


Dictionaries

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OVERVIEW

Questions

- What is a dictionary, in Python?
- What are the ways to interact with a dictionary?
- Can a dictionary be nested?

Objectives

- Understanding the structure of a dictionary.
- Accessing data from a dictionary.
- Applying nested dictionaries to deal with complex data.

This chapter assumes that you are familiar with the following concepts in Python:

PREREQUISITE

- [Indentation Rule](#)
- [Conditional Statements](#)
- [Arrays](#)
- [Loops and Iterations](#)

Dictionary

[Mapping Types – dict](#)

[Google search](#)

[StackOverflow python-3.x dictionaries](#)

YouTube Tutorial Dictionaries

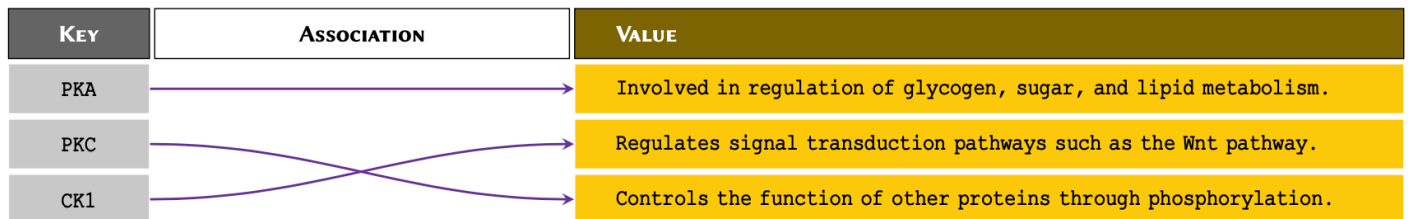
Dictionaries are one of the most valuable in-build tools in Python, and are characterised by being able to associate a set of *values* with a number of *keys*.

Think of a paperback dictionary, where we have a range of words together with their definitions. The words are the *keys*, and the definitions are the *values* that are associated with those keys. A Python dictionary works in the same way.

Consider the following scenario:

Suppose we have a number of protein kinases, and we would like to associate them with their descriptions for future reference.

This is an example of association in arrays. We may visualise this problem as displayed in [Figure](#).



One way to associate the proteins with their definitions would be to make use of nested arrays, as covered in Basic Python 2. However, this would make it difficult to retrieve the values at a later point in time. This is because in order to retrieve these values, we would need to know the numerical index at which a given protein is stored, and the level it's stored at.

As an alternative to using normal arrays in such cases, we can make use of *associative arrays*. The most common method for constructing an associative array in Python is to create dictionaries or **dict**.

REMEMBER

To implement a **dict** in Python, we place our entries within **curly brackets**, separated using a comma. We separate *keys* and *values* using a colon — e.g. `{'key': 'value'}`. The combination of dictionary *key* and its associated *value* is referred to as a dictionary *item*.

NOTE

When constructing a long **dict** with several *items* that span over several lines, it is not necessary to write one *item* per line, nor to use indentations for each *item* or line. All we need to do is to write key-value pairs as `{'key': 'value'}` in curly brackets, and separate each pair using a comma. However, it is good practice to write one *item* per line and use indentations as it makes it considerably easier to read the code and understand the hierarchy.

We can therefore implement the diagram displayed in [Figure](#) in Python as follows:

PYTHON < >

```
protein_kinases = {
    'PKA': 'Involved in regulation of glycogen, sugar, and lipid metabolism.',
    'PKC': 'Regulates signal transduction pathways such as the Wnt pathway.',
    'CK1': 'Controls the function of other proteins through phosphorylation.'
}

print(protein_kinases)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'PKA': 'Involved in regulation of glycogen, sugar, and lipid metabolism.', 'PKC': 'Regulates signal transduction pathways such as the Wnt pathway.', 'CK1': 'Controls the function of other proteins through phosphorylation.'}
```

PYTHON < >

```
print(type(protein_kinases))
```

OUTPUT < >

```
<class 'dict'>
```

PRACTICE EXERCISE 1

Use the [Universal Protein Resource](#) (UniProt) database to find the following human proteins:

- Axin-1
 - Rhodopsin

Construct a dictionary for these proteins and the number amino acids within each of them. The *keys* should represent the name of the protein. Display the result.

Solution

PYTHON < >

```
proteins = {
    'Axin-1': 862,
    'Rhodopsin': 348
}

print(proteins)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'Axin-1': 862, 'Rhodopsin': 348}
```

Now that we have created a dictionary; we can test whether or not a specific *key* exists our dictionary:

PYTHON < >

```
'CK1' in protein_kinases
```

OUTPUT < >

True

PYTHON < >

```
'GSK3' in protein_kinases
```

OUTPUT < >

False

PRACTICE EXERCISE 2

Using the dictionary you created in [Practice Exercise 1](#), test to determine whether or not a protein called **ERK** exists as a *key* in your dictionary. Display the result as a Boolean value.

Solution

PYTHON < >

```
print('ERK' in proteins)
```

OUTPUT < >

False

Interacting with a dictionary

In programming, we have already learned that the more explicit our code is, the better it is. Interacting with dictionaries in Python is very easy, coherent and explicit. This makes them a powerful tool that we can exploit for different purposes.

In arrays, specifically in **list** and **tuple**, we routinely use [indexing](#) techniques to retrieve *values*. In dictionaries, however, we use *keys* to do that. Because we can define the *keys* of a dictionary ourselves, we no longer have to rely exclusively on numeric indices.

As a result, we can retrieve the *values* of a dictionary using their respective *keys* as follows:

PYTHON < >

```
print(protein_kinases['CK1'])
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

Controls the function of other proteins through phosphorylation.

However, if we attempt to retrieve the *value* for a *key* that does not exist in our **dict**, a **KeyError** will be raised:

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
'GSK3' in protein_kinases
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

False

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
print(protein_kinases['GSK3'])
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
KeyError: 'GSK3'
```

PRACTICE EXERCISE 3

Implement a **dict** to represent the following set of information:

Cystic Fibrosis:

Full Name	Gene	Type
Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator	CFTR	Membrane Protein

Using the dictionary you implemented, retrieve and display the *gene* associated with cystic fibrosis.

Solution

PYTHON < >

```
cystic_fibrosis = {  
    'full name': 'Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator',  
    'gene': 'CFTR',  
    'type': 'Membrane Protein'  
}  
  
print(cystic_fibrosis['gene'])
```

OUTPUT < >

CFTR

REMEMBER

Whilst the *values* in a **dict** can be of virtually any type supported in Python, the *keys* may only be defined using immutable types.

To find out which types are immutable, see [Table](#). Additionally, the *keys* in a dictionary must be unique.

If we attempt to construct a **dict** using a mutable value as *key*, a **TypeError** will be raised.

For instance, **list** is a mutable type and therefore cannot be used as a *key*.

PYTHON < >

```
test_dict = {  
    ['a', 'b']: 'some value'  
}
```

OUTPUT < >

TypeError: unhashable type: 'list'

But we can use any immutable type as a *key*.

PYTHON < >

```
test_dict = {  
    'ab': 'some value'  
}  
  
print(test_dict)
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
{'ab': 'some value'}
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
test_dict = {  
    ('a', 'b'): 'some value'  
}  
  
print(test_dict)
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
{('a', 'b'): 'some value'}
```

If we define a *key* more than once, the Python interpreter constructs the entry in **dict** using the last defined instance of that key.

In the following example, we repeat the *key* 'pathway' twice; and as expected, the interpreter only uses the last instance, which in this case represents the value 'Canonical':

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
signal = {  
    'name': 'Wnt',  
    'pathway': 'Non-Canonical', # first instance  
    'pathway': 'Canonical' # second instance  
}  
  
print(signal)
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
{'name': 'Wnt', 'pathway': 'Canonical'}
```

Mutability

Like lists, dictionaries are mutable. This means that we can alter the contents of a dictionary, after it has been instantiated. We can make any alterations to a dictionary as long as we use *immutable* values for the *keys*.

Suppose we have a dictionary stored in a variable called **protein**, holding some information about a specific protein:

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
protein = {  
    'full name': 'Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator',  
    'alias': 'CFTR',  
    'gene': 'CFTR',  
    'type': 'Membrane Protein',  
    'common mutations': ['Delta-F508', 'G542X', 'G551D', 'N1303K']  
}
```

We can add new *items* to our dictionary or alter the existing ones:

PYTHON < >

```
# Adding a new item:  
protein['chromosome'] = 7  
  
print(protein)  
  
print(protein['chromosome'])
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'full name': 'Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator', 'alias': 'CFTR', 'gene': 'CFTR', 'type':  
7}
```

We can also alter an existing *value* in a dictionary using its *key*. To do so, we simply access the *value* using its *key*, and treat it as a normal variable; the same way we would treat members of a **list**:

PYTHON < >

```
print(protein['common mutations'])
```

OUTPUT < >

```
['Delta-F508', 'G542X', 'G551D', 'N1303K']
```

PYTHON < >

```
protein['common mutations'].append('W1282X')  
print(protein)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'full name': 'Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator', 'alias': 'CFTR', 'gene': 'CFTR', 'type':
```


PRACTICE EXERCISE 4

Implement the following dictionary:

```
signal = {'name': 'Wnt', 'pathway': 'Non-Canonical'}
```

with respect to `signal`:

- Correct the *value* of `pathway` to "Canonical";
- Add a new *item* to the dictionary to represent the *receptors* for the canonical pathway as "Frizzled" and "LRP".

Display the altered dictionary as the final result.

Solution

```
signal = {'name': 'Wnt', 'pathway': 'Non-Canonical'}

signal['pathway'] = 'Canonical'
signal['receptors'] = ('Frizzled', 'LRP')

print(signal)
```

PYTHON < >

```
{'name': 'Wnt', 'pathway': 'Canonical', 'receptors': ('Frizzled', 'LRP')}
```

OUTPUT < >

ADVANCED TOPIC

Displaying an entire dictionary using the `print()` function can look a little messy because it is not properly structured. There is, however, an external library called `pprint` (Pretty-Print) that behaves in very similar way to the default `print()` function, but structures dictionaries and other arrays in a more presentable way before displaying them. We do not elaborate on Pretty-Print in this course, but it is a part of Python's default library, and is therefore installed with Python automatically. To learn more about it, have a read through the [official documentation](#) for the library and review the [examples](#).

Because a dictionary's *keys* are immutable, they cannot be altered. However, we can get around this limitation in the following manner. It is possible to introduce a new *key* and assigning the *values* of the old *key* to this new key. Once we have done this, we can go ahead and *remove* the old *item*. The easiest way to remove an *item* from a dictionary is to use the syntax `del`:

PYTHON < >

```
# Creating a new key and assigning to it the
# values of the old key:
protein['human chromosome'] = protein['chromosome']

print(protein)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'full name': 'Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator', 'alias': 'CFTR', 'gene': 'CFTR', 'type':
```

PYTHON < >

```
# Now we remove the old item from the dictionary:
del protein['chromosome']

print(protein)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'full name': 'Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator', 'alias': 'CFTR', 'gene': 'CFTR', 'type':
```

We can simplify the above operation using the `.pop()` method, which removes the specified *key* from a dictionary and returns any *values* associated with it:

PYTHON < >

```
protein['common mutations in caucasians'] = protein.pop('common mutations')

print(protein)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'full name': 'Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator', 'alias': 'CFTR', 'gene': 'CFTR', 'type':
```

PRACTICE EXERCISE 5

Implement a dictionary as:

```
signal = {'name': 'Beta-Galactosidase', 'pdb': '4V40'}
```

PYTHON < >

with respect to `signal`:

- Change the *key* name from `'pdb'` to `'pdb id'` using the `.pop()` method.
- Write a code to find out whether the dictionary:
 - contains the new *key* (i.e. `'pdb id'`).
 - confirm that it no longer contains the old *key* (i.e. `'pdb'`)

If both conditions are met, display:

```
Contains the new key, but not the old one.
```

Otherwise:

```
Failed to alter the dictionary.
```

Solution

```
signal = {
    'name': 'Beta-Galactosidase',
    'pdb': '4V40'
}

signal['pdb id'] = signal.pop('pdb')

if 'pdb id' in signal and 'pdb' not in signal:
    print('Contains the new key, but not the old one.')
else:
    print('Failed to alter the dictionary.')
```

PYTHON < >

```
Contains the new key, but not the old one.
```

OUTPUT < >

Nested dictionaries

As explained earlier the section, dictionaries are among the most powerful built-in tools in Python. As we have previously done with arrays, it is also possible to construct nested dictionaries in order to organise data in a hierarchical fashion. This useful technique is outlined extensively in [example](#).

It is very easy to implement nested dictionaries:

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
# Parent dictionary
pkc_family = {
    # Child dictionary A:
    'conventional': {
        'note': 'Require DAG, Ca2+, and phospholipid for activation.',
        'types': ['alpha', 'beta-1', 'beta-2', 'gamma']
    },
    # Child dictionary B:
    'atypical': {
        'note': (
            'Require neither Ca2+ nor DAG for'
            'activation (require phosphatidyl serine).'
        ),
        'types': ['iota', 'zeta']
    }
}
```

and we follow similar principles to access, alter or remove the *values* stored in nested dictionaries:

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
print(pkc_family)
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
{'conventional': {'note': 'Require DAG, Ca2+, and phospholipid for activation.', 'types': ['alpha', 'beta-1', 'beta-2', 'gamma']}, 'atypical': {'note': 'Require neither Ca2+ nor DAG foractivation (require phosphatidyl serine).', 'types': ['iota', 'zeta']}}
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
print(pkc_family['atypical'])
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
{'note': 'Require neither Ca2+ nor DAG foractivation (require phosphatidyl serine).', 'types': ['iota', 'zeta']}
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
print(pkc_family['conventional']['note'])
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
Require DAG, Ca2+, and phospholipid for activation.
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
print(pkc_family['conventional']['types'])
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
['alpha', 'beta-1', 'beta-2', 'gamma']
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
print(pkc_family['conventional']['types'][2])
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
beta-2
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
apkc_types = pkc_family['conventional']['types']
print(apkc_types[1])
```

[OUTPUT < >](#)

```
beta-1
```

PRACTICE EXERCISE 6

Implement the following table of genetic disorders as a nested dictionary:

	Full Name	Gene	Type
Cystic fibrosis	Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator	CFTR	Membrane Protein
Xeroderma pigmentosum A	DNA repair protein complementing XP-A cells	XPA	Nucleotide excision repair
Haemophilia A	Haemophilia A	F8	Factor VIII Blood-clotting protein

Using the dictionary, display the *gene* for *Haemophilia A*.

PYTHON < >

```
genetic_diseases = {
    'Cystic fibrosis': {
        'name': 'Cystic fibrosis transmembrane conductance regulator',
        'gene': 'CFTR',
        'type': 'Membrane Protein'
    },
    'Xeroderma pigmentosum A': {
        'name': 'DNA repair protein complementing XP-A cells',
        'gene': 'XPA',
        'type': 'Nucleotide excision repair'
    },
    'Haemophilia A': {
        'name': 'Haemophilia A',
        'gene': 'F8',
        'type': 'Factor VIII Blood-clotting protein'
    }
}

print(genetic_diseases['Haemophilia A']['gene'])
```

OUTPUT < >

F8

EXAMPLE: NESTED DICTIONARIES IN PRACTICE

We would like to store and analyse the structure of several proteins involved in the *Lac operon* - a commonly-studied operon fundamental to the metabolism and transport of lactose in many species of enteric bacteria. To do so, let's create a Python `dict` to help us organise our data.

Let's begin by creating an empty dictionary to store our structures:

```
structures = dict()
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

We then move on to depositing our individual entries to `structures` by adding new *items* to it.

Each *item* has a *key* that represents the name of the protein we are depositing, and a *value* that is itself a dictionary consisting of information regarding the structure of that protein:

```
structures['Beta-Galactosidase'] = {
    'pdb id': '4V40',
    'deposit date': '1994-07-18',
    'organism': 'Escherichia coli',
    'method': 'x-ray',
    'resolution': 2.5,
    'authors': (
        'Jacobson, R.H.', 'Zhang, X.',
        'Dubose, R.F.', 'Matthews, B.W.'
    )
}
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

```
structures['Lactose Permease'] = {
    'pdb id': '1PV6',
    'deposit data': '2003-06-23',
    'organism': 'Escherichia coli',
    'method': 'x-ray',
    'resolution': 3.5,
    'authors': (
        'Abramson, J.', 'Smirnova, I.', 'Kasho, V.',
        'Verner, G.', 'Kaback, H.R.', 'Iwata, S.'
    )
}
```

[PYTHON < >](#)

Dictionaries don't have to be homogeneous. In other words, each entry can contain different *items* within it.

For instance, the 'LacY' protein contains an additional *key* entitled 'note':

PYTHON < >

```
structures['LacY'] = {
    'pdb id': '2Y5Y',
    'deposit data': '2011-01-19',
    'organism': 'Escherichia coli',
    'method': 'x-ray',
    'resolution': 3.38,
    'note': 'in complex with an affinity inactivator',
    'authors': (
        'Chaptal, V.', 'Kwon, S.', 'Sawaya, M.R.',
        'Guan, L.', 'Kaback, H.R.', 'Abramson, J.'
    )
}
```

The variable `structure` which is an instance of type `dict`, is now a nested dictionary:

PYTHON < >

```
print(structures)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'Beta-Galactosidase': {'pdb id': '4V40', 'deposit date': '1994-07-18', 'organism': 'Escherichia coli', 'method': 'x-ray', 'resolution': 3.38, 'note': 'in complex with an affinity inactivator', 'authors': ('Chaptal, V.', 'Kwon, S.', 'Sawaya, M.R.', 'Guan, L.', 'Kaback, H.R.', 'Abramson, J.')}}
```

We know that we can extract information from our nested `dict` just like we would with any other `dict`:

PYTHON < >

```
print(structures['Beta-Galactosidase'])
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'pdb id': '4V40', 'deposit date': '1994-07-18', 'organism': 'Escherichia coli', 'method': 'x-ray', 'resolution': 3.38, 'note': 'in complex with an affinity inactivator', 'authors': ('Chaptal, V.', 'Kwon, S.', 'Sawaya, M.R.', 'Guan, L.', 'Kaback, H.R.', 'Abramson, J.')}
```

PYTHON < >

```
print(structures['Beta-Galactosidase']['method'])
```

OUTPUT < >

```
x-ray
```

PYTHON < >

```
print(structures['Beta-Galactosidase']['authors'])
```


OUTPUT < >

```
('Jacobson, R.H.', 'Zhang, X.', 'Dubose, R.F.', 'Matthews, B.W.')
```

PYTHON < >

```
print(structures['Beta-Galactosidase']['authors'][0])
```

OUTPUT < >

```
Jacobson, R.H.
```

Sometimes, particularly when creating longer dictionaries, it might be easier to store individual entries in a variable beforehand and add them to the parent dictionary later on.

Note that our parent dictionary in this case is represented by the variable `structure`.

PYTHON < >

```
entry = {
    'Lac Repressor': {
        'pdb id': '1LBI',
        'deposit data': '1996-02-17',
        'organism': 'Escherichia coli',
        'method': 'x-ray',
        'resolution': 2.7,
        'authors': (
            'Lewis, M.', 'Chang, G.', 'Horton, N.C.',
            'Kercher, M.A.', 'Pace, H.C.', 'Lu, P.'
        )
    }
}
```

We can then use the `.update()` method to update our `structures` dictionary:

PYTHON < >

```
structures.update(entry)

print(structures['Lac Repressor'])
```

OUTPUT < >

```
{'pdb id': '1LBI', 'deposit data': '1996-02-17', 'organism': 'Escherichia coli', 'method': 'x-ray', 'resc
```

Sometimes, we need to see what *keys* our dictionary contains. In order to obtain an array of *keys*, we use the method `.keys()` as follows:

PYTHON < >

```
print(structures.keys())
```

OUTPUT < >

```
dict_keys(['Beta-Galactosidase', 'Lactose Permease', 'LacY', 'Lac Repressor'])
```

Likewise, we can also obtain an array of *values* in a dictionary using the `.values()` method:

PYTHON < >

```
print(structures['LacY'].values())
```

OUTPUT < >

```
dict_values(['2Y5Y', '2011-01-19', 'Escherichia coli', 'x-ray', 3.38, 'in complex with an affinity inacti
```

We can then extract specific information to conduct an analysis. Note that the `len()` function in this context returns the number of *keys* in the parent dictionary only.

PYTHON < >

```
sum_resolutions = 0
res = 'resolution'

sum_resolutions += structures['Beta-Galactosidase'][res]
sum_resolutions += structures['Lactose Permease'][res]
sum_resolutions += structures['Lac Repressor'][res]
sum_resolutions += structures['LacY'][res]

total_entries = len(structures)

average_resolution = sum_resolutions / total_entries

print(average_resolution)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
3.0199999999999996
```

Useful methods for dictionary

Next, we can demonstrate some of the useful *methods* that are associated with **dict** in Python.

Given a dictionary as:

PYTHON < >

```
lac_repressor = {
    'pdb id': '1LBI',
    'deposit data': '1996-02-17',
    'organism': 'Escherichia coli',
    'method': 'x-ray',
    'resolution': 2.7,
}
```

We can create an array of all *items* in the dictionary using the `.items()` method:

PYTHON < >

```
print(lac_repressor.items())
```

OUTPUT < >

```
dict_items([('pdb id', '1LBI'), ('deposit data', '1996-02-17'), ('organism', 'Escherichia coli'), ('method',
```

Similar to the `enumerate()` function, the `.items()` method also returns an array of **tuple** members. Each **tuple** itself consists of two members, and is structured as ('key': 'value'). On that account, we can use its output in the context of a **for**-loop as follows:

PYTHON < >

```
for key, value in lac_repressor.items():  
    print(key, value, sep=': ')
```

OUTPUT < >

```
pdb id: 1LBI  
deposit data: 1996-02-17  
organism: Escherichia coli  
method: x-ray  
resolution: 2.7
```

PRACTICE EXERCISE 7

Try `.items()` on a nested **dict**, and see how it works.

Solution

PYTHON < >

```
nested_dict = {
    'L1-a': {
        'L2-Ka': 'L2_Va',
        'L2-Kb': 'L2_Vb',
    },
    'L1-b': {
        'L2-Kc': 'L2_Vc',
        'L2-Kd': 'L3_Vd'
    },
    'L3-c': 'L3_V'
}

print(nested_dict.items())
```

OUTPUT < >

```
dict_items([('L1-a', {'L2-Ka': 'L2_Va', 'L2-Kb': 'L2_Vb'}), ('L1-b', {'L2-Kc': 'L2_Vc', 'L2-Kd': 'L3_Vd'})])
```

We learned earlier that if we try to retrieve a *key* that is not in the **dict**, a **KeyError** will be raised. If we anticipate this, we can handle it using the `.get()` method. The method takes in the *key* and searches the dictionary to find it. If found, the associated *value* is returned. Otherwise, the method returns **None** by default. We can also pass a second value to `.get()` to replace **None** in cases that the requested *key* does not exist:

PYTHON < >

```
print(lac_repressor['gene'])
```

OUTPUT < >

```
KeyError: 'gene'
```

PYTHON < >

```
print(lac_repressor.get('gene'))
```

OUTPUT < >

```
None
```

PYTHON < >

```
print(lac_repressor.get('gene', 'Not found...'))
```

Not found...

PRACTICE EXERCISE 8

Implement the `lac_repressor` dictionary and try to extract the *values* associated with the following *keys*:

- `organism`
- `authors`
- `subunits`
- `method`

If a *key* does not exist in the dictionary, display `No entry` instead.

Display the results in the following format:

```
organism: XXX
authors: XXX
```

Solution

```
lac_repressor = {
    'pdb id': '1LBI',
    'deposit data': '1996-02-17',
    'organism': 'Escherichia coli',
    'method': 'x-ray',
    'resolution': 2.7,
}

requested_keys = ['organism', 'authors', 'subunits', 'method']

for key in requested_keys:
    lac_repressor.get(key, 'No entry')
```

```
'Escherichia coli'
'No entry'
'No entry'
'x-ray'
```

for-loop and dictionary

Dictionaries and **for**-loops used together can synergise into a powerful combination. We can leverage the accessibility of dictionary *values* through specific *keys* that we define ourselves in a loop in order to extract data iteratively, and repeatedly.

One of the most useful tools that we can create using nothing more than a **for**-loop and a dictionary, in only a few lines of code, is a sequence converter.

Here, we are essentially iterating through a sequence of DNA nucleotides (*sequence*), extracting one character per loop cycle from our string (*nucleotide*). We then use that character as a *key* to retrieve its corresponding *value* from our dictionary (*dna2rna*). Once we get the *value*, we add it to the variable that we initialised using an empty string outside the scope of our **for**-loop (*rna_sequence*) as discussed [here](#). At the end of the process, the variable *rna_sequence* will contain a converted version of our sequence.

PYTHON < >

```
sequence = 'CCCATCTTAAGACTTCACAAGACTTGTGAAATCAGACCACTGCTCAATGCGGAACGCCCG'

dna2rna = {"A": "U", "T": "A", "C": "G", "G": "C"}

rna_sequence = str() # Creating an empty string.

for nucleotide in sequence:
    rna_sequence += dna2rna[nucleotide]

print('DNA:', sequence)
print('RNA:', rna_sequence)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
DNA: CCCATCTTAAGACTTCACAAGACTTGTGAAATCAGACCACTGCTCAATGCGGAACGCCCG
RNA: GGGUAGAAUUCUGAAGUGUUCUGAACACUUUAGUCUGGUGACGAGUUACGCCUUGCGGGC
```

PRACTICE EXERCISE 9

We know that in reverse transcription, RNA nucleotides are converted to their complementary DNA nucleotides as shown:

Type	Direction	Nucleotides
RNA	5'...'	U A G C
cDNA	5'...'	A T C G

with this in mind:

- 1. Use the table to construct a dictionary for reverse transcription, and another dictionary for the conversion of cDNA to DNA.
- 2. Using the appropriate dictionary, convert the following mRNA (exon) sequence for human G protein-coupled receptor to its cDNA.

PYTHON < >

```
human_gpcr = (  
    ' AUGGAUGUGACUCCCAAGCCCGGGGCGUGGGCCUGGAGAUGUACCCAGGCACCGCGCAGCCUGCGGCCCCAACACCACCUC '  
    ' CCCCAGAGCUAACUGUCCACCCGCUCCUGGGCACCGCCUGGCCAAUGGGACAGGUGAGCUCUCGGAGCACCAGCAGUACG '  
    ' UGAUCGGCCUGUUCUCUCUGGCCUCUACCAUCUUCUCUCCCCAUCGGCUUUGUGGGCAACAUCUGAUCCUGGUGGUG '  
    ' AACAUAGCUUCCGCGAGAAGAUGACCAUCCCGACCGUACUUCAUCAACCUGGCGUGGGCGGACCUAUCCUGGUGGCCGA '  
    ' CUCCCUCAUUGAGGUGUUAACCUGCACGAGCGGUACUACGACAUCCGCGUCCUGUGCACCUAUGUCGCUCUUCUGCAGG '  
    ' UCAACAUGUACAGCAGCGUCUUCUUCUCCUACCUUGAUGAGCUUCGACCGUACAUCGCCUGGCCAGGGCCAUGCGCUGCAGC '  
    ' CUGUUCGCGACCAAGCACCACGCCCGGUGAGCUGUGGCCUAUCUGGAUGGCAUCCGUGUCAGCCACGUGGUGCCCUUCAC '  
    ' CGCCGUGCACCUGCAGCACACCGACGAGGCCUGCUUCUGUUUCGCGGAUGUCCGGGAGGUGCAGUGGCUCGAGGUCACGCUGG '  
    ' GCUUCAUCGUGCCCUUCGCCAUCAUCGGCCUGUGCUACUCCCUAUUGUCCGGGUGCUGGUCAGGGCGCACCGGCACCUGGG '  
    ' CUGCGGCCCCGGCGGAGAAAGGCGUCCGCAUGAUCCUCGCGGUGGUGCUGGUCUUCUUCGUCUGCUGGCGCCGGAGAACGU '  
    ' CUUCAUCAGCGUGCACCUCUGCAGCGGACGACGCCUGGGGCCGCUCCUGCAAGCAGUCUUUCCGCCAUGCCCACCCCUCA '  
    ' CGGGCCACAUUGUCAACCUACCGCCUUCUCCAACAGCUGCCUAAACCCCUCAUCUACAGCUUUCUGGGGAGACCUUCAGG '  
    ' GACAAGCUGAGGCGUACAUUGAGCAGAAAACAAUUUGCCGGCCUGAACCGCUUCUGUCACGCUGCCUGAAGGCCGUCAU '  
    ' UCCAGACAGCACCAGCAGUCGGAUGUGAGGUUCAGCAGUGCCGUG '  
)
```

Solution

PYTHON < >

```
mrna2cdna = {
    'U': 'A',
    'A': 'T',
    'G': 'C',
    'C': 'G'
}

cdna2dna = {
    'A': 'T',
    'T': 'A',
    'C': 'G',
    'G': 'C'
}
```

Q2

PYTHON < >

```
cdna = str()
for nucleotide in human_gpcr:
    cdna += mrna2cdna[nucleotide]

print(cdna)
```

OUTPUT < >

```
TACCTACACTGAAGGGTTCGGGCCCCGCACCCGGACCTCTACATGGGTCCGTGGCGCGTCGGACGCCGGGGGTGTGTTGGAGGGGGCTCGAGTTGGACAGGGT
```

Summary

In this section we explored dictionaries: one of the most powerful in-built types in Python. We covered:

- How to create dictionaries in Python.
- Methods to alter or manipulate both normal and nested dictionaries.
- Two different techniques for changing an existing *key*.
- Examples of how dictionaries can organise data and retrieve specific items and entries as and when required.

Finally, we also explored instantiating *iterables* (discussed [here](#)) from dictionary *keys* or *values* using the `.key()`, the `.values()`, and/or `.items()` methods.

Exercises

END OF CHAPTER EXERCISES

We know that the process of protein translation begins by transcribing a gene from DNA to RNA *nucleotides*, followed by translating the RNA *codons* into protein.

Conventionally, we write DNA sequences from their 5'-end to their 3'-end. The transcription process, however, begins from the 3'-end of a gene, through to the 5'-end (anti-sense strand), resulting in a sense mRNA sequence complementing the sense DNA strand. This is because RNA polymerase can only add nucleotides to the 3'-end of the growing mRNA chain, which eliminates the need for the [Okazaki fragments](#) as seen in DNA replication.

Example: The DNA sequence **ATGTCTAAA** is transcribed into **AUGUCUAAA**.

Given a conversion table:

DNA	A	T	C	G
cDNA	T	A	G	C
RNA	A	U	C	G

and this 5'- to 3'-end DNA sequence of 717 nucleotides for the [Green Fluorescent Protein \(GFP\)](#) mutant 3 extracted from [Aequorea victoria](#):

```
python < >
dna_sequence = (
    'ATGTCTAAAGGTGAAGAATTATTTACTGGTGTGTGCCAATTTTGGTTGAATTAGATGGTGATGTTAATGGT '
    'CACAAATTTTCTGTCTCCGGTGAAGGTGAAGGTGATGCTACTTACGGTAAATTGACCTTAAATTTATTTGT '
    'ACTACTGGTAAATTGCCAGTTCCATGGCCAACCTTAGTCACTACTTTCGGTTATGGTGTTCATGTTTTGCT '
    'AGATACCCAGATCATATGAAACAACATGACTTTTTCAAGTCTGCCATGCCAGAAGGTTATGTTCAAGAAAGA '
    'ACTATTTTTTTCAAAGATGACGGTAACTACAAGACCAGAGCTGAAGTCAAGTTTGAAGGTGATACCTTAGTT '
    'AATAGAATCGAATTAAGGTATTGATTTTAAAGAAGATGGTAACATTTTAGGTACAAATTGGAATACAAC '
    'TATAACTCTCACATGTTTACATCATGGCTGACAAACAAAGAATGGTATCAAAGTTAACTTCAAAATTAGA '
    'CACAACATTGAAGATGGTTCTGTTCAATTAGCTGACCATTATCAACAAATACTCCAATTGGTGATGGTCCA '
    'GTCTTGTTACCAGACAACCACTTATCCACTCAATCTGCCTTATCCAAAGATCCAAACGAAAAGAGAGAC '
    'CACATGGTCTTGTTAGAATTTGTTACTGCTGCTGGTATTACCCATGGTATGGATGAATTGTACAAATAA '
)
```

Use the DNA sequence and the conversion table to:

1. Write a Python script to *transcribe* this sequence to mRNA as it occurs in a biological organism. That is, determine the complimentary DNA first, and use this to produce the mRNA sequence.
2. Use the following dictionary in a Python script to obtain the translation (protein sequence) of the Green Fluorescent Protein using the mRNA sequence you obtained.

```
codon2aa = {  
    "UUU": "F", "UUC": "F", "UUA": "L", "UUG": "L", "CUU": "L",  
    "CUC": "L", "CUA": "L", "CUG": "L", "AUU": "I", "AUC": "I",  
    "AUA": "I", "GUU": "V", "GUC": "V", "GUA": "V", "GUG": "V",  
    "UCU": "S", "UCC": "S", "UCA": "S", "UCG": "S", "AGU": "S",  
    "AGC": "S", "CCU": "P", "CCC": "P", "CCA": "P", "CCG": "P",  
    "ACU": "T", "ACC": "T", "ACA": "T", "ACG": "T", "GCU": "A",  
    "GCC": "A", "GCA": "A", "GCG": "A", "UAU": "Y", "UAC": "Y",  
    "CAU": "H", "CAC": "H", "CAA": "Q", "CAG": "Q", "AAU": "N",  
    "AAC": "N", "AAA": "K", "AAG": "K", "GAU": "D", "GAC": "D",  
    "GAA": "E", "GAG": "E", "UGU": "C", "UGC": "C", "UGG": "W",  
    "CGU": "R", "CGC": "R", "CGA": "R", "CGG": "R", "AGA": "R",  
    "AGG": "R", "GGU": "G", "GGC": "G", "GGA": "G", "GGG": "G",  
    "AUG": "<Met>", "UAA": "<STOP>", "UAG": "<STOP>", "UGA": "<STOP>"  
}
```

Solution

KEY POINTS

- Dictionaries associate a set of *values* with a number of *keys*.
- *Keys* are used to access the values of a dictionary.
- Dictionaries are mutable.
- Nested dictionaries are constructed to organise data in a hierarchical fashion.
- Some of the useful methods to work with dictionaries are: `.items()`, `.get()`