their interrelations within the overall metabolic system, are analyzed. It is demonstrated that catabolic processes play a crucial role in regulating the cell's energy balance and maintaining homeostasis. The specific features of enzymatic control and intermolecular interactions determining the efficiency of catabolic reactions have been identified. The obtained results may serve as a theoretical basis for further research in the field of cellular biochemistry and metabolic regulation.

Keywords: Catabolism, Acetyl-CoA, ATP, Energy, Tricarboxylic Acid Cycle, Glycolysis, NADH and FADH₂.

INTRODUCTION:

Catabolism represents a complex of biochemical processes aimed at the degradation of complex organic compounds into simpler molecules, accompanied by the parallel release of energy. This energy is utilized by the cell to maintain vital functions, drive biosynthetic reactions, and preserve homeostasis. Understanding the molecular mechanisms of catabolism has a fundamental importance for elucidating cellular metabolism, since these processes mediate the redistribution of energetic and structural resources within the cell. Contemporary biochemical research in the field of catabolism focuses on elucidating the roles of enzymatic systems, regulatory proteins, cofactors in sustaining energy metabolism and coordinating metabolic pathways.

Catabolic processes constitute a fundamental component of the cellular metabolic system, providing the energy required to maintain cellular viability. In contrast to anabolic reactions that are directed toward the synthesis of complex compounds, catabolism is characterized by its exergonic nature and is accompanied by the release of significant amounts of energy, which is primarily accumulated in the form of adenosine triphosphate

(ATP). At the initial stages of catabolism, hydrolytic and/or oxidative cleavage of macromolecules into monomers occurs, creating the prerequisites for subsequent stages of dehydrogenation, decarboxylation, and electron transfer to terminal acceptors.

In human cells, the main substrates of catabolic reactions are carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins, whose breakdown proceeds through interconnected biochemical pathways. These processes do not function in isolation but are integrated into a unified system of energy metabolism, providing flexibility and adaptability of metabolic regulation under varying physiological conditions. Thus, catabolism plays a key role in maintaining the cellular energy homeostasis and in regulating overall metabolic functions.

The principal pathway of carbohydrate catabolism is glycolysis — a multistep biochemical process occurring in the cytoplasm of the cell. At this stage, glucose undergoes a series of phosphorylation, isomerization, and oxidative cleavage reactions, resulting in the formation of two molecules of pyruvate. This process is accompanied by the synthesis of adenosine triphosphate (ATP) through

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the mechanism of substrate-level phosphorylation, as well as by the reduction of the coenzyme nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide (NAD+) to NADH, which serves as an essential source of reducing equivalents for subsequent oxidative stages of metabolism.

The further fate of pyruvate is determined by the redox conditions within the cell. Under aerobic conditions, pyruvate undergoes oxidative decarboxylation to form acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA), which then enters the tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle). Under anaerobic conditions, when oxygen availability is limited, pyruvate is reduced to lactate via the action of lactate dehydrogenase. This reaction allows for the regeneration of NAD⁺, thereby maintaining the continuity of glycolysis even in the absence of oxygen. Consequently, the selection of the pyruvate metabolic pathway ensures cellular adaptability to fluctuations in oxygen levels and energy demands.

The tricarboxylic acid cycle (TCA cycle), localized in the mitochondrial matrix, represents the central hub of catabolism, where the complete oxidation of acetyl-CoA to carbon dioxide and water occurs. During this process, reduced coenzymes NADH and $FADH_2$ are generated, serving as electron donors for the mitochondrial respiratory chain. Thus, the TCA cycle performs an integrative function, linking the catabolism of carbohydrates, lipids, and amino acids into a unified cellular energy system.

Scheme 1. Major stages of carbohydrate catabolism: Glucose \Rightarrow Glycolysis (cytoplasm) \Rightarrow Pyruvate \Rightarrow

- a) Aerobic conditions: Pyruvate \rightarrow Acetyl-CoA \rightarrow TCA cycle (mitochondria) \rightarrow CO₂ + H₂O + ATP
- b) Anaerobic conditions: Pyruvate → Lactate (cytoplasm)

Lipid catabolism comprises the hydrolysis of triglycerides into glycerol and fatty acids, followed by their subsequent degradation. Glycerol can enter the glycolytic pathway through its conversion into dihydroxyacetone phosphate. Fatty acids undergo βthe oxidation in mitochondria, a characterized by the sequential shortening of the carbon chain by two carbon atoms, resulting in the formation of acetyl coenzyme A (acetyl-CoA). This pathway yields a substantial amount of NADH and FADH₂, which participate in oxidative phosphorylation. Lipid catabolism plays a crucial role in energy supply during prolonged fasting or intense physical activity, when carbohydrate reserves are depleted.

Protein catabolism begins with proteolytic processes,

during which complex protein molecules are hydrolyzed into individual amino acids. This stage is mediated by proteolytic enzymes such as pepsin, trypsin, chymotrypsin, and other peptidases, whose activity is tightly regulated. The resulting amino acids serve as key metabolic substrates capable of undergoing further transformations depending on the cell's energetic state and the physiological needs of the organism.

The next stage involves the deamination of amino acids, during which the amino group is removed, yielding ammonia and the corresponding carbon skeletons. These carbon residues are incorporated into major metabolic pathways — glycolysis, the tricarboxylic acid (TCA) cycle, or gluconeogenesis — thereby contributing to energy production and the synthesis of intermediate metabolites. Since ammonia is highly toxic to human cells, it is rapidly detoxified in the liver through the ornithine cycle, where it is converted into urea and subsequently excreted from the body.

Thus, amino acid catabolism performs a dual function: on the one hand, it provides the organism with energy under conditions of carbohydrate and lipid deficiency; on the other hand, it serves as a source of intermediate compounds involved in gluconeogenesis and lipogenesis. This process plays an essential role in maintaining nitrogen and energy balance, as well as in the adaptation of metabolism to changing physiological conditions.

The energetic function of catabolic processes lies in the formation of a universal energy mediator — adenosine triphosphate (ATP). During the multistage oxidation of organic compounds, the energy released from the cleavage of chemical bonds is accumulated in high-energy (macroergic) compounds, primarily in ATP molecules. This nucleotide serves as the principal energy equivalent of the cell, ensuring the transfer of energy from catabolic to anabolic processes.

ATP acts as the main energy source for most biosynthetic and physiological processes, including the synthesis of proteins and nucleic acids, active transport of ions and molecules across membranes, muscle contraction, nerve impulse conduction, and cell division. The hydrolysis of ATP to adenosine diphosphate (ADP) and inorganic phosphate is accompanied by the release of energy, which is utilized by the cell to sustain vital reactions. Thus, ATP occupies a central position in cellular energy metabolism, functioning as a key intermediary that links the processes of degradation and biosynthesis.

In addition to its energetic role, catabolism also performs a regulatory function aimed at maintaining

American Journal of Applied Science and Technology (ISSN: 2771-2745)

the metabolic balance between anabolic and catabolic processes. The coordination of these metabolic fluxes ensures the stability of the intracellular environment, preventing the excessive accumulation of metabolites and energy substrates. Such equilibrium is essential for the preservation of homeostasis and for the optimal functioning of biochemical systems.

The regulation of catabolism is implemented at multiple levels. Enzymatic mechanisms play a key role, including allosteric regulation, covalent modification, and feedback control. Allosteric effector molecules such as ATP, ADP, and citrate act as intrinsic sensors of the cellular energy status, activating or inhibiting enzymes of catabolic pathways. This allows for a flexible adjustment of metabolic reaction rates in accordance with the organism's physiological needs.

Hormonal factors — including insulin, glucagon, and adrenaline — exert a significant influence on the intensity of catabolic processes. Insulin stimulates glucose utilization and suppresses catabolic activity, whereas glucagon and adrenaline promote the mobilization of energy reserves under conditions of stress or nutrient deprivation. The coordinated action of these regulatory systems maintains the dynamic equilibrium of energy metabolism that is essential for the normal functioning of both the cell and the organism as a whole.

Catabolism and anabolism represent interconnected and interdependent components of a unified metabolic system that functions on the principle of dynamic equilibrium. These two directions of metabolism ensure the continuous renewal of cellular structures, the maintenance of energetic potential, and the organism's adaptation to internal and external environmental changes. The interaction catabolic and anabolic between processes determines the integrative wholeness of metabolism, in which degradation and synthesis operate in a state of balanced activity.

The products of catabolism, such as acetyl-CoA, pyruvate, NADH, and other intermediate metabolites, play a crucial role in supplying anabolic reactions with the necessary substrates. These compounds serve as a biochemical bridge between energy metabolism and biosynthetic processes, channeling the products of degradation into the synthesis of lipids, carbohydrates, amino acids, and nucleotides. Through this mechanism, the cell maintains its ability for self-renewal, growth, and differentiation, utilizing the results of catabolic reactions as both structural and energetic material.

Thus, the unity of catabolism and anabolism forms the foundation of cellular metabolism, ensuring the coordinated functioning of all biochemical systems. The energy released during catabolism is utilized to drive anabolic reactions, while the end products of synthesis can, in turn, undergo degradation under changing physiological conditions. This cyclic interplay between synthesis and breakdown reflects the universal principle of metabolic regulation aimed at preserving the energetic and structural homeostasis of the cell.

Catabolism serves not only as a primary source of energy but also as a key element of metabolic integration, linking diverse biochemical pathways within the cell. The molecular mechanisms of catabolism play an essential role in sustaining cellular viability, representing a complex network of enzymatic reactions directed toward the degradation of organic compounds and the release of chemical energy.

The catabolic pathways of carbohydrates, lipids, and proteins are tightly interconnected and regulated at multiple levels — from molecular interactions between enzymes and cofactors to physiological mechanisms controlled by the hormonal and nervous systems. This interdependence provides metabolic flexibility and enables the cell to adapt to variable environmental conditions.

Future research perspectives are associated with an in-depth exploration of catabolic regulatory mechanisms at both the cellular and systemic levels. Such studies will enhance our understanding of the principles governing energy metabolism and form a scientific basis for developing effective strategies to correct metabolic disorders in the human body.

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