

Article **Molecular Determinants for Guanine Binding in GTP-Binding Proteins: A Data Mining and Quantum Chemical Study**

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Abstract: GTP-binding proteins are essential molecular switches that regulate a wide range of cellular processes. Their function relies on the specific recognition and binding of guanine within their binding pockets. This study aims to elucidate the molecular determinants underlying this recognition. A large-scale data mining of the Protein Data Bank yielded 298 GTP-binding protein complexes, which provided a structural foundation for a systematic analysis of the intermolecular interactions that are responsible for the molecular recognition of guanine in proteins. It was found that multiple modes of non-bonded interactions including hydrogen bonding, cation–π interactions, and π –π stacking interactions are employed by GTP-binding proteins for binding. Subsequently, the strengths of non-bonded interaction energies between guanine and its surrounding protein residues were quantified by means of the double-hybrid DFT method B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ. Hydrogen bonds, particularly those involving the N2 and O6 atoms of guanine, confer specificity to guanine recognition. Cation– π interactions between the guanine ring and basic residues (Lys and Arg) provide significant electrostatic stabilization. π - π stacking interactions with aromatic residues (Phe, Tyr, and Trp) further contribute to the overall binding affinity. This synergistic interplay of multiple interaction modes enables GTP-binding proteins to achieve high specificity and stability in guanine recognition, ultimately underpinning their crucial roles in cellular signaling and regulation. Notably, the NKXD motif, while historically considered crucial for guanine binding in GTP-binding proteins, is not universally required. Our study revealed significant variability in hydrogen bonding patterns, with many proteins lacking the NKXD motif but still effectively binding guanine through alternative arrangements of interacting residues.

Keywords: molecular recognition; quantum mechanics; G protein; GTP-binding protein; π–π stacking interactions; cation– π interaction; hydrogen bond

1. Introduction

GTP-binding proteins, commonly known as G proteins, are critical regulators of a myriad of cellular processes, acting as molecular switches that facilitate signal transduction in response to extracellular stimuli $[1-4]$ $[1-4]$. Two of the most common GTP-binding proteins are heterotrimeric G proteins and small monomeric G proteins [\[5,](#page-20-2)[6\]](#page-20-3). Heterotrimeric G proteins consist of three subunits— α , β, and γ —and are integral to signaling pathways mediated by G protein-coupled receptors (GPCRs). They can be further divided into families based on the α subunit, including the Gs family (which activates adenylyl cyclase), the Gi family (which inhibits adenylyl cyclase), the Gq family (which activates phospholipase C), and the G12/13 family (which regulates Rho family GTPases). Small monomeric G proteins, on the other hand, are single polypeptide chains that function independently in various signaling pathways. This group includes the Ras family, known for its role in cell proliferation and survival; the Rho family, which regulates cytoskeletal dynamics; the Rab family, involved in vesicular transport; the Arf family, associated with membrane trafficking; and the Ran family, crucial for nucleocytoplasmic transport. Other GTP-binding

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proteins include septins, tubulins, dynamins, eukaryotic translation initiation/elongation factors, etc.

Due to the important role of GTP-binding proteins in various cellular processes and diverse signaling transduction networks, the molecular recognition of guanine nucleotides (GTP, GDP, and GMP) in GTP-binding proteins has long been a subject of great interest. The concept of the molecular recognition of ligands in proteins has a historical origin based on Emil Fischer's "lock-and-key" model and Daniel Koshland's "induced fit" hypothesis. It is the advent of X-ray crystallography that enabled the ability to visualize the complex threedimensional structures of GTP-binding proteins and their complexes, thereby elucidating the critical sequence motifs and binding sites integral to molecular recognition [\[7\]](#page-20-4). The sequence motif responsible for the binding of guanine to G proteins is G4, i.e., the N/TKXD sequence motif $[8,9]$ $[8,9]$. Hereafter, we will adopt the motif nomenclature of $[8]$. GTP-binding proteins also contain G1, i.e., the GXXXXGK(S/T) sequence motif (also known as the Walker A motif), which is responsible for binding the GTP's phosphate group. This phosphate group is also present in ATP, and the same G1 sequence motif is responsible for the phosphate group recognition in the ATP-binding protein. The G2, i.e., X(T/S)X, and G3, i.e., DXXG (Walker B motif), sequence motifs are involved in the coordination of Mg^{2+} ions. G5 is the $(T/G)(C/S)$ A sequence motif required to strengthen the guanine base recognition [\[8\]](#page-20-5). Multiple studies have been carried out to understand the molecular recognition of ribose sugar $[10]$, a phosphate group, and its associated magnesium ion $[11-14]$ $[11-14]$ of GTP and ATP in proteins. In this work, we aim to decipher the molecular determinants for molecular recognition of the guanine base in GTP-binding proteins.

It is now widely accepted that molecular recognition is mediated through non-covalent interactions (also known as non-bonded interactions) such as hydrogen bonding, metal coordination, van der Waals forces (VDW), cation–π interaction, π –π stacking interaction, CH– π interaction, XH– π interaction (X = N, O, S), salt bridge, etc. [\[15–](#page-20-10)[20\]](#page-20-11). To understand the molecular recognition of guanine, one needs to know the specific non-bonded interactions between guanine and its surrounding residues in proteins.

Figure [1](#page-2-0) shows the molecular structure of the guanine base, an aromatic motif that features multiple hydrogen bond acceptors and donors, which can form specific hydrogen bonds with the surrounding residues inside the GTP-binding pocket. It has the capacity to form as many as six hydrogen bonds, acting as a donor for three hydrogen bonds at the N1 and N2 positions, and hydrogen bond acceptors at the N3, O6, and N7 positions. This hydrogen bonding capacity of the guanine base is widely accepted as an important nonbonded interaction mode for DNA base-pairing and protein–ligand interactions. There are two more equally important non-bonded interaction modes for guanine–protein binding, i.e., π – π stacking interactions and cation– π interactions. Just as in the case of DNA base stacking, the conjugated π rings of the guanine base can interact with surrounding aromatic residues (Phe, Tyr, and Trp) via π – π stacking interactions. The conjugated π rings of guanine base can also interact with positively charged residues (Lys and Arg) through cation– π interactions. A wealth of information has been accumulated displaying the importance of π–π stacking interactions and cation–π interactions in the formation of biomolecular systems [\[15,](#page-20-10)[16,](#page-20-12)[20](#page-20-11)[–23\]](#page-20-13). Typically, $π$ –π stacking interactions and cation–π interactions are of similar or even greater magnitude than the hydrogen bonding energy, as shown by our ATP binding study [\[24\]](#page-20-14) and other investigations of cation– π [\[25–](#page-20-15)[27\]](#page-21-0) and π – π stacking interactions [\[28–](#page-21-1)[30\]](#page-21-2) in biological systems. In our analysis of the molecular recognition of the guanine base of GTP reported here, $\pi-\pi$ stacking interactions and cation– π interactions are systematically analyzed in addition to hydrogen bonding. Furthermore, contributions of each one of the non-bonded interaction modes (π – π stacking, cation– π interaction, and H-bonding) to binding between the guanine base and protein are quantified by means of high-level quantum chemical calculations. We are interested in determining which types of non-bonded interactions are used by GTP-binding proteins in the recognition of the guanine base and what their relative importance is.

Figure 1. (**a**) The guanine base of the guanine nucleotide (GTP/GDP/GMP), where the symbol R **Figure 1.** (**a**) The guanine base of the guanine nucleotide (GTP/GDP/GMP), where the symbol R represents ribose and phosphate groups. The inward arrow shows the hydrogen bond acceptor, and the outward arrow shows the hydrogen bond donor. All the atoms are labeled according to IUPAC naming system. (**b**) Structure of a representative GTP-binding protein: a p21-ras protein the IUPAC naming system. (**b**) Structure of a representative GTP-binding protein: a p21-ras protein bound to GTP (PDB ID:1QRA). bound to GTP (PDB ID:1QRA).

In this study, the molecular determinants responsible for the molecular recognition In this study, the molecular determinants responsible for the molecular recognition of the guanine moiety in GTP-binding proteins were deciphered by means of data mining and high-level quantum chemical analysis. A large-scale data mining of the Protein Data Bank was carried out, which resulted in the establishment of a database of 298 nonredundant high-resolution GTP-binding proteins complexed with bound guanine nucleotides. For all these complexes, the modes of the non-bonded interactions between guanine and its surrounding residues were systematically analyzed to decipher the specific interactions responsible for molecular recognition. Furthermore, the contributions of each one of the non-bonded interaction modes ($π$ –π stacking, cation–π interaction, and H-bonding) to binding between the guanine base and protein were quantified by means of high-level quantum chemical calculations. quantum chemical calculations.

The remainder of this article is structured as follows. The Results and Discussion section presents the binding environments of the guanine base in 298 guanylate-binding protein complexes, particularly focusing on the dominant hydrogen bonding patterns, the cation– π interactions between guanine bases, and the side chains of positively charged residues lysine and arginine, as well as the π - π stacking interactions between guanine bases and the side chains of aromatic residues such as phenylalanine, tyrosine, and tryptophan. The strengths of non-bonded interactions for the representatives of cation– π and π – π stacking interactions, as calculated using the B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ method [\[31–](#page-21-3)[33\]](#page-21-4), are described. Then, a case study is detailed, illustrating the distribution of the energetic contributions from various modes of non-bonded interactions to the binding of guanine contributions from various modes of non-bonded interactions to the binding of guanine within the context of an entire protein. The biological significance of our findings is discussed at the end of this section. In the Theory and Methods section, we detail the procedures for data mining GTP-binding proteins from the Protein Data Bank (PDB) along with specific details regarding the B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ electronic structure calculations of non-bonded interactions in the guanylate-protein complexes. A brief summary is provided in the Conclusion section.

2. Results and Discussion 2. Results and Discussion

The data mining analysis resulted in a total of 298 nonredundant high-resolution (2.5 The data mining analysis resulted in a total of 298 nonredundant high-resolution (2.5 Å or better) GTP-binding proteins complexed with bound guanine nucleotides. I foteins with over 90% sequence identity were excluded to minimize redundancy. Table [1](#page-3-0) provides an extensive list of the protein complexes containing bound guanine nucleotides (GMP, GDP, an extensive list of the protein complexes containing bound guanine nucleotides (GMP, and GTP), along with essential details such as the protein family to which each complex GDP, and GTP), along with essential details such as the protein family to which each com-belongs, the nucleotide type, PDB IDs, and the structural resolution. These GTP-binding proteins belong to 57 protein families, which underscores the essential, multifaceted role ϵ for ϵ proteins belong to ϵ protein families, which underscores the estential, multipacture of ϵ protein ϵ proteins the estential, multipacture the estential, multipacture of highering ϵ proteins ϵ p of GTP in cellular biology. These diverse families cover a broad spectrum of biological or better) GTP-binding proteins complexed with bound guanine nucleotides. Proteins with functions: from basic cellular processes like protein synthesis (50S ribosome-binding GT-Pases and EF-Tu) and cell division (FtsZ and septins), to advanced regulatory systems in signaling (the Ras family and ARF family) and immune responses (Interferon-inducible GTPase and AIG1). Many families are directly involved in metabolic pathways (PEPCK and GTP cyclohydrolase I) or are structural and enzymatic scaffolds (MobA-like NTP Transferase and Ferrous Iron Transport), ensuring cellular health and adaptability. Moreover, the diverse spectrum of protein families provides a wide variety of guanine-binding pockets for our molecular recognition study.

Table 1. List of protein complexes with bound guanine nucleotides.

^a GTP, guanosine-5'-triphosphate; GDP, guanosine-5'-diphosphate; and GMP, guanosine-5'-monophosphate. ^b Family of proteins according to the Pfam classification [\[34\]](#page-21-5). Dashed line "-" indicates that no knowledge of Pfam classification for the protein is available.

Based on the three-dimensional structures, the binding pockets of the guanine bases within their respective target GTP-binding proteins were meticulously analyzed using the Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) program to identify residues that engage in nonbonded interactions with each guanine base. Consistent with the physical nature of each type of non-bonded interaction, a cut-off distance of 3.5 Å between the donor and the acceptor was used for hydrogen bonding, and a cut-off distance of 5.6 Å was used for $\pi-\pi$ stacking and cation– π interactions. For the former interaction, a slightly longer distance of 3.5 Å, rather than the optimal hydrogen bonding range of 2.8 to 3.2 Å, was adopted to account for the dynamic fluctuations in atomic positions. For the latter interactions, the computed strengths of the solution-phase interaction energies typically diminished beyond 5.6 Å, as indicated by our prior quantum chemical calculations [\[22\]](#page-20-16). The non-bonded interactions (hydrogen bonding, $\pi-\pi$ stacking, and cation– π interactions) so identified were carefully studied, with details tabulated in Table S1 of the Supplementary Materials. Those non-bonded interactions are described and analyzed below.

2.1. Hydrogen Bonding

Table [2](#page-9-0) presents a summary of the hydrogen bond patterns between the guanine base and surrounding residues in GTP-binding proteins. The table categorizes the hydrogen bonding interactions based on sequence motifs and associated hydrogen-bonding patterns. An extensively detailed list of interaction mode of hydrogen bonds is given in Table S1.

We identified six distinct hydrogen bonding patterns that are employed by the surrounding residues of the GTP-binding proteins for the molecular recognition of the guanine base. Of these, four are associated with the NKXD motif, while the remaining two patterns lack this motif. For the former, we adopted a hydrogen bonding pattern notation based on the participation of the residues from the NKXD sequence motif in the hydrogen bond

interactions. The one-letter residue code is colored red if the residue participates in hydrogen bonding with the guanine base. For clarity, each of the four hydrogen bonding patterns are illustrated with a representative example in Figure [2.](#page-10-0) Figure [2a](#page-10-0) depicts the **Ni -Ki+1**-Xi+2-**Di+3** pattern, where the side chain of the asparagine (N), the main chain of lysine (K), and the side chain of aspartate (D) form multiple hydrogen bonds with guanine. Figure [2b](#page-10-0) illustrates the $\textbf{N}_{\textbf{i}}\text{-}\textbf{K}_{\textbf{i+1}}\text{-}\textbf{X}_{\textbf{i+2}}\text{-}\textbf{D}_{\textbf{i+3}}$ pattern in which the side chain of the asparagine (N) and the side chain of aspartate (D) are involved in hydrogen bonding. Figure [2c](#page-10-0) shows the Nⁱ -**Ki+1**-Xi+2-**Di+3** pattern in which the main-chain amino group from lysine (K) and the side chain of aspartate (D) participate in hydrogen bonds. Figure [2d](#page-10-0) demonstrates the Nⁱ -Ki+1-Xi+2-**Di+3** pattern in which only the side chain of aspartate (D) participates in hydrogen bonding. The first **Nⁱ -Ki+1**-Xi+2-**Di+3** and the second **Nⁱ** -Ki+1-Xi+2-**Di+3** pattern both occur most frequently with a probability of 19.1%. The Nⁱ -**Ki+1**-Xi+2-**Di+3** pattern appears least frequently with a probability of 6.7%. The N_i - K_{i+1} - X_{i+2} - D_{i+3} pattern was observed in 11.7% of GTP-binding proteins.

Table 2. Summary of the hydrogen bond patterns between guanine and the surrounding residues and their associated sequence motifs.

^a. The uppercase letters represent the NKXD motif, and "i" in the subscript represents the residue number. The amino acid that forms the hydrogen bond with the guanine ring is colored in red text with a bold face. The cut-off distance for hydrogen bonds is 3.5 Å.

Notably, the NKXD motif [\[9,](#page-20-6)[35\]](#page-21-6)—a fingerprint sequence for guanine-binding sites—emerges as a key player in forming hydrogen bonds with the guanine in these proteins. However, only 56.7% (169 out of 298) of the complexes that bind guanine have the NKXD sequence motif (see Table S1). Additionally, as described above, not all residues within the NKXD motif participate in hydrogen bond interactions.

Remarkably, in the remaining 43.3% of the GTP-binding proteins, the NKXD sequence motif is absent. Within this subset, 20.5% of GTP-binding proteins feature either an aspartate (D) or a glutamate (E) residue that forms hydrogen bonds with the hydrogen from the N1 or N2H1 atoms of the guanine base. We designate this interaction mode as the D/E plus motif, which is illustrated in Figure [2e](#page-10-0). The remaining 22.8% of GTP-binding proteins lack a specific conserved sequence motif for guanine recognition, wherein any amino acid residue may form hydrogen bonds with at least one of the N1, N2, or O6 atoms of guanine, either directly or through structured water molecules. An example of the last pattern is given in Figure [2f](#page-10-0).

From the perspective of the guanine base, it was found that hydrogen bond donors and acceptors at various positions of the guanine ring have different preferences for hydrogen bond formation. The N1 atom directly donates hydrogen bonds to the surrounding residues, which occurs in 87.3% (260 out of 298) GTP-binding proteins. The N2 atom, on the other hand, has the capacity to directly donate two hydrogens, N2H1 and N2H2, to the surrounding residues. In 89.6% (267 out of 298) of GTP-binding proteins, the N2H1 hydrogen is donated to surrounding residues. In 21.8% (65 out of 298) of GTP-binding proteins, the N2H2 hydrogen is donated to the surrounding residues. In many cases, the N2H2 is also donated to a nearby structured water molecule, which acts as a bridge for hydrogen bonding with amino acid residues in the GTP-binding pocket. It is worth noting that, in many cases, the hydrogen from N1 and N2H1 are donated to aspartate or glutamate to form a double-hydrogen bond (dual-hydrogen bond). Since many GTP-binding proteins

have aspartate or glutamate in the GTP-binding pocket, this dual-hydrogen bond mode represents the dominant mode of hydrogen bond interaction. In 27.9% (83 out of 298) of GTP-binding proteins, the O6 atom accepts hydrogen bonds from the main chain amino group of at least one of the residues from the NKXD sequence motif. In 85.6% (255 out of 298) of GTP-binding proteins, O6 accepts an additional hydrogen bond from the mainchain amino group of at least alanine and/or its succeeding residue from the $(T/G)(C/S)$ A sequence motif or any non-conserved residues. The N7 atom accepts a hydrogen bond from the surrounding residue in 55.4% (165 out of 298) of GTP-binding proteins, and from the surrounding residue in 55.4% (165 out of 298) of GTP-binding proteins, and the N3 atom accepts a hydrogen bond from the surrounding residues in 6.7% (20 out of 298) of GTP-binding proteins. Interestingly, it was observed that a conserved structured water molecule near the N3 atom donates the hydrogen bond in 41.3% (123 out of 298) of GTP-binding proteins. GTP-binding proteins.

bond interactions. The one-letter residue code is considered residue participates in $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{A}}$

Figure 2. Representative hydrogen bond patterns: (a) $N_i - K_{i+1} - X_{i+2} - D_{i+3}$ in the p21-ras protein (PDB ID: 1QRA); (b) N_i - K_{i+1} - X_{i+2} - D_{i+3} in the Human Ras-like, family 12 protein (PDB ID: 3C5C); (c) N_i - K_{i+1} - X_{i+2} - D_{i+3} in the human adenylosuccinate synthetase isozyme 2 (PDB ID: 2V40); (d) N_i -K_{i+1}-X_{i+2}-D_{i+3} in the Plasmodium falciparum rab6 protein (PDB ID: 1D5C); (**e**) "D_i/E_i plus" in PnrA from Treponema pallidum (PDB ID: 2FQX); and (**f**) the "Others" pattern in Murray Valley encephalitis virus methyltransferase domain (PDB ID: 2PXA). C, N, O, and S atoms are colored in cyan, blue, red and yellow, respectively.

Based on the above analysis, it is evident that the most frequent hydrogen bond participating atoms/groups in the guanine base are the N1, N2, and O6 atoms. The N3 and N7 atoms, also present in ATP, are less preferred for hydrogen bonding by proteins that bind guanine.

2.2. Cation–π Interaction

Cation– π interactions were systematically examined across all 298 GTP-binding proteins, revealing this interaction as a prevalent non-bonded interaction mode for GTP binding in proteins. In 86.6% of GTP-binding proteins (258 out of 298), at least one cation–π

interaction does exist between the guanine base and positively charged side chains of the interacting residues. Furthermore, about 48% of the complexes have more than one positively charged residue interacting with guanine. These complexes are aligned by the superimposition of the guanine base, and Figure [3](#page-11-0) shows a 3D stereo drawing of the aligned GTP-protein complexes featuring one or more positively charged residues (lysine and arginine) within 5.6 Å of the guanine base.

Figure 3. A 3D stereographic drawing of a guanine base surrounded by positively charged residues. **Figure 3.** A 3D stereographic drawing of a guanine base surrounded by positively charged residues. All the 258 complexes that contain cation–π interactions are aligned by the superimposition of the All the 258 complexes that contain cation–π interactions are aligned by the superimposition of the guanine base. guanine base.

To quantitatively establish the contribution of cation– π interactions to the binding of guanine with its targeted proteins, the strengths of cation– π interactions between the guanine base and its interacting residues were quantified by means of quantum chemical calculations. For this purpose, 12 distinctive interacting intermolecular pairs between guanine and the positively charged residue were chosen based on Figure 3. [The](#page-11-0)y were selected according to two criteria: representation and uniqueness. The representative intermolecular pair is the pair that samples the most ab[un](#page-11-0)dant regions of Figure 3. The unique intermolecular pair is the one that is uniquely situated in Figure 3 in terms of unique intermolecular pair is the one that is uniquely situated in Figure 3 in terms of position and orientation. The three-dimensional structures for 9 of these 12 cation– π interacting pairs are presented in Figure 4. The strengths [of t](#page-12-0)he non-bonded interaction energies between guanine and its surrounding aromatic residues were quantified in a pairwise manner using the double-hybrid DFT method at the B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ level of theory (see the Theory and Methods section for details). The resulting pairwise nonbonded interaction energies for the selected cation– π interactions are detailed in Table 3. The magnitudes of cation– π interactions are moderate to strong, ranging from -1.51 to -10.61 kcal/mol. These results indicate the vital role of cation–π interactions in stabilizing guanine binding within GTP-binding proteins.

tion? This is an important question we want to address below. The intermolecular distance α behavior energy (ΔE_{Int}^{aq}). As shown in Table [3,](#page-12-1) as the intermolecular distance increased, the interaction energy decreased. However, at the same time, the extent of overlap between the side chain of positively charged residue and the guanine ring also influenced the intermolecular interaction energy. The representative cation– π intermolecular pairs associated with PDB 1G7S, 1S4O, and 5A07 have the largest interaction energy (see Table [3](#page-12-1) and Figure [4\)](#page-12-0). As shown in Figure [4,](#page-12-0) these cation– π intermolecular pairs have the greatest extent of side chain overlap with the guanine ring. In some unique cation– π intermolecular pairs, a dual mode of non-bonded interactions is seen where cation– π and hydrogen bond interactions both simultaneously exist, e.g., the intermolecular pairs in 1RYA, 2IRX, and
COOP FULL LIBRARY 8.31 . The interaction energies are much larger in these cases. This analysis icads as to conclude that the strength of the intermolecular cation– π interaction is dependent upon $\frac{1}{2}$ denotes the state of the state $\frac{1}{2}$ of the state $\frac{1}{2}$ of the state $\frac{1}{2}$ is $\frac{1}{2}$ of the combination of three factors, i.e., intermolecular distance, the extent of the side chain What are the factors that control the strength of the intermolecular cation– π interacwas found to be the predominant factor determining the strength of the non-bonded in-6B9F. The interaction energies are much larger in these cases. This analysis leads us to

overlap of positively charged residues with guanine ring, and the existence of multiple modes of interaction (cation– π and hydrogen bond).

guanine ring. PDB IDs for the cation–π interacting motifs are displayed. C, N, and O atoms are colored in cyan, blue, and red, respectively. The red dashed line indicates the coexistence of hydrogen bond interactions. bond interactions. **Figure 4.** Representative cation–π interactions between the positively charged residues and the

S. N	Cation $-\pi$ Interaction Pair ^a	PDB ID	Distance b (Å)	ΔE_{Int}^{gas} (Kcal/mol) c	ΔE_{Deh} (Kcal/mol)	ΔE_{Int}^{aq} d (Kcal/mol)
1.	G_{\cdots} K131	1G7S	3.44	-10.74	0.13	-10.61
2.	G_{\cdots} K124	2BMD	4.25	-6.07	-4.23	-10.30
3.	G_{\ldots} R130	1S4O	3.42	-8.51	-1.30	-9.81
4.	G_{\dots} K205	3P32	4.26	-6.49	-2.89	-9.38
5.	$G \dots R52$	1RYA	2.77	-33.65	24.57	-9.08
6.	G_{\ldots} K126	1T91	3.87	-4.05	-4.76	-8.81
7.	G_{\ldots} K55	2IRX	2.97	-36.38	28.30	-8.09
8.	G_{\ldots} R142	5A07	3.57	-6.38	-1.56	-7.94
9.	G_{\cdots} R217	6B9F	2.87	-28.58	23.07	-5.51
10.	G_{\cdots} R181	4B2P	3.73	-9.12	4.59	-4.53
11.	$G_{\cdot \cdot}$. R90	2DYK	4.29	-2.78	0.72	-2.06
12.	$G_{\cdot\cdot}$. K45	2V40	4.92	-11.4	9.89	-1.51

Table 3. Pairwise interaction energies for representative intermolecular cation–π interacting pairs.

^a "G" represents guanine. ^b The intermolecular distance between the positively charged residue and the guanine base. ^c Gas-phase interaction energies calculated at the B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ level of theory. ^d Solution-phase interaction energies were calculated according to the equation $\Delta E_{Int}^{aq} = \Delta E_{Int}^{gas} + \Delta E_{Deh}$, as described in the Theory and Methods section.

2.3. π–π Stacking Interaction

The binding pockets of the guanine bases in all 298 GTP-binding proteins were examined to identify the aromatic residues capable of π –π stacking interactions. In 54.4% of the complexes, or 162 out of 298, π – π stacking interaction does exist between the guanine base and aromatic side chains. Figure 5 displays all 162 of the GTP-binding proteins with

base and aromatic side chains. Figure 5 displays all 162 of the GTP-binding proteins with

aromatic residues within 5.6 \AA of the guanine base. The aromatic residues Phe, Tyr, and Trp form four primary clusters surrounding the guanine bases: to the left and right, at the top, and at the bottom. The arrangements at the top and bottom are typically categorized
in the displaced state of parallel face-to-face stacking or parallel face-to-face stacking on the displaced stacking of the displaced as either parallel face-to-face stacking or parallel-displaced stacking, depending on the aromatic residues per degree of displacement of the aromatic centers. When aromatic residues perpendicularly
displacement of the aromatic centers. When aromatic residues perpendicularly approach the π -plane of the guanine base, this configuration is referred to as a "T-shaped" edge-to-face arrangement. The observed distribution pattern of the aromatic residues edge-to-face arrangement. The observed distribution pattern of the aromatic residues around the π -plane of the guanine base appears to be optimal, as suggested by modeling studies of the benzene dimer, which is commonly regarded as the standard model for studies of the benzene dimer, which is commonly regarded as the standard model for aromatic π–π stacking interactions [\[36\]](#page-21-7). aromatic π–π stacking interactions [36]. around the maintenance of the guanine base appears to be optimal, as suggested by modeling

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Figure 5. A 3D stereographic drawing of a guanine base surrounded by aromatic residues. All of **Figure 5.** A 3D stereographic drawing of a guanine base surrounded by aromatic residues. All of the 162 complexes that contain π – π stacking interactions are aligned by the superimposition of the guanine base. guanine base.

To quantitatively assess the contribution of π–π stacking interactions to the binding To quantitatively assess the contribution of π–π stacking interactions to the binding of guanine with their target proteins, we employed quantum chemical calculations to evaluate the strength of these interactions between the guanine base and its interacting residues. We selected 14 distinct intermolecular pairs (comprising guanine and aromatic residues) based on the patterns shown in Figure [5.](#page-13-0) These pairs were chosen according to two criteria: representativeness and uniqueness. A representative pair samples the most prevalent regions in Figure [5,](#page-13-0) while a unique pair is specifically positioned and oriented within that figure. The three-dimensional structures of 6 of these 14 π - π stacking interacting pairs are illustrated in Figure [6.](#page-14-0)

The strengths of the non-bonded interaction energies between guanine and its sur-The strengths of the non-bonded interaction energies between guanine and its surrounding aromatic residues were quantified in a pairwise manner using the double-hybrid

FIT and the contract part of the state of DFT method at the B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ level of theory (see the Theory and Methods $\frac{1}{2}$ section for further details). The resulting pairwise interaction energies for the selected π–π stacking interactions are presented in Table [4.](#page-14-1)

from −0.34 to −6.57 kcal/mol. The intermolecular distance is the predominant factor Table [4](#page-14-1) as the intermolecular distance increases the interaction energy decreases. However, at the same time, the angles between two interacting ring planes and the π – π stacking conformations also influence the non-bonded interaction energy. The interaction energy is larger in those cases where the angle between the ring's planes is nearly zero and the rings are in almost parallel displaced configurations, e.g., the unique π - π stacking intermolecular pair in 1RYA, 3R[4](#page-14-1)V, and 3DZH (see Table 4 and Figure [6\)](#page-14-0). These findings illustrate that π - π stacking interactions, though generally weaker than cation– π interactions, contribute to the stability of the guanine binding in GTP-binding proteins. The π – π stacking interaction energies were found to be low to moderate, ranging determining the strength of the non-bonded interaction energy ($\Delta E_{Int}^{a\hat{q}}$), as can be seen in

described in the Theory and Methods section.

Figure 6. **FIGURE 6.** The for the π π stacking interacting metifs are displayed C . N and O atoms are colored ring. PDB IDs for the π–π stacking interacting motifs are displayed. C, N, and O atoms are colored ring. PDB IDs for the π–π stacking interacting motifs are displayed. C, N, and O atoms are colored in in cyan, blue, and red, respectively. cyan, blue, and red, respectively. **Figure 6.** Representative π – π stacking interactions between the aromatic residue and the guanine

Table 4. Pairwise interaction energies for representative π - π stacking interaction pairs.

S. N	π - π Stacking Pair ^a	PDB ID	Angle (Degrees)	Distance b (\AA)	ΔE_{Int}^{gas} $(Kcal/mol)$ ^c	ΔE_{Deh} (Kcal/mol)	ΔE_{Int}^{aq} $(Kcal/mol)$ ^d
ı.	$G \dots F3$	1RYA	18.69	3.29	-4.58	-1.99	-6.57
2.	G_{\cdots} $Y161$	3R4V	10.94	3.53	-5.36	-1.03	-6.39
3.	G_{\cdots} W189	3DZH	2.95	3.40	-7.13	1.08	-6.05
4.	G_{\ldots} Y630	1UVK	8.39	3.46	-3.59	-2.38	-5.97
5.	$G_{\cdot\cdot}$. F24	3EVD	8.70	3.30	-4.38	-0.99	-5.37
6.	$G \dots Y94$	5IGI	20.39	3.51	-9.69	6.14	-3.55
7.	$G \dots W359$	4Q46	9.77	3.40	-4.13	0.61	-3.52
8.	G_{\dots} F160	1 $E1$	53.83	3.54	-3.06	-0.18	-3.24
9.	$G_{\cdot \cdot \cdot}$. F28	3KKO	77.41	3.98	-2.4	0.84	-1.56
10.	$G_{\cdot\cdot}$. F227	5VYR	56.85	4.04	-2.75	1.73	-1.02
11.	G_{\cdots} F293	6B9F	78.43	3.96	-1.07	0.26	-0.81
12.	G_{\cdots} F277	1RPN	15.53	3.46	-0.67	0.04	-0.63
13.	$G.\dots Y344$	4XUL	12.69	5.28	-3.29	2.92	-0.37
14.	GF190	4LPS	46.47	3.48	-1.68	1.34	-0.34

^a "G" represents guanine. ^b The intermolecular distance between the aromatic residue and the guanine base. ^c Gas-phase interaction energies calculated at the B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ level of theory. ^d Solution-phase interaction energies calculated according to the equation $\Delta E_{Int}^{aq} = \Delta E_{Int}^{\hat{g}_{as}} + \Delta E_{Deh}$, as described in the Theory and Space limitation, we choose one GTP-binding protein, i.e., the p21-ras protein (PDB ID: P): P

2.4. Energetic Contribution by Various Modes of Non-Bonded Interactions to the Binding of Guanine in a Representative Complex

The distribution of modes of the non-bonded interactions in the GTP-binding proteins was systematically examined based on their X-ray crystal structures (see Table S1). The objective was to decipher the relative importance of the different modes of non-bonded interactions for the molecular recognition of the guanine base in proteins. Due to space limitation, we chose one GTP-binding protein, i.e., the p21-ras protein (PDB ID: 1QRA), as an illustration. One of the main reasons for the choice of 1QRA is its representativeness; it features the N_i - K_{i+1} - X_{i+2} - D_{i+3} hydrogen bond pattern (see Section [2.1](#page-8-0) and Table S1). The latter, along with the other three patterns (see above) are associated with the major sequence motif NKXD. On the basis of the 1.6 Å resolution X-ray crystal structure [\[37\]](#page-21-8) (PDB ID: 1QRA), the binding pocket of the guanine base in the p21-ras protein was thoroughly examined to identify all of the modes of the non-bonded interactions, including hydrogen bonding, salt bridge interactions, π - π stacking interactions, cation- π interactions, CH- π interactions, and $XH-\pi$ interactions (XH = NH, OH, and SH).

Figure 7 shows the modes of the non-bonded interactions between the guanine base Figure [7](#page-15-0) shows the modes of the non-bonded interactions between the guanine base and its interacting residues in the p21-ras protein (PDB ID: 1QRA). The guanine base interacts with its target protein p21-ras via hydrogen bonding, π - π stacking interactions, and cation– π interactions. Either the main chain or the side chain of a residue can form hydrogen bond with guanine. As shown in Figure 7a, t[he](#page-15-0)re exist multiple hydrogen bonds between the guanine base and the side chains of the Asn116 and Asp119 residues. Interestingly, the carboxyl group of Asp119 forms dual-hydrogen bonds with guanine, where the N2 and N1 atoms of guanine acts as a hydrogen bond donors. In addition, the main chain amino groups of Lys117 and Ala146 donate their hydrogen to the O6 of the guanine ring to form multiple hydrogen bond interactions. The aromatic residue Phe28 is well positioned for $π$ -π stacking interactions with the guanine ring. The ε-amino groups of positively charged Lys117 and Lys147 are involved in cation– π interactions with guanine.

Figure 7. (**a**) A schematic intermolecular interaction map between the guanine and its interacting **Figure 7.** (**a**) A schematic intermolecular interaction map between the guanine and its interacting residues in a GTP-binding protein p21-ras (PDB ID: 1QRA). The interatomic distances (in Å) are residues in a GTP-binding protein p21-ras (PDB ID: 1QRA). The interatomic distances (in Å) are indicated along the dashed lines. The red, blue, and gray dashed lines represent hydrogen bond indicated along the dashed lines. The red, blue, and gray dashed lines represent hydrogen bond interactions, cation–π interactions, and π–π stacking interactions, respectively. (**b**) The 3D structure interactions, cation–π interactions, and π–π stacking interactions, respectively. (**b**) The 3D structure of the residues surrounding the guanine. For clarity, only side-chain interactions are shown. The of the residues surrounding the guanine. For clarity, only side-chain interactions are shown. The color codes of the dashed lines are the same as in (**a**). color codes of the dashed lines are the same as in (**a**).

Subsequently, the strengths of the non-bonded interaction energies between guanine Subsequently, the strengths of the non-bonded interaction energies between guanine and its surrounding protein residues were quantified in a pairwise manner by means of the double-hybrid DFT method B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ (see Theory and Methods for details). The resulting pairwise intermolecular interaction energies between guanine and surround-ing residues are listed in Table [5.](#page-16-0) As shown in the table, the most significant contributor to the interaction energy (ΔE_{Int}^{aq}) for guanine binding comes from cation–π interactions involving residue Lys117 and Lys147. These interactions account for −18.2 kcal/mol, representing 59.6% of the total binding energy. It is worth noting here that, in addition to the cation–π interactions originating from the positively charged ε -amino groups of lysines, the side-chain alkyl groups of lysine that are parallel to the guanine ring can form multiple $CH-\pi$ interactions [\[38\]](#page-21-9) with the guanine ring. The latter enhances the overall strength of the non-bonded interactions involving the lysine residues, as suggested in Ref. [\[39\]](#page-21-10). Interestingly, Lys117 also contributes to binding via hydrogen bonds from its main-chain amino group. Hydrogen bonds contribute a total of −9.3 kcal/mol to guanine binding, representing 30.5% of the overall binding energy. This contribution originates from the Asn116 (side chain), Lys117 (main chain), Asp119 (side chain), and Ala146 (main chain) residues. As shown in Table [5,](#page-16-0) the strengths of those hydrogen bonds vary widely, depending on both the distance and angle. The hydrogen bond energy between Asp119 and guanine was found to be the highest among the interactions analyzed, and it was attributed to its dual interaction mode: both the N1 and N2 groups of guanine donate hydrogen atoms to the oxygen atoms of the Asp119 carboxyl group. In contrast, the hydrogen bond energy between Asn116 and guanine at the N7 position was found to be the weakest. This is due to the extended N–N distance and a suboptimal hydrogen bond angle of 134[°], which deviates from linearity and reduces bond strength. Notably, Asn116, Lys117, and Asp119 are part of the NKXD sequence motif (G4 motif), while Ala146 and Lys147 belong to the G5 sequence motif. The π – π stacking interactions between Phe28 and the guanine ring yield an interaction energy of −2.99 kcal/mol.

Table 5. The interaction energies for various modes of non-bonded interactions between the guanine base and its surrounding residues in p21-ras (PDB ID: 1QRA).

 $a''G''$ represents guanine; the superscript "m" designates the main chain of the residue. b HB stands for hydrogen bond interaction. ^c The gas-phase interaction energies were calculated at the B2PLYP-D3/cc-pVDZ level of theory. d The solution-phase interaction energies were calculated according to the equation Δ*E*^{*aq*}_{*Int*} = Δ*E*^{*gas*} + Δ*E_{<i>Deh*}, as described in the Theory and Methods section.

In summary, the above analysis revealed the energetic hierarchy of the non-bonded interactions in guanine recognition by GTP-binding proteins. Cation–π interactions emerged as the primary source of binding strength, followed by hydrogen bonding for specificity and π – π stacking as an additional stabilizing factor. In particular, the hydrogen bonding interactions between guanine and the side chains of the Asn116 and Asp119 residues, as well as the cation– π interactions between guanine and the positively charged side chains of Lys117 and Lys147, were found to be responsible for the needed specificity and affinity for molecular recognition. In addition, the participation of the main chains of the Lys117 and Ala146 residues in hydrogen bonding interactions with guanine further enhances binding affinity. Furthermore, $\pi-\pi$ stacking interactions also meaningfully contribute to guanine binding. These findings are significant as the residues involved in these interactions are derived from the classical NKXD sequence motif and the $(T/G)(C/S)$ A sequence motif (G5 motif). The NKXD motif has evolved as a highly effective binding framework that enables proteins to distinguish guanine from other nucleotides like adenine with remarkable precision. Its specific interactions with guanine's unique functional groups, combined with a flexible structural arrangement, allow NKXD to achieve high specificity while also supporting diverse binding configurations across protein families.

2.5. Biological Significance

The core principle of molecular recognition is the complementarity between a ligand and its receptor, akin to the "lock and key" model, where the receptor serves as the lock and the ligand acts as the key that forms a specific ligand–receptor complex. Over the years, this lock and key model for the molecular recognition of GTP has been explored across various levels of protein structural hierarchy, including sequence motifs, folds, structural motifs, and intermolecular protein–ligand interactions. In 1987, Dever et al. investigated the structural features that define the GTP-binding domain across nine functionally diverse protein families based on primary sequences [\[40\]](#page-21-11). It led to the identification of three consensus sequence motives essential for GTP binding: GXXXXGK, DXXG, and NKXD. These elements are spaced 40–80 amino acids apart in most GTP-binding proteins, aiding in recognizing and binding GTP. Since these consensus sequences are conserved among functionally distinct proteins, including elongation factors, the ras protein family, and G proteins, that work suggests a potential application of these motives to screen GTP-binding function from the primary protein sequences of the unknown protein [\[40\]](#page-21-11). The subsequent X-ray crystallographical structural determination of the three-dimensional structures of GTP-binding proteins and their complexes confirmed the structural role of the NKXD motif in guanine binding [\[7](#page-20-4)[,9](#page-20-6)[,41\]](#page-21-12). Since then, the NKXD motif has been widely viewed as a fingerprint for GTP-binding proteins [\[9\]](#page-20-6). In this study, we conducted an analysis of the molecular recognition of the guanine moiety of GTP in the GTP-binding proteins at the level of non-bonded intermolecular interactions. Traditionally, the NKXD sequence is understood as a key motif for guanine binding, where conserved residues directly participate in hydrogen bonding with guanine [\[9](#page-20-6)[,35](#page-21-6)[,42\]](#page-21-13). However, this study identifies a surprising level of variability in the hydrogen bonding roles of NKXD residues. Only 56.7% of complexes containing guanine use the NKXD motif for hydrogen bonding, suggesting a broader structural flexibility than previously recognized. Furthermore, 43.3% of guaninebinding proteins lack the NKXD motif entirely, yet they still achieve guanine recognition through alternative hydrogen bonding arrangements. Specifically, proteins without NKXD often utilize aspartate or glutamate in what is described as the "Di/Ei plus" pattern, while others form non-specific hydrogen bonds with a variety of residues. This expanded understanding of the NKXD motif's variability and the presence of alternative bonding patterns underscores a structural adaptability in guanine recognition, allowing a wider range of proteins to effectively bind guanine despite lacking the classic NKXD sequence. Thus, from the point of view of molecular recognition, this work strongly supports the widely accepted view that non-bonded interactions are the underlying force behind the molecular recognition of a ligand within a protein. Proteins with entirely different folds can adopt analogous recognition schemes characterized by shared protein–ligand interactions.

The hydrogen bonding characteristics of the guanine base are critical for understanding how proteins differentiate between GTP and ATP, and thus merit further discussion. The analysis above indicates that the N2 and O6 atoms in guanine are among the most commonly involved in hydrogen bonding. These specific hydrogen bonds not only stabilize guanine, but also prevent similar binding with adenine as it lacks the N2 and O6 atoms. In contrast, ATP-binding proteins predominantly engage the N1 and N6 atoms of the adenine base for hydrogen bonding [\[24\]](#page-20-14). Bear in mind that the N1 atom of guanine is a hydrogen bond donor while that of adenine is an acceptor. Thus, the NKXD motif confers a selective advantage, allowing proteins to differentiate guanine with high fidelity, which is essential for processes where precise nucleotide recognition underpins cellular signaling and function.

We deciphered the molecular determinants involved in the intermolecular recognition of the guanine moiety of GTP by proteins. Our focus is on understanding the types of interactions employed by enzymes for the recognition of the guanine base and their relative importance. In addition to confirming the importance of well-established hydrogen bonding, we found that two additional forms of non-bonded interactions— π –π stacking and cation– π interactions—are also crucial for the guanine binding in proteins. High-level density functional theory (DFT) calculations further support this by demonstrating the significant contributions of hydrogen bonding, $\pi-\pi$ stacking, and cation– π interactions to the overall binding affinity of GTP within proteins. It is important to note that previous studies on protein–ligand interactions, particularly those involving GTP, have primarily emphasized hydrogen bonding and hydrophobic interactions [\[9](#page-20-6)[,40\]](#page-21-11). However, the data mining and quantum chemical analyses presented here clearly indicate that π – π stacking and cation– π interactions also play critical roles in the binding of the guanine moiety of GTP to proteins.

3. Theory and Methods

3.1. Data Mining

To establish a database of GTP-binding proteins, a comprehensive data mining of the Protein Data Bank was performed [\(https://www.rcsb.org\)](https://www.rcsb.org). We focused on highresolution crystal structures (2.5 Å or better) and excluded proteins with over 90% sequence identity to minimize redundancy. Only structures bound to GTP, GDP, or GMP were considered. This resulted in 298 distinct high-resolution crystal structures of GTP-binding protein complexes.

3.2. Analysis of Interaction Modes

First, the crystal structures of all 298 GTP-binding protein complexes were aligned by the superimposition of the guanine base using the Visual Molecular Dynamics (VMD) program [\[43\]](#page-21-14). Then, the non-bonded interaction modes, i.e., hydrogen bond, cation– π interaction, and π – π stacking interactions between each guanine base and its surrounding residues in each of the 298 complexes, were systematically analyzed to decipher the specific interactions responsible for molecular recognition. A database of such interaction modes was established, with complete details listed in Table S1.

3.3. Quantification of Intermolecular Interaction Energy

The framework for the ligand–protein complex formation in solution is illustrated by the following scheme:

$$
P(aq) + L(aq) \stackrel{\Delta E_{int}^{aq}}{\rightarrow} PL(aq) \n\Delta G_P^{sol} \uparrow \Delta G_L^{sol} \uparrow \Delta G_{PL}^{sol}.
$$
\n
$$
P(g) + L(g) \stackrel{\Delta E_{int}^{sq}}{\rightarrow} PL(g)
$$
\n(1)

This scheme underpins our analysis of guanine–protein binding affinities. Similar schemes have been used for the solution-phase binding affinity calculations of ligand–protein complexes in previous works [\[20](#page-20-11)[,22\]](#page-20-16).

Proteins and ligands lose part of their solvation shell upon binding, incurring dehydration energy. The binding energy in solution is thus evaluated via gas-phase intermolecular interaction energies ΔE_{Int}^{gas} corrected for dehydration energy ΔE_{Deh} .

$$
\Delta E_{Int}^{aq} = \Delta E_{Int}^{gas} + \Delta E_{Deh}
$$
 (2)

Gas-phase interaction energies were calculated using the supermolecular approach. In the supermolecular approach, the gas-phase energy of the interaction between molecules P and L is defined as the difference between the energy of the interacting dimer *EPL* and the sum of the energies of monomers *E^P* and *EL*.

$$
\Delta E_{Int}^{gas} = E_{PL} - (E_P + E_L). \tag{3}
$$

The intermolecular interaction energy calculations were performed using Gaussian 09 software by means of the B2PLYP double-hybrid functional [\[31](#page-21-3)[,44\]](#page-21-15) with Grimme's D3BJ dispersion correction [\[32\]](#page-21-16) in conjunction with the cc-pVDZ basis set [\[33\]](#page-21-4) (B2PLYP- D3/cc-pVDZ). The basis set superimposition error was corrected by the Boys and Bernardi Counter Poise Method [\[45\]](#page-21-17).

Dehydration energy is defined as the difference of free energy of solvation:

$$
\Delta E_{Deh} = \Delta G_{PL}^{Sol} - \Delta G_P^{Sol} - \Delta G_L^{Sol} \tag{4}
$$

Due to high costs of explicit solvent simulations, the free energy of solvation was computed by applying the SM5.42R solvation continuum model by Cramer and Truhlar [\[46\]](#page-21-18), as implemented in GAMESS [\[47\]](#page-21-19).

4. Conclusions

In this study, we deciphered the molecular determinants essential for guanine recognition in GTP-binding proteins using a multifaceted approach, encompassing large-scale data mining, in-depth analysis of interaction modes, and rigorous quantum chemical calculations. It was found that multiple modes of non-bonded interactions are employed by GTP-binding proteins to achieve molecular recognition. Hydrogen bonds lock guanine in place with specificity, while cation– π interactions provide strong electrostatic interaction support, and π – π stacking further stabilizes the binding complex.

- Hydrogen bonds, particularly those involving N2 and O6 atoms of the guanine base, confer specificity to guanine recognition by distinguishing it from adenine.
- Quantum chemical analysis revealed the critical role of cation– π interactions between the guanine ring and its surrounding basic residues (Lys and Arg) in stabilizing guanine binding within GTP-binding proteins. Intermolecular interaction energies for representative cation– π interactions range from -1.51 to -10.61 kcal/mol. The high-energy strength of cation– π interactions can be attributed to the multi-mode intermolecular interactions associated with the Lys and Arg residues. For example, the Lys residue of the NKXD motif can be involved in both the cation– π interactions between the positively charged ε -amino groups of lysine and the guanine ring, as well as in the CH– π interactions between the side chain alkyl groups of lysine and the guanine ring.
- π – π stacking interactions between the guanine ring and its surrounding aromatic residues (Phe, Tyr, and Trp) act as an auxiliary stabilizing factor. In complex featuring the NKXD motif, those aromatic residues are typically situated on the opposite side of the guanine ring relative to the Lys residue of the NKXD motif (see, for example, the table of content figure). Intermolecular interaction energies for representative $\pi-\pi$ stacking interactions range from −0.34 to −6.57 kcal/mol.

This combination of non-bonded interaction modes maximizes both the strength and selectivity of the molecular recognition of guanine in GTP-binding proteins.

The collective insights gleaned from these investigations illuminate the sophisticated molecular recognition strategies employed by GTP-binding proteins. By harnessing a combination of hydrogen bonding, cation– π , and π – π stacking interactions, these proteins achieve the requisite specificity and affinity for effective guanine binding. This versatile interaction framework not only stabilizes guanine within diverse protein families, but also underpins the essential biological functions of GTP-binding proteins in various cellular processes.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at: [https:](https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/ijms252212449/s1) [//www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/ijms252212449/s1.](https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/ijms252212449/s1)

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