

A language is not worth knowing unless it teaches you to think differently
- Larry Wall, Randal Schwartz

Professional



Object Oriented Programming



OOP Concepts and Terminology

- OOP in Python is optional! However, using the OOP paradigm help solving problems in an efficient way
- The following terms should be understood:
 - Class
 - Object or Instances
 - Inheritance
 - Polymorphism





Conclusion

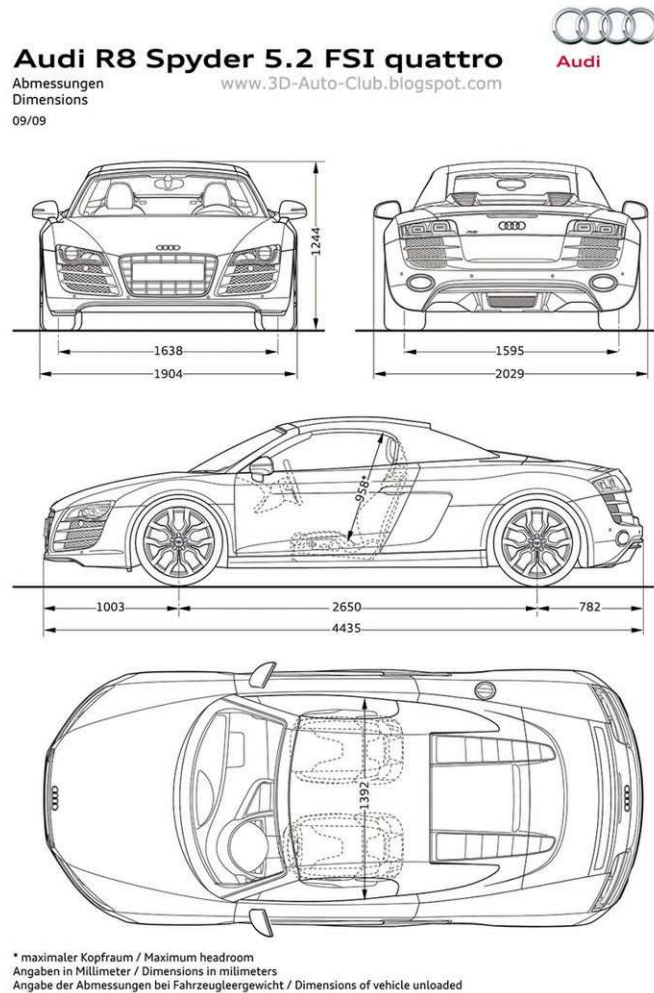
- OOP facilitates
 - Better organization on data
 - Better way of operating on data
 - Reuse and maintenance



Class

- Class defines an extensible template for creating objects
- It clubs variables and member functions under a single entity

Understanding a class



Object

- An object is an instance of a class and is an entity which has its own set of attributes and functions that were defined by a class



Public Interface

- The set of all methods provided by a class, together with the description of their behavior is called the public interface of the class



Encapsulation

- Encapsulation is the act of providing a public interface and hiding the implementation details
- Encapsulation enables changes in the implementation without affecting users of the class

You can drive a car by operating the steering wheel and pedals, without knowing how the engine works. Similarly, you use an object through its methods. The implementation is hidden.



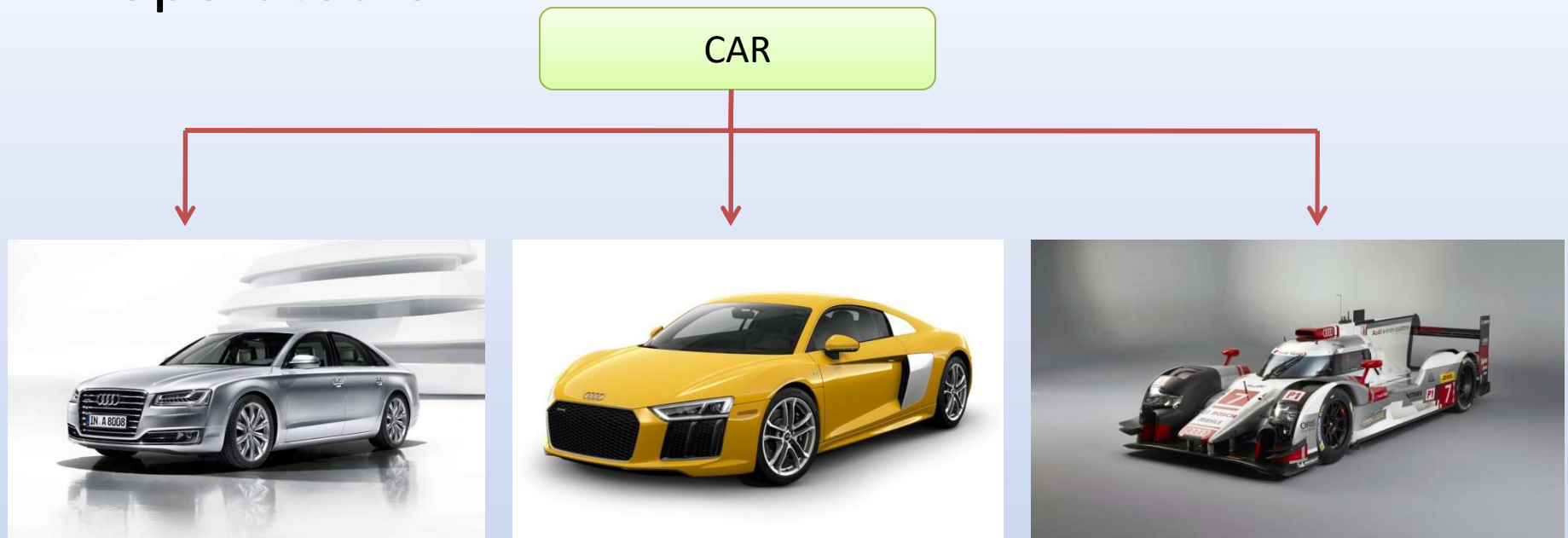
Inheritance

- Inheritance is a way to form new classes and thereafter objects using classes that have already been defined.



Polymorphism

- Polymorphism means that meaning of operation depends on the object being operated on.



Let's discuss about driving and maintenance tasks for cars...



Classes in Python

- Everything in Python is an object, hence a class is considered as an object in Python
- Classes are essentially factories for generating multiple instances or objects
- When we run a class statement it creates a class object and assigns it a name
- Class objects provide a default behavior



Constructor

- A constructor creates and initializes the instance variables of an object
- It is automatically called when an object is created
- The constructor is defined using the special method name `__init__`



Class Variable

- It is a variable that is shared by all instances of a class.
- Class variables are defined within a class but outside any of the class's methods.
- Class variables are not used as frequently as instance variables are.



Instance Variable

- A variable that is defined inside a method and belongs only to the current instance of a class



Methods

- They provide the public interface for every object that is created
- These are defined inside a class
- A method can access the instance variables of the object on which it acts
- A **mutator/setter** method changes the object attributes on which it operates
- An **accessor/getter** method does not change the attributes but queries the object for some information



The **self** Argument

- You declare other class methods like normal functions with the exception that the first argument to each method is **self**.
- Python adds the **self** argument to the list for you; you do not need to include it when you call the methods.



Instance Objects

- An instance object or simply object is created by calling the class object
- Instance variables store data required for executing methods
- Each object/instance of a class has its own set of instance variables



Accessing Methods

- You access the object's attributes using the dot operator with object



Example

```
class Employee:
    'Common base class for all employees'
    empCount = 0

    def __init__(self, name, salary):
        self.name = name
        self.salary = salary
        Employee.empCount += 1

    def displayCount(self):
        print "Total Employee %d" % Employee.empCount

    def displayEmployee(self):
        print "Name : ", self.name, " , Salary: ", self.salary

emp1 = Employee("Kumar", 2000)
emp2 = Employee("Abhinav", 5000)

emp1.displayEmployee()
emp2.displayEmployee()

print "Total Employee %d" % Employee.empCount
```

Class variable

Constructor

Instance variables

Methods

Object creation

Accessing methods



Special Functions to Access Attributes

- Instead of using the normal statements to access attributes, you can use the following functions –
 - **getattr(obj, name[, default])** : to access the attribute of object.
 - **hasattr(obj,name)** : to check if an attribute exists or not.
 - **setattr(obj,name,value)** : to set an attribute. If attribute does not exist, then it would be created.
 - **delattr(obj, name)** : to delete an attribute.



Example

```
hasattr(empl, 'age')    # Returns true if 'age' attribute exists
getattr(empl, 'age')    # Returns value of 'age' attribute
setattr(empl, 'age', 8) # Set attribute 'age' at 8
delattr(empl, 'age')    # Delete attribute 'age'
```



Special Attributes

- Every Python class keeps following built-in attributes and they can be accessed using dot operator like any other attribute –

`__dict__` : Dictionary containing the class's namespace.

`__doc__` : Class documentation string or none, if undefined.

`__name__` : Class name.

`__module__` : Module name in which the class is defined.
This attribute is "`__main__`" in interactive mode.

`__bases__` : A possibly empty tuple containing the base classes, in the order of their occurrence in the base class list.



Example

```
class Employee:
    'Common base class for all employees'
    empCount = 0

    def __init__(self, name, salary):
        self.name = name
        self.salary = salary
        Employee.empCount += 1

    def displayCount(self):
        print "Total Employee %d" % Employee.empCount

    def displayEmployee(self):
        print "Name : ", self.name, " , Salary: ", self.salary

print "Employee.__doc__:", Employee.__doc__
print "Employee.__name__:", Employee.__name__
print "Employee.__module__:", Employee.__module__
print "Employee.__bases__:", Employee.__bases__
print "Employee.__dict__:", Employee.__dict__
```



Testing a Class

- A unit test verifies that a class works correctly in isolation outside a complete program
- To test a class, use an environment for interactive testing or write a tester program to execute the test instructions
- Determining the expected result in advance is an important part of testing
- Test on the go



Patterns for Object Data

- When an object is designed, the needs of the programmers who use your class should be considered. Thus, you provide the public interface.
- Though the methods that constitute the public interface is not obvious in every type of class, there are few recurring patterns as below:
 - Keeping a total
 - Collecting values
 - Counting events
 - Managing properties of an object
 - Modeling object with distinct states
 - Describing the position of an object to model a moving object



Destroying Objects

- The process by which Python periodically reclaims blocks of memory that no longer are in use is termed Garbage Collection.
- Python's garbage collector runs during program execution and is triggered when an object's reference count reaches zero.
- The object's reference count decreases when it's deleted with **del**, its reference is reassigned, or its reference goes out of scope.
- A class can implement the special method **`__del__()`**, called a destructor, that is invoked when the instance is about to be destroyed.



Inheritance

- **Inheritance** is a mechanism of code customization and reuse.
- It is a way to form new classes (instances of which are called **objects**) using classes that have already been defined.
- It creates an 'is-a' relationship with the superclass



Superclass and Subclass

- In object-oriented design, inheritance is a relationship between a more general class called the superclass and a more specialized class called the subclass.
- The subclass inherits data and behavior from the superclass.
- You can always use a subclass object in place of a superclass object
- A subclass reference can be used when a superclass reference is expected



Constructor in subclass

- The superclass is responsible for defining its own instance variables
- The subclass constructor must explicitly call the superclass constructor
- Use the super function to call the superclass constructor



super()

- Returns a proxy object that delegates method calls to a parent

`super([type[, object-or-type]])`

```
class Root(object):
    def draw(self):
        # the delegation chain stops here
        assert not hasattr(super(Root, self), 'draw')

class Shape(Root):
    def __init__(self, shapename, **kwds):
        self.shapename = shapename
        super(Shape, self).__init__(**kwds)
    def draw(self):
        print 'Drawing. Setting shape to:', self.shapename
        super(Shape, self).draw()

class ColoredShape(Shape):
    def __init__(self, color, **kwds):
        self.color = color
        super(ColoredShape, self).__init__(**kwds)
    def draw(self):
        print 'Drawing. Setting color to:', self.color
        super(ColoredShape, self).draw()

ColoredShape(color='blue', shapename='square').draw()
print '-' * 20
```



Keep in Mind

- When you are doing this kind of specialization, there are three ways that the parent and child classes can interact:
 - Actions on the child imply an action on the parent.
 - Actions on the child override the action on the parent.
 - Actions on the child alter the action on the parent.



Method Override

- The subclass inherits all methods from the superclass.
- A subclass can override a superclass method by providing a new implementation
- Overriding a method can extend or replace the functionality of the superclass method
- Use `super` to call a superclass method



Polymorphism

- Polymorphism refers to the ability of the object to adapt the code to the type of data it is processing
- It has two major applications in OOP:
 - It provides different implementations of the methods depending upon the input types
 - Code written for a given type of data may be used on data with a derived type, i.e. methods understand the class hierarchy of a type



Operator Overloading

- Operator overloading refers to intercepting built-in operations in class's methods – Python automatically invokes these methods when instances of the class appear in built-in operations
- Key ideas:
 - Operator overloading lets classes intercept normal python operations
 - Classes can overload all Python expression operators
 - Classes can also overload built-in operations
 - Overloading makes class instances act more like built-in types
 - Overloading is implemented by providing operator method names beginning and ending with double underscore

Check: <https://docs.python.org/2/library/functions.html>

Refer: Learning Python 5 Ed. Mark Lutz Chapter 30



Example: Operator Overloading

Let's overload the '+' operator or the add()

```
class Point:
    def __init__(self, x = 0, y = 0):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y

    def __str__(self):
        return "({0},{1})".format(self.x,self.y)

    def __add__(self,other):
        x = self.x + other.x
        y = self.y + other.y
        return Point(x,y)
```

```
>>> p1 = Point(2,3)
>>> p2 = Point(-1,2)
>>> print(p1 + p2)
(1,5)
```

Similarly many built-in functions and operators can be overloaded



Example: Override Built-Ins

- Say, you want to change the output produced by printing or viewing instances to something more sensible.

```
class Pair:
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
```

```
>>> import pair
>>> p = Pair(3,4)
>>> p
<__main__.Pair instance at 0x00AE9800>
>>> print(p)
<__main__.Pair instance at 0x00AE9800>
```

```
class Pair:
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
    def __repr__(self):
        return 'Pair({0.x!r}, {0.y!r})'.format(self)
    def __str__(self):
        return '({0.x!s}, {0.y!s})'.format(self)
```

```
# Restart the shell and repeat
>>> import pair
>>> p = Pair(3,4)
>>> p
Pair(3, 4)
>>> print(p)
(3, 4)
```



Application

- Say, you want an object to support customized formatting through the `format()` function and string method.

```
_formats = {  
    'ymd' : '{d.year}-{d.month}-{d.day}',  
    'mdy' : '{d.month}/{d.day}/{d.year}',  
    'dmy' : '{d.day}/{d.month}/{d.year}'  
}
```

```
class Date:  
    def __init__(self, year, month, day):  
        self.year = year  
        self.month = month  
        self.day = day  
  
    def __format__(self, code):  
        if code == '':  
            code = 'ymd'  
        fmt = _formats[code]  
        return fmt.format(d=self)
```

```
>>> d = Date(2017, 1, 21)  
>>> format(d)  
'2017-1-21'  
>>> format(d, 'dmy')  
'21/1/2017'
```



__new__

- The magic method `__new__` will be called when instance is being created.
- Using this method you can customize the instance creation.
- This is only the method which will be called before `__init__` to initialize instance when you are creating instance

```
class AbstractClass(object):  
  
    def __new__(cls, a, b):  
        instance = super(AbstractClass, cls).__new__(cls)  
        instance.__init__(a, b)  
        return 3  
  
    def __init__(self, a, b):  
        print "Initializing Instance", a, b
```

```
>>> a = AbstractClass(2, 3)  
Initializing Instance 2 3  
>>> a  
3
```



Protected Attributes

- By prefixing the name of a member in a class with a single underscore
- It actually changes nothing. It's only a convention to follow

```
class Cup:
    def __init__(self):
        self.color = None
        self._content = None # protected
variable

    def fill(self, beverage):
        self._content = beverage

    def empty(self):
        self._content = None

cup = Cup()
cup._content = "tea"
```



Protected attribute



Private Attributes

- In Python, we use double underscore (Or `__`) before the names of methods and attributes to make them invisible outside the class
- These methods and attributes will not be directly accessible outside.

PS: In Python, nothing is strictly private



Example: Private Attributes

```
class MyClass:
```

```
    # Hidden member of MyClass
```

```
    __hiddenVariable = 0
```

```
    # A member method that changes
```

```
    # __hiddenVariable
```

```
    def add(self, increment):
```

```
        self.__hiddenVariable += increment
```

```
        print (self.__hiddenVariable)
```

```
    def __test(self):
```

```
        print(self.__hiddenVariable)
```

```
# Driver code
```

```
myObject = MyClass()
```

```
myObject.add(2)
```

```
myObject.add(5)
```

```
# These lines cause error
```

```
print (myObject.__hiddenVariable)
```

```
myObject.__test()
```

Hidden data

Hidden method



Accessing Private Attributes

- Python supports a technique called name mangling.
- This feature turns every member name prefixed with at least two underscores and suffixed with at most one underscore into `_<className><memberName>`

```
class MyClass:

    __hiddenVariable = 0

    def add(self, increment):
        self.__hiddenVariable += increment
        print (self.__hiddenVariable)

    def __test(self):
        print(self.__hiddenVariable)

# Driver code
myObject = MyClass()
myObject.add(2)

print (myObject._MyClass__hiddenVariable)
myObject._MyClass__test()
```



Accessing hidden attributes



Composition

- Composition is another way of extending a class by explicitly creating an instance of a class inside a sub-class
- It creates 'has-a' relationship
- Inheritance Vs Composition
 - In Inheritance, a class is inherited (extended) by a new sub-class that will add custom attributes and behavior to the inherited ones
 - In Composition, a class is utilized by creating an instance of it, and including that instance inside another larger object



Example: Composition

```
class math:
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x;
        self.y = y;
    def add(self):
        return self.x + self.y
    def subtract(self):
        return self.x - self.y
```

```
class math2:
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
    def multiply(self):
        return self.x * self.y
    def divide(self):
        return self.x/self.y
```

```
class math3:
    def __init__(self, x, y):
        self.x = x
        self.y = y
        self.m1 = math(x,y)
        self.m2 = math2(x,y)
    def power(self):
        return self.x ** self.y
    def add(self):
        return self.m1.add()
    def subtract(self):
        return self.m1.subtract()
    def multiply(self):
        return self.m2.multiply()
```

 Composition

Create a unit test for this code.

How would you achieve the same through inheritance?



Delegation

- Delegate = entrusting the responsibility to another person
- Delegation is a special form of composition, with a single embedded object managed by a wrapper (sometimes called a proxy) class that retains most or all of the embedded object's interface.

```
# Simple demonstration of the Proxy pattern.

class Implementation:
    def f(self):
        print("Implementation.f()")
    def g(self):
        print("Implementation.g()")
    def h(self):
        print("Implementation.h()")

class Proxy:
    def __init__(self):
        self.__implementation = Implementation()
    # Pass method calls to the implementation:
    def f(self): self.__implementation.f()
    def g(self): self.__implementation.g()
    def h(self): self.__implementation.h()

p = Proxy()
p.f(); p.g(); p.h()
```



Delegation

```
# Simple demonstration of the Proxy pattern.

class Implementation2:
    def f(self):
        print("Implementation.f()")
    def g(self):
        print("Implementation.g()")
    def h(self):
        print("Implementation.h()")

class Proxy2:
    def __init__(self):
        self.__implementation = Implementation2()
    def __getattr__(self, name):
        return getattr(self.__implementation, name)

p = Proxy2()
p.f(); p.g(); p.h();
```

Composition



Delegated



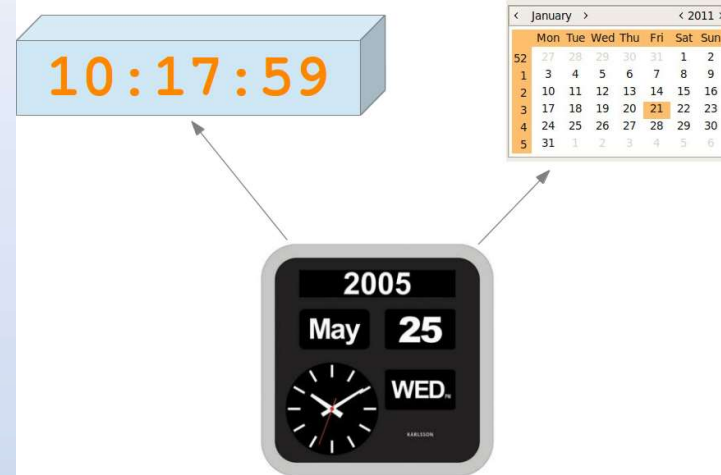


Mixins – Multiple Inheritance

- Mixin class is a class that has been inherited from multiple superclasses
- In a class statement, more than one superclass can be listed in parentheses in the header line.
- When you do this, you leverage multiple inheritance—the class and its instances inherit names from all the listed superclasses.

Example

- Say we have two classes: clock and calendar. Let's create a clock_calendar class that inherits from clock and calendar classes as shown:





Example

```
class Clock(object):  
  
    def __init__(self, hours, minutes, seconds): pass  
    def set_Clock(self, hours, minutes, seconds): pass  
    def __str__(self): pass  
    def tick(self): pass
```

```
class Calendar(object):  
  
    months = (31,28,31,30,31,30,31,31,30,31,30,31)  
    date_style = "British"  
    @staticmethod  
    def leapyear(year):  
    def __init__(self, d, m, y):  
    def set_Calendar(self, d, m, y):  
    def __str__(self):  
    def advance(self):
```

```
from clock import Clock  
from calendar import Calendar
```

```
class CalendarClock(Clock, Calendar):  
  
    def __init__(self, day, month, year, hour, minute, second):  
    def tick(self):  
    def __str__(self):
```

Multiple Inheritance



Factories

- Sometimes, class-based designs require objects to be created in response to conditions that can't be predicted when a program is written.
- The factory design pattern allows such a deferred approach
- Factory design pattern makes it easy to create specialized objects by instantiating a subclass chosen at runtime.



Example

```
class Cup:
    color = ""

    # This is the factory method
    @staticmethod    #Check what happens if you comment this
    def getCup(cupColor):
        if (cupColor == "red"):
            return RedCup()
        elif (cupColor == "blue"):
            return BlueCup()
        else:
            return None

class RedCup(Cup):
    color = "red"

class BlueCup(Cup):
    color = "blue"

# A little testing
redCup = Cup.getCup("red")
print "%s(%s)" % (redCup.color, redCup.__class__.__name__)
blueCup = Cup.getCup("blue")
print "%s(%s)" % (blueCup.color, blueCup.__class__.__name__)
```

```
RESTART: E:/Python27/mindful_examples/Classes - OOP/factory_design_pattern_02.py
red(RedCup)
blue(BlueCup)
```



Special Types of Methods

- Sometimes we need to process data associated with classes instead of instances
 - Such as keeping track of instances created or instances currently in the memory
 - Simple function written outside the class can suffice this requirement
 - However, the code will not be well associated with class and cannot be inherited and the name of the method is not localized
- Three types of methods are available:
 - Instance methods – discussed so far, default
 - Static methods
 - Class methods



Static Method

- **With static methods**, neither self (the object instance) nor cls (the class) is implicitly passed as the first argument.
- Nested inside a class
- Work on class attributes and not on the instance attributes
- They behave like plain functions except that you can call them from an instance or the class
- A built-in function `staticmethod()` is used to create them



Example

```
class example:
    numInstances = 0 # Use static method for class data
    def __init__(self):
        example.numInstances += 1
    def printNumInstances():
        print("Number of instances: %s" % example.numInstances)

    printNumInstances = staticmethod(printNumInstances)
```

```
==== RESTART: E:/Python27/mindful_examples/Classes - OOP/static_method.py ====
>>> import static_method
>>> a = example()
>>> b = example()
>>> c = example()
>>> example.printNumInstances()
Number of instances: 3
```



Benefits of Static Methods

- It localizes the function name in the class scope (so it won't clash with other names in the module)
- It moves the function code closer to where it is used (inside the class statement)
- It allows the sub-classes to customize the static method with inheritance
- Classes can inherit the static method without redefining it



Class Method

- Method definitions that have first argument as class name
- Can be called through both class and instance
- These are created with `classmethod()` inbuilt function
- The lowest class is passed in whenever a class method is run, even for subclasses that have no class methods of their own (Example 2)
- Class methods may be better suited to processing data that may differ for each class in a hierarchy (Example 3)



Example

```
class example:
    numInstances = 0 # Use class method instead of static
    def __init__(self):
        example.numInstances += 1
    def printNumInstances(cls):
        print("Number of instances: %s" % cls.numInstances)
    printNumInstances = classmethod(printNumInstances)
```

```
==== RESTART: E:/Python27/mindful_examples/Classes - OOP/class_method.py ====
>>> import class_method
>>> a = example()
>>> b = example()
>>> example.printNumInstances()
Number of instances: 2
```



Example 2

```
class example:
    numInstances = 0 # Use class method instead of static
    def __init__(self):
        example.numInstances += 1
    def printNumInstances(cls):
        print("Number of instances: %s" % cls.numInstances)
    printNumInstances = classmethod(printNumInstances)

class sub(example):
    def printNumInstances(cls): # Override a class method
        print("Extra stuff...", cls) # But call back to original
        example.printNumInstances()
    printNumInstances = classmethod(printNumInstances)

class other(example): pass # Inherit class method verbatim
```

Change: class other(sub): pass

Re-run

```
>>> z = other()
```

```
>>> z.printNumInstances()
```

What do you infer?



Example 2

```
=== RESTART: E:/Python27/mindful_examples/Classes - OOP/class_method_03.py ===
>>> import class_method_03
>>> x = sub()
>>> y = example()
>>> x.printNumInstances()
('Extra stuff...', <class __main__.sub at 0x01225298>)
Number of instances: 2
>>> sub.printNumInstances()
('Extra stuff...', <class __main__.sub at 0x01225298>)
Number of instances: 2
>>> z = other()
>>> z.printNumInstances()
Number of instances: 3
```



Example 3

```
class Spam:
    numInstances = 0
    def count(cls):
        # Per-class instance counters
        cls.numInstances += 1 # cls is lowest class above instance
    def __init__(self):
        self.count() # Passes self.__class__ to count
    count = classmethod(count)

class Sub(Spam):
    numInstances = 0
    def __init__(self): # Redefines __init__
        Spam.__init__(self)

class Other(Spam): # Inherits __init__
    numInstances = 0
```

```
=== RESTART: E:/Python27/mindful_examples/Classes - OOP/class_method_01.py ===
>>> import class_method_01
>>> x = Spam()
>>> y = Sub()
>>> z = Sub()
>>> a = Other()
>>> b = Other()
>>> c = Other()
>>> Spam.numInstances, Sub.numInstances, Other.numInstances
(1, 2, 3)
```



Example using Decorators

```
class Circle:
    all_circles = [] # class variable

    @staticmethod
    def total_area():
        for c in Circle.all_circles: # hardcode class name
            # do something

    @classmethod
    def total_area(cls):
        for c in cls.all_circles: # no hardcode class name
            # do something
```

No self or cls



Abstract Base Class

- Abstract super/base class—a class that expects parts of its behavior to be provided by its subclasses.
 - If an expected method is not defined in a subclass, Python raises an undefined name exception when the inheritance search fails.
- ABCs introduce virtual subclasses, which are classes that don't inherit from a class but are still recognized by `isinstance()` and `issubclass()`
- By defining an abstract base class, you can define a common API for a set of subclasses. This capability is especially useful in situations where a third-party is going to provide implementations
- It can also aid you when working on a large team or with a large code-base where keeping all classes in your head at the same time is difficult or not possible.



Example

```
class Super:
    def delegate(self):
        self.action()
    def action(self):
        assert False, 'action must be defined!' # If this version is called
```

```
>>> import abstract_super_class
>>> x = Super()
>>> x.delegate()

Traceback (most recent call last):
  File "<pyshell#42>", line 1, in <module>
    x.delegate()
  File "E:/Python27/mindful_examples/Classes - OOP/abstract_super_class.py", line 3, in
delegate
    self.action()
  File "E:/Python27/mindful_examples/Classes - OOP/abstract_super_class.py", line 5, in
action
    assert False, 'action must be defined!' # If this version is called
AssertionError: action must be defined!

>>> class Sub(Super):
    def action(self):
        print('Pythonic action')

>>> y = Sub()
>>> y.delegate()
Pythonic action
>>>
```




Decorators

- A decorator in Python is a callable Python object that is used to modify a function, method or class definition.
- The original object, the one which is going to be modified, is passed to a decorator as an argument.
- The decorator returns a modified object, e.g. a modified function, which is bound to the name used in the definition.



Example

```
def our_decorator(func):
    def function_wrapper(x):
        print("Before calling " + func.__name__)
        func(x)
        print("After calling " + func.__name__)
    return function_wrapper

def foo(x):
    print("Hi, foo has been called with " + str(x))

print("We call foo before decoration:")
foo("Hi")

print("We now decorate foo with f:")
foo = our_decorator(foo)

print("We call foo after decoration:")
foo(42)
```

```
We call foo before decoration:
Hi, foo has been called with Hi
We now decorate foo with f:
We call foo after decoration:
Before calling foo
Hi, foo has been called with 42
After calling foo
```



Example Continued..

- The decoration occurs in the line before the function header. The "@" is followed by the decorator function name.
- We will rewrite now our initial example. Instead of writing the statement
foo = our_decorator(foo) we can write
@our_decorator



Example Continued..

```
def our_decorator(func):
    def function_wrapper(x):
        print("Before calling " + func.__name__)
        func(x)
        print("After calling " + func.__name__)
    return function_wrapper

@our_decorator
def foo(x):
    print("Hi, foo has been called with " + str(x))

foo("Hi")
```



Class as a Decorator

- The example shows how a class can be used as a decorator
- `__call__` function holds an important role here

```
def decorator1(f):  
    def helper():  
        print("Decorating", f.__name__)  
        f()  
    return helper  
  
@decorator1  
def foo():  
    print("inside foo()")  
  
foo()
```

```
class decorator2(object):  
  
    def __init__(self, f):  
        self.f = f  
  
    def __call__(self):  
        print("Decorating", self.f.__name__)  
        self.f()  
  
@decorator2  
def foo():  
    print("inside foo()")  
  
foo()
```