15-110 F25 Hw6 - Protein Sequencing

Hw6 and its checks are organized differently from the other assignments. If you haven't already done so, you should read the **Hw6 General Guide** to understand how this assignment works.

Project Description

In this project, you will use data analysis to process and analyze DNA sequences for the gene p53, which is used to suppress cancer in organisms. Specifically, you will compare the p53 genes in humans and elephants, to identify what they have in common and how they are different. **Note**: basic knowledge of DNA/RNA/proteins is helpful for this project, but not required.

In the first week, you will interpret DNA data files from the NIH, convert them to RNA, then convert that to a sequence of generated proteins. In the second week, you'll compare the DNA data of the two organisms to discover their similarities and differences. In the third week, you'll use that comparison to generate a visualization of the results.

Click on the following links to read the instructions for each week's assignment:

Check6-1 - due Friday 04/11 at noon EST
Check6-2 - due Friday 04/18 at noon EST
Hw6 - due Friday 04/25 at noon EST

Check6-1 - due Monday 11/17 at noon

In the first stage of the project, you will download DNA data from NIH's website, convert it to RNA, and then convert that to a sequence of proteins. During this process you will output how many bases exist in each sequence, how many of those bases are actually used, and how many proteins are synthesized from the sequence.

Step 0: Written Assignment **[45pts]**

In addition to completing the steps described below, there is a short written assignment on the week's material. You can find the written assignment on the course website.

Step 1: Get the DNA data **[10pts]**

First, you need to retrieve the NIH data you will analyze in this project. To do this, go to the NIH gene database website, and retrieve the following webpages:

- Human p53: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/NC_000017.11?report=fasta&from=7668402&to=7687550&strand=true
- Elephant p53: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/nuccore/NW_003573467.1?report=fasta&from=11687413&to=11699835&strand=true

Note that DNA is composed of four bases: cytosine (C), guanine (G), adenine (A), and thymine (T). These bases, when read together, produce instructions that the organism can follow in order to create useful things. We represent the connected sequence of bases in a text file with a single letter per base.

Copy the DNA text from each page into a text file in the `data` folder, which should be in your project's folder and hold two files at first: `test_dna.txt` and `codon_table.json`. Make sure to ONLY copy in the DNA, not the surrounding text! You should name the file with the human DNA `human_p53.txt`, and the file with the elephant DNA `elephant_p53.txt`.

Now implement the function `readFile(filename)` included in the starter file. Given a filename, read the text from that file into a variable. Remove any newlines (`'\n'`) from the text, then return it. When called on a DNA file, this will return a string holding all the DNA in the file.

To test this function, run `testReadFile()`. This function assumes you have named your data files appropriately and included them in the `data` directory as the starter file.

Note: to keep the starter file from becoming too crowded, all the tests have been moved to the file `hw6_protein_tests.py`, which you can open and read while debugging. The functions in this file are called at the bottom of `hw6_protein.py`. **If you change the filename of `hw6_protein.py`, you will need to change the filename imported by `hw6_protein_tests.py` in the first line of the file too**.

Step 2: Convert DNA to RNA **[10pts]**

Next, you need to convert the DNA string to a string of RNA, which will be used to follow the instructions of the DNA. However, this process is not done by reading all of the DNA string. Instead, the organism breaks down the DNA into groups of three bases (called codons). One codon, ATG, signals the Start of an RNA strand; three other codons (TAA, TAG, and TGA) signal the end (Stop).

Implement the function `dnaToRna(dna, startIndex)` included in the starter file. You can assume that the start point for the RNA has already been found (`startIndex`); your task is to read codons from that start point until the end point is found, and return a list of all the codons in between. To do this, loop through the DNA sequence and produce codons as you go, by combining together every three DNA bases in a row into a codon. Add each codon to a list as a three-character string. As soon as you have added a Stop codon (or run out of DNA bases to read), return the list of codons.

One final note- for a variety of reasons, RNA uses U as a base instead of T. You'll need to replace every T base you find with a U instead. This means you'll need to check for Stop codons UAA, UAG, and UGA.

To test this function, run `testDnaToRna()`.

Step 3: Make a Codon Dictionary **[10pts]**

To turn RNA into proteins, we'll need to know which amino acid each codon corresponds to. We've provided this information in the file `data/codon_table.json`, which came as part of your starter zip file. Unfortunately, this data is not formatted exactly as you need it to be; it maps amino acids to lists of codons, but you need to map each codon to an amino acid.

Implement the function `makeCodonDictionary(filename)` in the starter file. First, open and read the contents of the file `filename` into a dictionary by calling `json.load()`. Then use the loaded dictionary (which maps amino acids to lists of codons) to generate a new dictionary (which will map codons to amino acids). Make sure to change all Ts in the codons to Us as you do this!

To test this function, run `testMakeCodonDictionary()`.

Step 4: Convert RNA to Proteins **[10pts]**

To turn RNA into proteins, we'll need to identify each codon in the RNA sequence and add its associated amino acid to the chain. This chain of amino acids will become our protein.

Implement the function `generateProtein(codons, codonD)` in the starter file. This takes an RNA sequence (a list of three-character strings, the codons) and the codon dictionary, and returns a protein (a list of amino acid strings). To do this, go through each codon in the RNA list, and add its associated amino acid (based on `codonD`) to a new list. When you reach a "STOP" codon or the end of the RNA strand, return the generated protein. This function should *not* destructively change the original list of codons.

Note that you'll need to special-case the first codon in the list. If it is AUG, you should add "START" to the protein instead of AUG's amino acid (Met), since Met encodes the start of a sequence in this circumstance.

To test this function, run `testGenerateProtein()`.

Note: technically, we aren't producing 100% accurate proteins with this system. We're skipping a step in the translation process, where the RNA is 'spliced' to remove unnecessary portions of the strand based on introns and exons. Unfortunately, there's no simple rule to detect where an intron or exon is; in fact, there are whole research teams dedicated to this question! We'll just produce slightly-inaccurate proteins for now.

Step 5: Synthesize Proteins **[15pts]**

Finally, we need to put all of the previous steps together in order to synthesize proteins from our data file. This is where we start processing real data!

Implement the function `synthesizeProteins(dnaFilename, codonFilename)` in the starter file. This program should read the DNA from the file located at the first filename (using `readFile`) and produce a codon dictionary by calling `makeCodonDictionary` on the second filename.

The program should then identify all of the RNA strands that can be produced from the DNA by iterating through all the indexes in the DNA string, looking for the start code (ATG) at each point. Note that you'll need to keep track of a list of proteins and a count variable outside of the loop.

- If you identify an index in the DNA that corresponds to ATG, call `dnaToRna()` starting from that index to extract the entire RNA sequence, then call `generateProtein()` on the resulting RNA (and codon dictionary) to produce a protein. That protein should be added to an overall protein list. Then update the index in the DNA strand to skip past all the already-checked bases (by adding 3 * the length of the RNA strand).
- If you get to an index that does not correspond to ATG, add one to the index, and also add one to the count variable, as this is an unused base.

When you finish looping, you'll have two useful pieces of information: a list of all the proteins synthesized from the DNA, and a count of all the bases that were not used. Print out the total number of bases, the unused-base count, and the total number of proteins synthesized. Then return the list of proteins.

To test this function, run `testSynthesizeProteins()`. Note that you will need to manually check that the number of total bases/unused bases/proteins printed by the program is correct; you can find the correct numbers for the tests in the comments of the test function.

Now you're finished with the first stage of the project. Run the provided function `runWeek1()` to put it all together. You should find that the human DNA synthesizes to 119 proteins (with 10560 unused bases), and the elephant DNA synthesizes to 77 proteins (with 6204 unused bases). Cool!

Check6-2 - due Monday 11/24 at noon

In the second stage of the project, you will analyze the protein sequences generated in the first stage, to determine what the biggest commonalities and biggest differences are between the two sequences. You will then automatically produce a text report showcasing these results.

Before you start this second stage, go to the bottom of the starter file and uncomment the four test lines associated with Week 2.

Step 0: Written Assignment **[45pts]**

In addition to completing the steps described below, there is a short written assignment on the week's material. You can find the written assignment on the course website.

Step 1: Find Common Proteins **[10pts]**

First, you need to determine if there are any proteins that occur in both genes, and what those proteins are. This will help determine how similar the two genes actually are.

Implement the function `commonProteins(proteinList1, proteinList2)` in the starter file. This function takes two lists of proteins (where each protein is a list of amino acids) and returns a list of all the unique proteins that occur in both lists. Each protein should only occur once in the result list, even if it shows up multiple times in both genes.

To test this function, run `testCommonProteins()`.

Step 2: Combine Protein Lists **[5pts]**

It turns out that there aren't many proteins in common between our two genes at all. Therefore, it's more interesting for us to consider what the biggest differences between the two genes are. More specifically, we want to compare the amino acids generated by the two genes, to see if anything in particular occurs more often in humans than elephants, or vice versa.

To do this comparison, we first need to collapse the list of proteins into a list of the amino acids that occur across all the proteins. Implement the function `combineProteins(proteinList)` that takes a list of proteins (where each protein is a list of amino acid strings) and returns a list of all the amino acids that occur across all the proteins, in their original order. In other words, this function inputs a 2D list of strings and outputs a 1D list of strings.

To test this function, run `testCombineProteins()`.

Step 3: Generate Amino Acid Dictionary **[5pts]**

Once we have a list of amino acids, we can use it to generate a dictionary that maps each amino acid in the list to a count of how often it occurs. We'll use this dictionary to determine the frequencies of each amino acid- how common is each type in the gene?

Implement the function `aminoAcidDictionary(aaList)` in the starter file. This takes a list of amino acids (strings), `aaList`, and returns a dictionary that maps each amino acid to how often it occurs in the list.

To test this function, run `testAminoAcidDictionary()`.

Step 4: Find Amino Acid Differences **[20pts]**

Now that we know how common each amino acid is, we can start comparing amino acids between genes of different lengths. Because the genes have different lengths, we can't just compare the counts of amino acids. Instead, we'll compare the **frequencies** of amino acids- in other words, how frequently it occurs in the gene. We can determine the frequency of an amino acid by finding its count (from `aminoAcidDictionary()`) and dividing it by the total number of amino acids in the gene.

Implement the function `findAminoAcidDifferences(proteinList1, proteinList2, cutoff)` in the starter file. This takes two protein lists and a float cutoff and returns a list of three-element lists, where the first element in the list is an amino acid, the second element is the frequency of that amino acid in `proteinList1`, and the third element is the frequency of that amino acid in `proteinList2`. You should only include amino acids in this returned list if the difference between their frequencies is **greater than** the provided cutoff. This cutoff is given as a decimal- in other words, 0.02 is 2%. You should also not include the Start and Stop amino acids in the list, as they are not interesting for this analysis (though they should still count towards the overall length of the gene).

To generate this list, you should first use your `combineProteins()` and `aminoAcidDictionary()` functions to generate data about amino acid frequencies for each protein list. Then go through each amino acid in the lists, and add each amino acid if and only if the two frequencies are sufficiently different between the two genes. If an amino acid does not occur in one of the two lists, its frequency is 0.

To test this function, run `testFindAminoAcidDifferences()`.

Step 5: Generate Text Report **[15pts]**

Now that we have working functions for finding the major commonalities and differences between genes, we need to display the results to the user. Implement the function `displayTextResults(commonalities, differences)` in the starter file. This function takes two lists - the list of common proteins between two genes, and the list of most-different amino acids in the two genes - and prints out a textual report of those results.

First, you should print out the common proteins. This part of the report should include a short piece of text stating that these are the common proteins, and should display the proteins in a readable format (not just as printed lists). You should also omit any two-codon proteins in the list, as these are just empty ["Start", "Stop"] proteins.

Then, you should print out the most different amino acids. This part of the report should include a short piece of text stating that these are the amino acids that occurred at the most different rates, and for each amino acid should print out that rate for each sequence in a readable format (again, not just a printed list, and the numbers should be rounded in some reasonable way). **Hint:** the built-in function `round` may come in handy.

For each part of the report, you may choose to personalize the text as long as you follow the requirements above. To test your function, run the provided function `runWeek2()`. Here's what our function produced; yours does not need to look 100% identical, but should have approximately the same results.

The following proteins occurred in both DNA Sequences:
Ala
Gly
Lys
Ser-Pro-Leu
Thr

The following amino acids occurred at very different rates in the two DNA sequences:
Gly : 7.4% in Seq1, 6.66% in Seq2
Phe : 3.98% in Seq1, 5.26% in Seq2
Met : 2.13% in Seq1, 3.09% in Seq2
Arg : 6.01% in Seq1, 4.63% in Seq2
Lys : 4.96% in Seq1, 4.2% in Seq2
Thr : 4.02% in Seq1, 4.82% in Seq2
Tyr : 2.06% in Seq1, 2.6% in Seq2
Ile : 3.07% in Seq1, 2.46% in Seq2

Hw6 - due Friday 12/05 at noon

In the final stage of the project, you will take the analysis results from the second stage and use them to produce a bar chart which visually demonstrates the different frequency rates of amino acids in the two p53 genes under investigation. You will use the module matplotlib to do this visualization.

Before you start this last stage, go to the bottom of the starter file and uncomment the four test lines associated with Week 3.

Step 0-A: Complete Check6-1 **[20pts]**

If you got a perfect score on Check6-1 (the project part), congratulations; this step is already done! Go to the next step.

Otherwise, go back to your Gradescope feedback on Check6-1 and use it to update your Check6-1 code. This is your chance to implement any features you might have missed before, and fix any code that isn't working to improve your grade on these 20pts.

Step 0-B: Complete Check6-2 **[20pts]**

If you got a perfect score on Check6-2 (the project part), congratulations; this step is already done! Go to the next step.

Otherwise, go back to your Gradescope feedback on Check6-2 and use it to update your Check6-2 code. This is your chance to implement any features you might have missed before, and fix any code that isn't working to improve your grade on these 20pts.

Step 1: Install matplotlib and numpy **[0pts]**

In order to use the matplotlib library, you will need to install it on your machine. If you do not have a personal computer, note that the cluster machines on Gates 5 should have matplotlib installed already.

To install matplotlib and one of its dependencies, numpy, we recommend that you use the 'Manage Packages' feature in Thonny. This tool will manage the installation process for you, which is much easier than trying to install a module manually.

Once you're in the 'Manage Packages' prompt, search for **numpy**, click on the link titled **numpy**, then click on 'Install'. Repeat the process with the search term **matplotlib**.

If you're using a non-Thonny IDE, you'll need to use the pip command instead. Open your computer's terminal and run the following commands:

```
pip install numpy
pip install matplotlib
```

If an error message occurs, try googling it to find a solution. TAs can also help debug installation errors via Piazza or in office hours.

You can test whether the modules are correctly installed by running the following commands in your interpreter. If they do not give you an error, you're good to go!

```
import numpy
import matplotlib
```

Step 2: Generate Chart Labels **[10pts]**

In order to plot our data using matplotlib, we first need to reformat it to fit the input that matplotlib expects. This first part of this will involve making labels for the graph based on all the amino acids that will be graphed.

Implement the function `makeAminoAcidLabels(proteinList1, proteinList2)` in the starter file. This takes two genes (where each gene is a protein list) and finds all the amino acids that occur across both of the genes. This accounts for amino acids that might occur in one gene but not the other. It should return a sorted list of all the amino acids found.

We suggest that you use the previous functions `combineProteins()` and `aminoAcidDictionary()` to simplify this function.

To test this function, run `testMakeAminoAcidLabels()`.

Step 3: Generate Chart Data **[15pts]**

Next, we need to process our data into the format that matplotlib will accept for data values. Specifically, we need to generate a list of frequencies, where each index `i` contains the frequency in a particular gene for the i'th element of the labels list.

Implement the function `setupChartData(labels, proteinList)` in the starter file. This takes a labels list (produced by `makeAminoAcidLabels()`) and a gene (a protein list), and returns a frequency list as defined in the previous paragraph. If an amino acid does not occur in the gene, set its frequency to 0.

We suggest that you again use the previous functions `combineProteins()` and `aminoAcidDictionary()` to simplify this function.

To test this function, run `testSetupChartData()`.

Step 4: Create a Bar Chart **[15pts]**

Now that we have labels and data, we can actually draw the comparison graph. For this problem you are welcome to use and adapt code from the course slides and Matplotlib website- just make sure to cite any code you use! You may want to start here: https://matplotlib.org/stable/gallery/lines_bars_and_markers/barchart.html#sphx-glr-gallery-lines-bars-and-markers-barchart-py

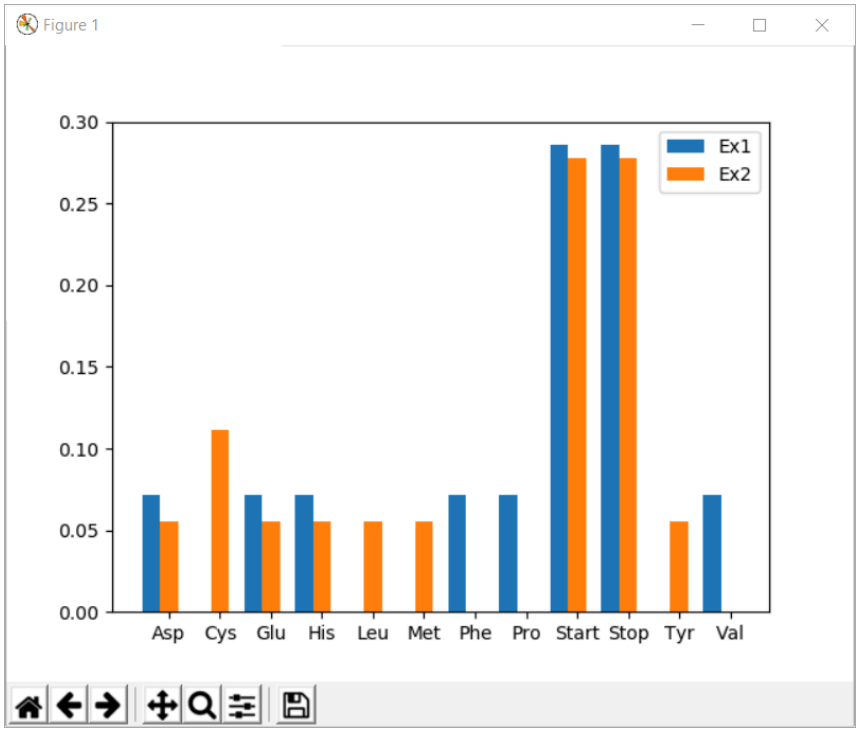
Implement the function `createChart(xLabels, freqList1, label1, freqList2, label2, edgeList=None)` in the starter file, which draws a bar chart comparing two genes based on their frequencies. `xLabels` is the list of amino acid labels (generated by `makeAminoAcidLabels()`); `freqList1` and `freqList2` are the lists of amino acid frequencies (generated by `setupChartData()`); `label1` and `label2` are the names of the gene represented by `freqList1` and `freqList2`. We'll discuss `edgeList` in more depth in the next step; for now, you can ignore it.

We want to make a side-by-side bar chart that compares the two gene frequency lists. To make a side-by-side bar chart, draw two bar charts on the same plot with their x positions slightly offset and with a width smaller than `0.5`. You can set the width of a bar with a keyword argument.

To create the x values, you can either use a `numpy.arange` and the length of the `xLabels` list (as is shown in the Matplotlib example), or you can construct two lists of integer positions by looping over the indexes (one list has each index minus half the width, the other has each index plus half the width). For example, to graph four bars side-by-side, the first set of data might be graphed at `[ -0.35, 0.65, 1.65, 2.65 ]` while the second would be graphed at `[ 0.35, 1.35, 2.35, 3.35 ]`.

Your bar charts should include x tick labels (based on `xLabels`) and legend labels (based on `label1` and `label2`). You can use keyword arguments to set up these labels. You'll need to make a separate call on `plt` to set up the legend - check the documentation to find what that method name is!

To test this function, run `testCreateChart()`. You should produce a chart that looks like the following image:



Step 5: Outline Different Edges **[10pts]**

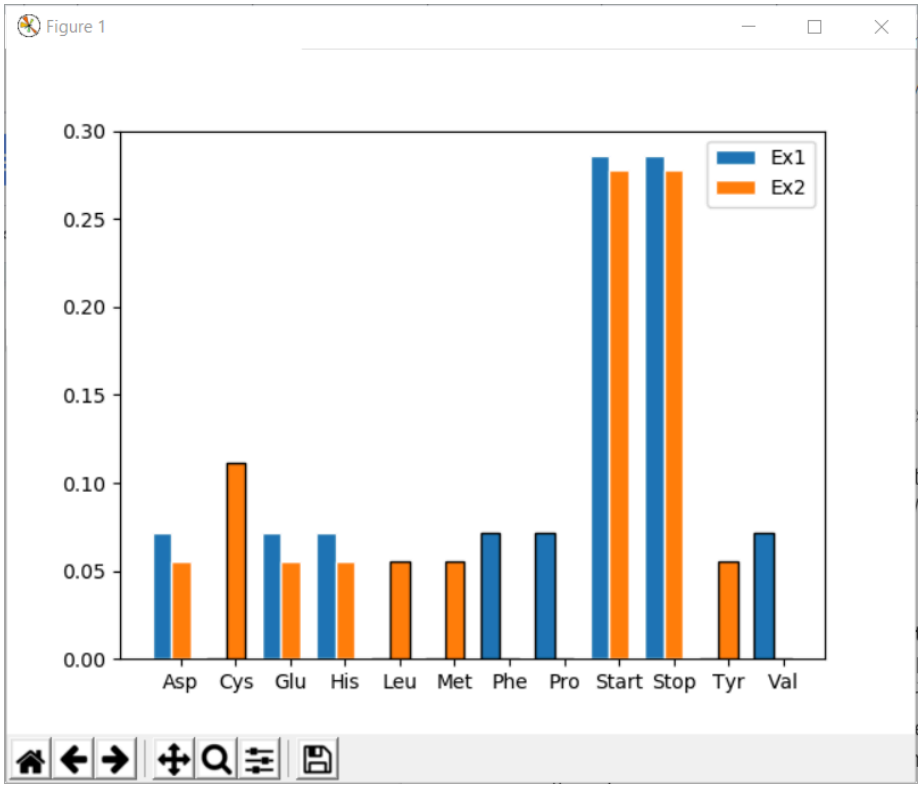
Finally, to make our amino acids chart a little more advanced, we'll incorporate the results of our analysis from Stage 2. We'll set the **edge color** of the amino acid bars which are sufficiently different to be a different color than the bars of the rest of the amino acids, to make them stand out.

Implement the function `makeEdgeList(labels, biggestDiffs)` in the starter file. This takes a list of labels (generated by `makeAminoAcidLabels()`) and a list of biggest-difference amino acids (generated by `findAminoAcidDifferences()`). This function returns a new list, the same length as the `labels` list, where each element of the list is `"black"` if the corresponding amino acid is in the `biggestDiffs` list and `"white"` otherwise.

Recall that `biggestDiffs` contains three-element lists, and that the first element of each three-element list is the amino acid. You'll have to check that part of the inner list to see if `biggestDiffs` contains a specific amino acid.

To test this function, run `testMakeEdgeList()`.

Once your `makeEdgeList()` function is working, update your `createChart()` function so that the calls to create bar plots include the keyword argument `edgecolor`, which controls the colors of the bars' edges (`None` by default). Set this keyword argument to use the function argument `edgeList` instead. Once you've made this update, the bar chart generated at the end of `testMakeEdgeList()` should look like the picture on the next page. Note that the bars for Cys, Leu, Met, Phe, Pro, Tyr, and Val appear bolder because they're been outlined in black.



Step 6: Put It All Together **[10pts]**

You've finally finished implementing all the features of the project. Now, you just need to put them all together.

Implement the function `runFullProgram()` in the starter file. This function should load the DNA data in your two p53 files, process them both into protein lists, generate a text report comparing the two genes (with a 0.5% cutoff for differences), and then generate a bar chart comparing the two genes (with the sufficiently-different amino acids outlined in black).

When you run this function, you should be able to view the results of all of your analysis. Congratulations- you're done!

For extra fun, try downloading different genes from NIH and load them into your runFullProgram function. You should be able to compare them the same way you compared the p53 genes.