

# The Left Hand of Equals

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# The Left Hand of Equals

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## Abstract

When is one object equal to another object? While object *identity* is fundamental to object-oriented systems, object *equality*, although tightly intertwined with identity, is harder to pin down. The distinction between identity and equality is reflected in object-oriented languages, almost all of which provide two variants of “equality”, while some provide many more. Programmers can usually override at least one of these forms of equality, and can always define their own methods to distinguish their own objects.

This essay takes a reflexive journey through fifty years of identity and equality in object-oriented languages, and ends somewhere we did not expect: a “left-handed” equality relying on trust and grace.

**Categories and Subject Descriptors** D.3.3 [*Programming Languages*]: Language Constructors and Features—Classes and objects.

**Keywords** equality, identity, abstraction, object-orientation

We began with Simula. This is hard to say now, for all of us who came of age in the golden years of programming language design feel in our bones that the world began with Smalltalk. Even though we know it’s not so, we cherish the memories of the dusty underground shelf where the library hid the Smalltalk books, of the Tektronix 4404 Smalltalk machine, equipped with a “cat” as well as a “mouse”, and of loading Smalltalk-80 off the Apple-branded floppy disks onto a Lisa. So much romance! Meanwhile, down in the basement machine room, Simula had been chugging along happily on the DECSYSTEM-10 since 1975. That Simula system lacked the sexy graphics of the Lisa and the 4404, but did offer an online debugging facility with breakpoints that has evolved but slightly into the debuggers of today.

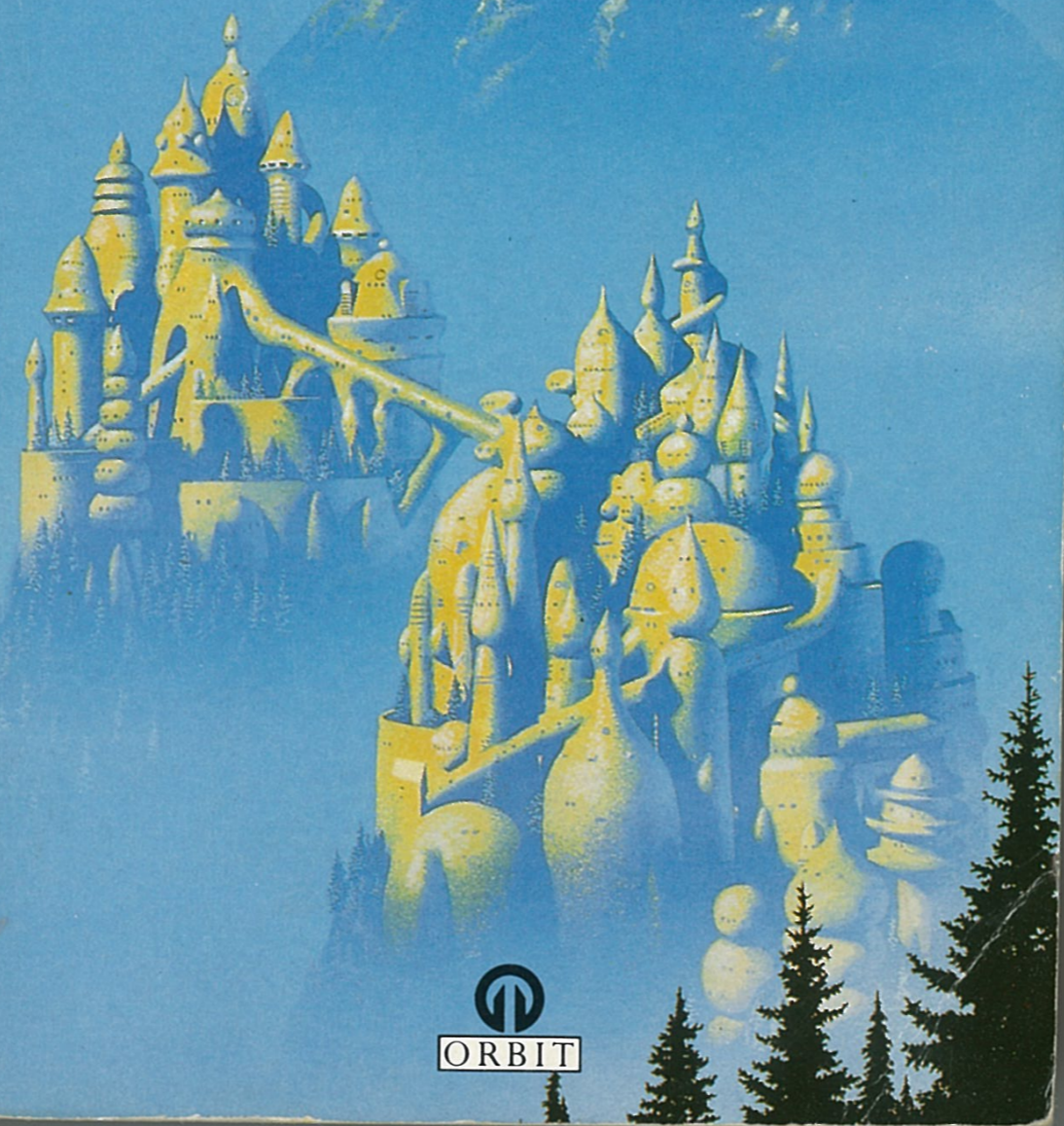
We finish with Grace. Or perhaps: we hope to finish with grace, to finish gracefully. Much of our recent professional lives have been occupied with the design of a new object-oriented language — Grace — intended be useful in education (Black et al. 2012). Grace follows in the tradition of Simula, Smalltalk, Self, Basic, and Pascal, mixing in Java, Ruby, Python, Newspeak and many other languages. If this



URSULA LeGUIN

The Left Hand  
of Darkness

A CLASSIC OF SCIENCE FICTION



## 1: A PARADE IN ERHENRANG

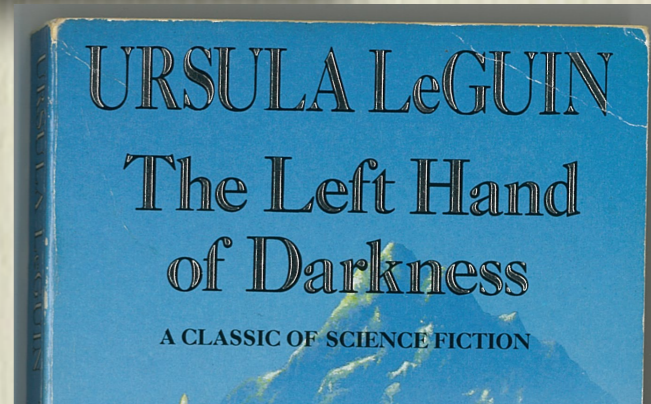
*From the Archives of Hain. Transcript of Ansible Document 01-01101-934-2-Gethen: To the Stabile on Ollul: Report from Genly Ai, First Mobile on Gethen/Winter, Hainish Cycle 93 Ekumenical Year 1490-97.*

I'll make my report as if I told a story, for I was taught as a child on my homeworld that Truth is a matter of the imagination. The soundest fact may fail or prevail in the style of its telling: like that singular organic jewel of our seas, which grows brighter as one woman wears it and, worn by another, dulls and goes to dust. Facts are no more solid, coherent, round, and real than pearls are. But both are sensitive.

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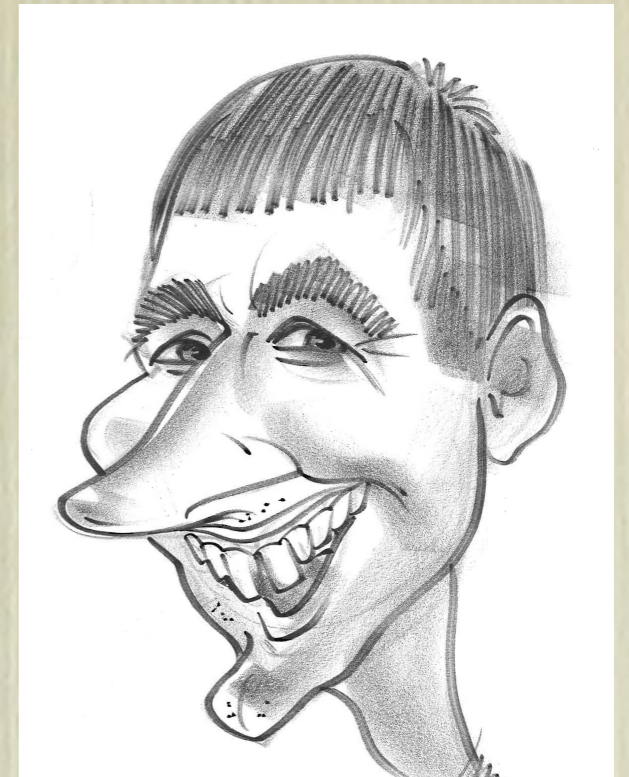
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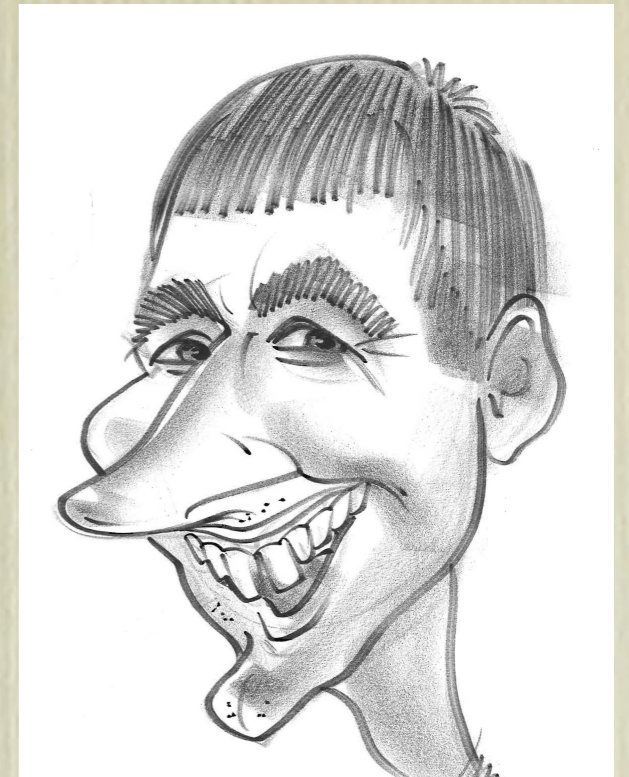
Prof Andrew:



Prof Stéphan:



Prof Andrew:



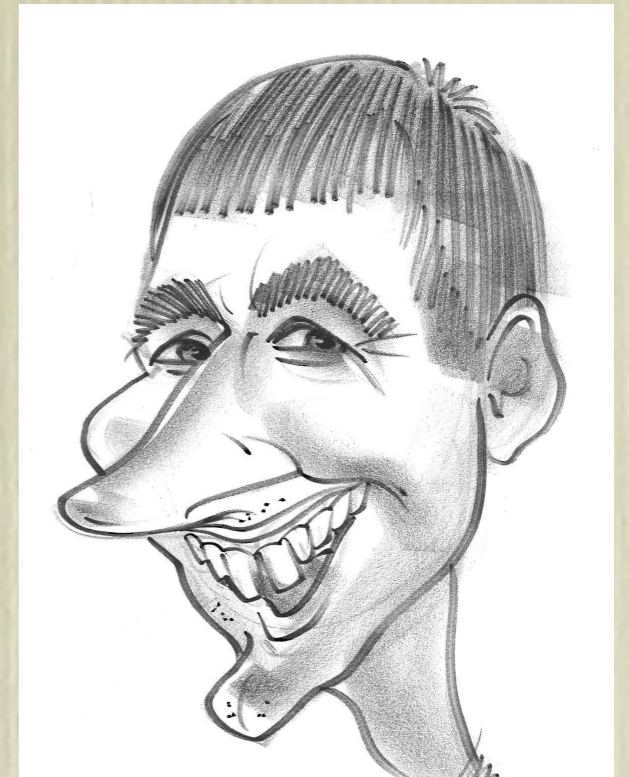
*Tell us about equality*

Prof Stéphan:



*Tell us about equality*

Prof Andrew:



*It's an essay; read it*



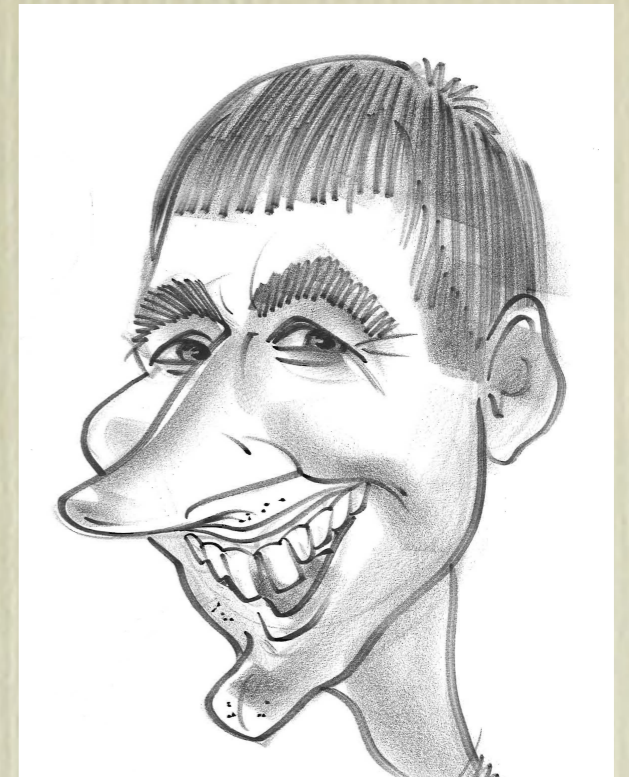
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TL; DR

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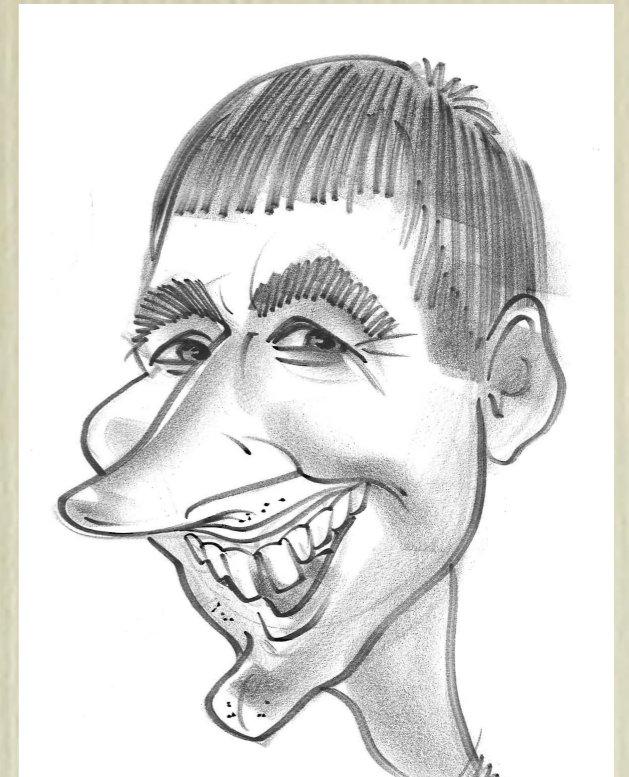
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*It's an essay; read it*

*I read it aloud at SPLASH*

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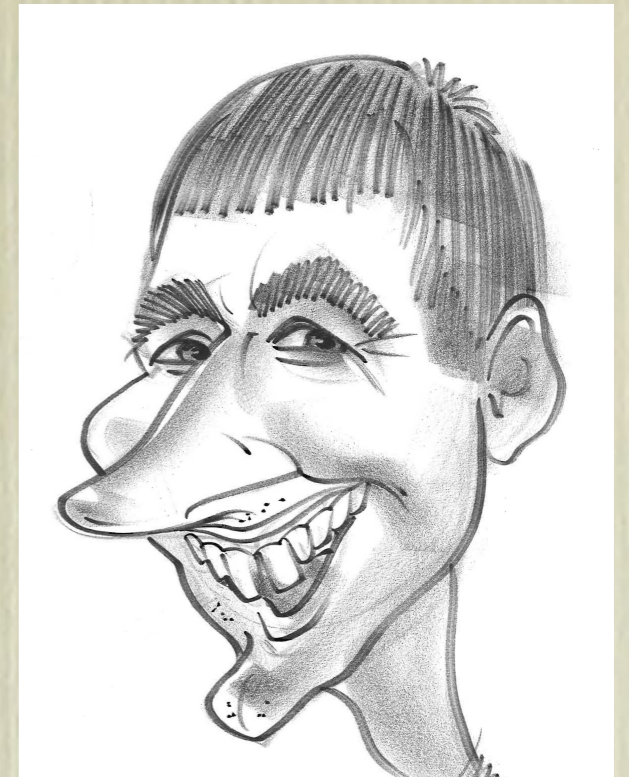


*Tell us about equality*

*TL; DR*

*Give us just the essence*

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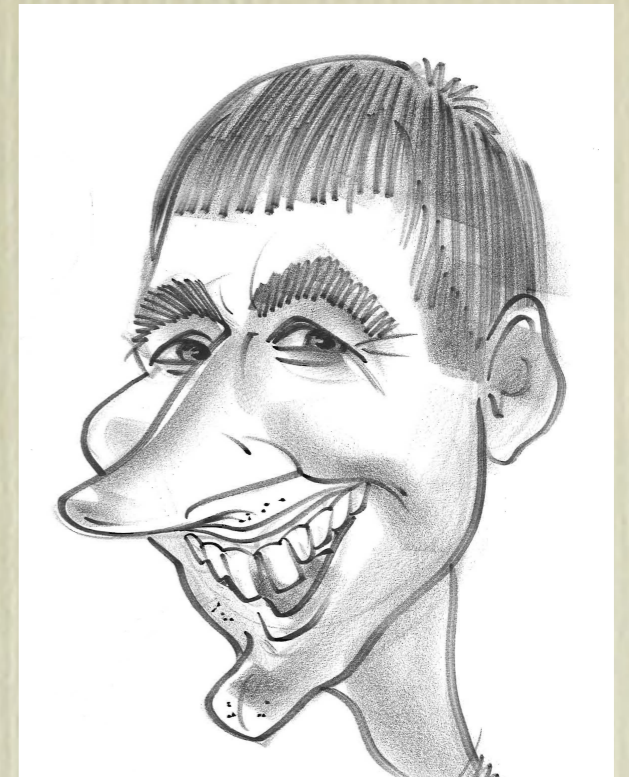


*Tell us about equality*

*TL; DR*

*Give us just the essence*

Prof Andrew:



*It's an essay; read it*

*I read it aloud at SPLASH*

*OK, I'll try to do that*

We begin with Simula ...

# SIMULA BEGIN

Graham M Birtwistle  
Ole-Johan Dahl  
Bjørn Myhrhaug  
Kristen Nygaard



Studentlitteratur  
Box 1719, S-221 01 Lund,  
Sweden

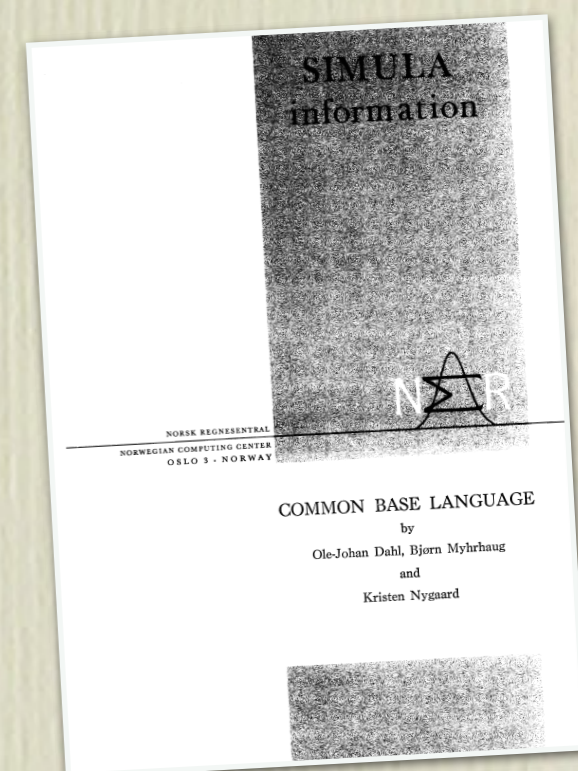
Bratt Institut für  
Neues Lernen

Chartwell-Bratt Ltd  
Old Orchard, Bickley Road,  
Bromley, Kent BR1 2NE,

# Simula

*Associated with an object there is a unique “object reference” which identifies the object. ... Two object references X and Y are said to be “identical” if they refer to the same object.*

SIMULA-67 Common Base Standard (1970) (Dahl et al. 1970).



# Simula



# Simula

==

=/=

## Reference Equality

Do two references refer to the same object?

# Simula

==

=/=

## Reference Equality

Do two references refer to the same object?

=

/=

## Value Equality

Do two objects contain equal values?

# Simula

# Simula

**:=**

**Value Assignment**

# Simula

:-

**Reference Assignment**

:=

**Value Assignment**

# *Families* of Operators

- For each equality operator  $=$ , we assume:
  - an inequality operator  $\neq$
  - an operation **hash**
- with the usual properties:
  - $a \neq b \triangleq \neg (a = b)$
  - $a = b \Rightarrow a \text{ **hash** } = b \text{ **hash** }$
- I won't mention this again

# Simula

Simula keeps things *mostly* straightforward:

- no *value* equality (or assignment) for objects
- no *reference* equality (or assignment) for values

So:

- objects use reference equality
- numbers and characters use value equality

# Simula Strings

Strings (**texts**) have both reference equality and value equality



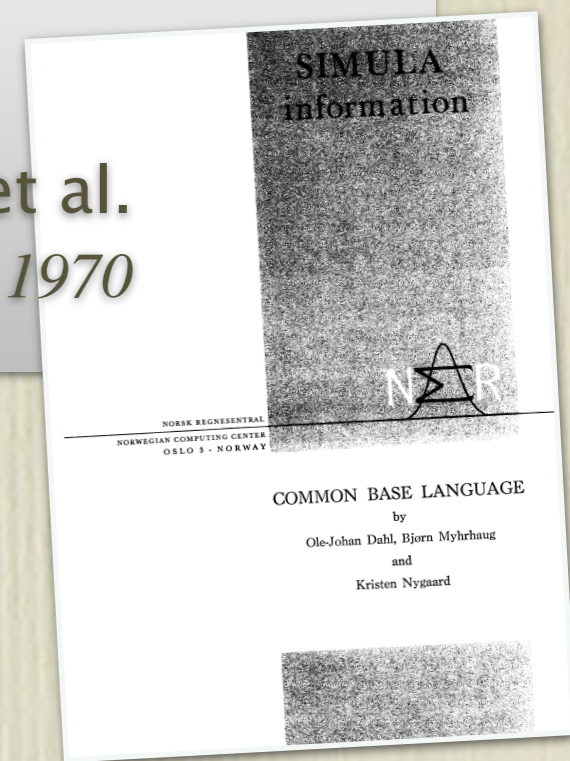
# Simula Strings

Strings (**texts**) have both reference equality and value equality

If **T** and **U** are texts, then “the relations **T=U** and **T≠U** may both have the value true”

Dahl et al.

*SIMULA Common Base Language, 1970*



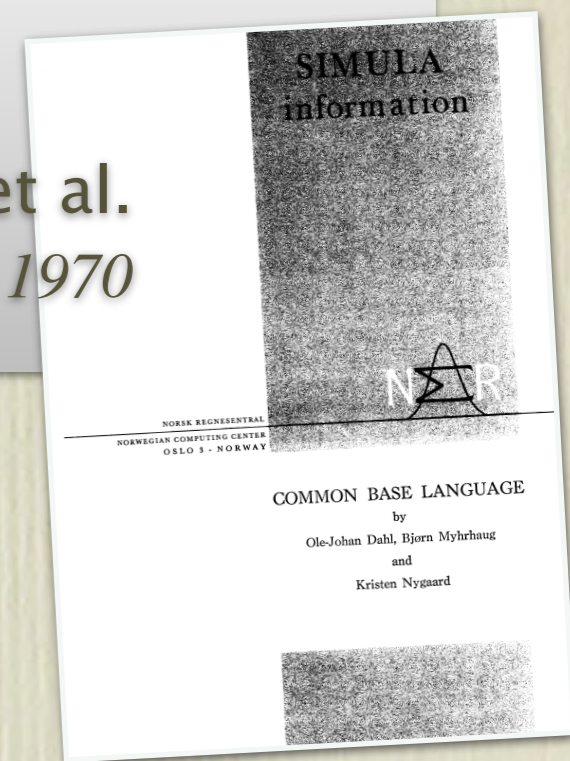
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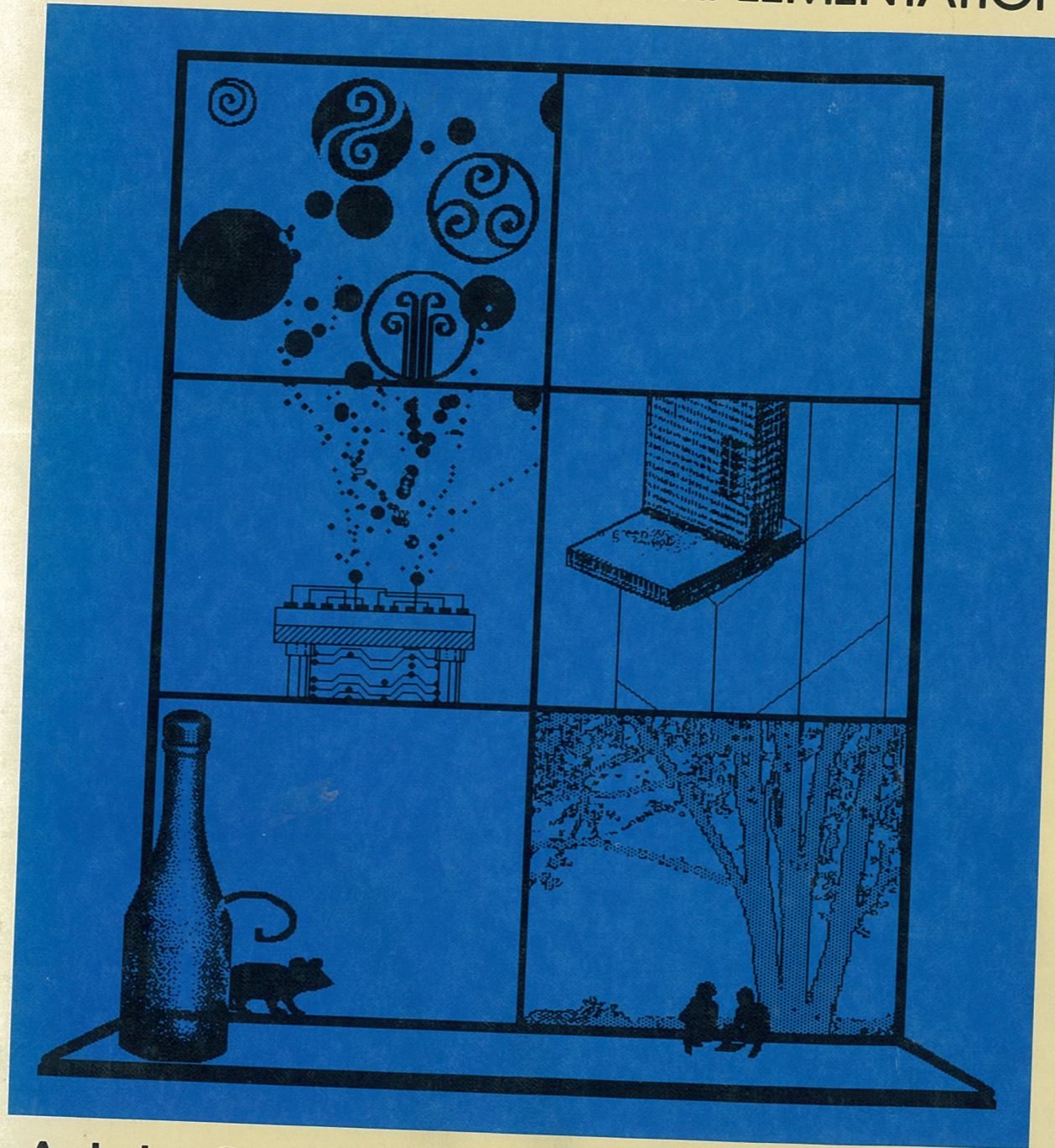


“Here is the worm in our garden of Eden”

# On to Smalltalk

# SMALLTALK-80

THE LANGUAGE AND ITS IMPLEMENTATION



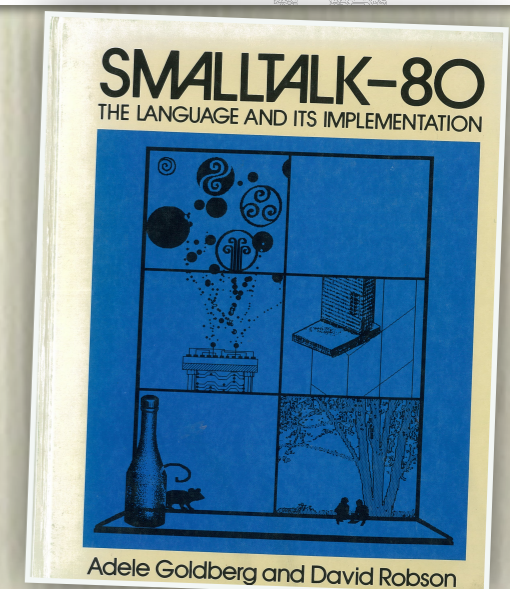
Adele Goldberg and David Robson

# Smalltalk

## Comparing Objects

Since all information in the system is represented as objects, there is a basic protocol provided for testing the identity of an object and for copying objects. The important comparisons specified in class Object are equivalence and equality testing. Equivalence (`==`) is the test of whether two objects are the same object. Equality (`=`) is the test of whether two objects represent the same component. The decision as to what it means to be “represent the same component” is made by the receiver of the message; each new kind of object that adds new instance variables typically must reimplement the `=` message in order to specify which of its instance variables should enter into the test of equality. For example, equality of two arrays is determined by checking the size of the arrays and then the equality of each of the elements of the arrays; equality of two numbers is determined by testing whether the two numbers represent the same value; and equality of two bank accounts might rest solely on the equality of each account identification number.

Adele Goldberg and David Robson  
*Smalltalk: The Language and its Implementation*



# Smalltalk

# Smalltalk

==

~~

## Reference Equality

Do two references refer to the same object?

# Smalltalk

==

~~

## Reference Equality

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=

~=

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Do two objects contain equal values?



# Smalltalk

==

~~

## Reference Equality

Do two references refer to the same object?

=

~=

## ~~Value Equality~~

~~Do two objects contain equal values?~~

# Smalltalk

==

~~

## Reference Equality

Do two references refer to the same object?

=

~=

## Abstract Equality

Do two objects represent the same abstract value?

# Lisp and EGAL

# Lisp and EGAL

## 6.3. Equality Predicates

Common Lisp provides a spectrum of predicates for testing for equality of two objects: `eq` (the most specific), `eql`, `equal`, and `equalp` (the most general). `eq` and `equal` have the meanings traditional in Lisp. `eql` was added because it is frequently needed, and `equalp` was added primarily in order to have a version of `equal` that would ignore type differences when comparing numbers and case differences when comparing characters. If two objects satisfy any one of these equality predicates, then they also satisfy all those that are more general.

`eq x y`

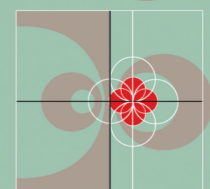
[*Function*]

(`eq x y`) is true if and only if  $x$  and  $y$  are the same identical object. (Implementationally,  $x$  and  $y$  are usually `eq` if and only if they address the same identical memory location.)

`eq1 x y`

[*Function*]

The `eq1` predicate is true if its arguments are `eq`, or if they are numbers of the same type with the same value, or if they are character objects that represent the same character. For example:



It should be noted that things that print the same are not necessarily eq to each other. Symbols with the same print name usually are eq to each other because of the use of the intern function. However, numbers with the same value need not be eq, and two similar lists are usually not eq. For example:

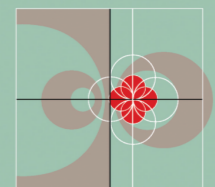
In Common Lisp, unlike some other Lisp dialects, the implementation is permitted to make “copies” of characters and numbers at any time. (This permission is granted because it allows tremendous performance improvements in many common situations.) The net effect is that Common Lisp makes no guarantee that eq will be true even when both its arguments are “the same thing” if that thing is a character or number. For example:

```
(let ((x 5)) (eq x x))
```

 might be true or false.

GUY L. STEELE JR.

COMMON  
LISP



THE LANGUAGE  
SECOND EDITION

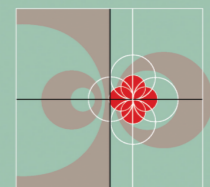
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GUY L. STEELE JR.

COMMON  
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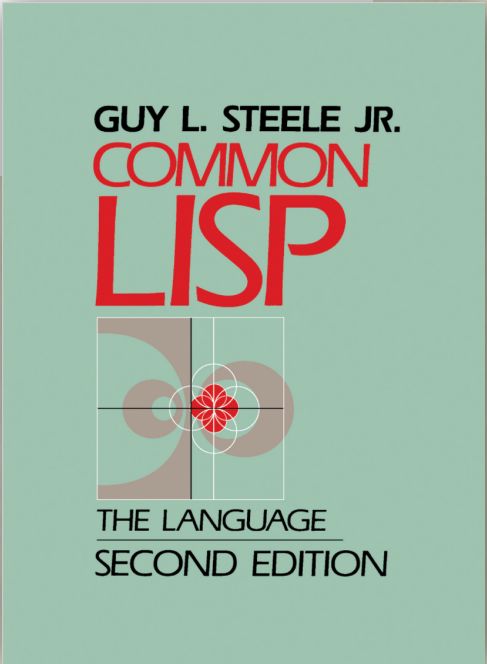
THE LANGUAGE  
SECOND EDITION

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```
(let ((x 5)) (eq x x)) might be true or false.
```

They should have read ...



GUY L. STEELE JR.  
**COMMON  
LISP**  
THE LANGUAGE  
SECOND EDITION



## **Efficient Message Handling**

It should be obvious that to [implement the system the way that it is specified] ... will result in a slow system ... The implementor must cheat, but not get caught. In other words, the user of the system should not perceive any non-uniformity.

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Dan Ingalls,  
The Smalltalk-76 Programming System  
POPL V (1978)

Baker's EGAL:  
one equality operator to rule them all

# OOPS MESSENGER

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Programming Languages

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NUMBER 4

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A Short Note from the Editor

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# Equal Rights for Functional Objects<sup>1</sup> or, The More Things Change, The More They Are the Same<sup>2</sup>

Henry G. Baker

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August, October, 1990, October, 1991, and April, 1992

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We argue that intensional *object identity* in object-oriented programming languages and databases is best defined operationally by side-effect semantics. A corollary is that "functional" objects have extensional semantics. This model of object identity, which is analogous to the normal forms of relational algebra, provides cleaner semantics for the value-transmission operations and built-in primitive equality predicate of a programming language, and eliminates the confusion surrounding "call-by-value" and "call-by-reference" as well as the confusion of multiple equality predicates.

Implementation issues are discussed, and this model is shown to have significant performance advantages in persistent, parallel, distributed and multilingual processing environments. This model also provides insight into the "type equivalence" problem of Algol-68, Pascal and Ada.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Parallel, distributed and persistent programming languages are leaving the laboratories for more wide-spread use. Due to the substantial differences between the semantics and implementations of these languages and traditional serial programming languages, however, some of the most basic notions of programming languages must be refined to allow efficient, *portable* implementations. In this paper, we are concerned with defining *object identity* in parallel, distributed and persistent systems in such a way that the intuitive semantics of serial implementations are transparently preserved. Great hardware effort and expense—e.g., cache coherency protocols for shared memory multiprocessors—are the result of this desire for transparency. Yet much of the synchronization cost of these protocols is wasted on *functional/immutable* objects, which do not have a coherency problem. If programming languages distinguish functional/immutable objects from non-functional/mutable objects, and if programs utilize a "mostly functional" style, then such programs will be efficient even in a non-shared-memory ("message-passing") implementation. Since it is likely that a cache-coherent shared-memory paradigm will not apply to a large fraction of distributed and persistent applications, our treatment of object identity provides increased cleanliness and efficiency even for non-shared-memory applications.

The most intuitive notion of object identity is offered by simple Smalltalk implementations in which "everything is a pointer". In these systems, an "object" is a sequence of locations in memory, and all "values" are homogeneously implemented as addresses (pointers) of such "objects". There are several serious problems with this model. First, "objects" in two different locations may have the same bit pattern both representing the integer "9"; an implementation must either make sure that copies like this cannot happen, or fix the equality comparison to dereference the pointers in this case. Second, the "everything is a pointer" model often entails an "everything is heap-allocated" policy, with its attendant overheads; an efficient implementation might wish to manage small fixed-size "things" like complex floating point numbers directly, rather than through pointers. Third, read access to the bits of an object may become a bottleneck in a multiprocessor environment due to locking and memory contention, even when the object is functional/immutable and could be transparently copied. In light of these problems, we seek a more efficient and less implementation-dependent notion of object identity than that of an address in a random-access computer memory.

A more efficient, but also more confusing, notion of object identity is offered by languages such as Pascal, Ada and C. These languages can be more efficient because they directly manipulate values other than pointers. This efficiency is gained, however, at the cost of an implementation-dependent notion of object identity. To a first

---

<sup>1</sup>"Functional objects" is triply overloaded, meaning immutable objects, function closures or objects with functional dependencies.

<sup>2</sup>*Plus ça change, plus c'est la même chose*—Alphonse Karr, as translated in [Cohen60,p.214].

### 3. OUR MODEL OF OBJECT IDENTITY

#### A. Mutability Definition of Object Identity

Our model for object identity is similar to Scheme's concept of "operational identity" [Rees86], in which objects which *behave* the same should *be* the same. However, since "behave the same" is undecidable for functions and function-closures, we back down from "operational identity" to "operational identity of data structure representations". Operational identity for data structures is much easier than operational identity for function-closures, because there are only a few well-defined operations on data structures, but function-closures can do anything. We define a single, computable, primitive equality predicate called EGAL which we show is consistent with the notion of "operational identity of data structures". *Egal* is the obsolete Norman term for *equal*, and *Égalité* is the French word for social equality. "During the seventeenth century *two parallel vertical lines* were frequently used [to denote equality], especially in France, instead of =" [Young11]; we will later find that || is a remarkably satisfying infix symbol for *egal*.

Our model for object identity distinguishes mutable objects from immutable objects, and mutable components of aggregate objects from immutable components. We consider an immutable component of an object to be an integral part of the object's identity, since it cannot be separated from the object. Unlike a normalized (factored) relational database, which attempts to *minimize* the size of a "key" which holds the essence of an entity [Ullman80,s.5.4], we *maximize* the size of the object "key" to include all of its static components. Because these components are static, we cannot create any "update anomalies" with this policy. In particular, this object identity can be used as a key to a Common Lisp hash table [Steele90,p.435], and no hash entries will become inaccessible as a result of a key element being modified.



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## **EGAL**

Compare mutable objects with reference equality, and immutable objects with value equality.

## EGAL

Compare mutable objects with reference equality, and immutable objects with value equality.

EGAL is *stable*:

- it does not depend on mutable state
- it's an *always equal* operator

# Clojure

# Closure

EGAL

=

Reference Equality

`identical`

# Clojure

EGAL

=

Reference Equality

identical

# Pyret

Reference Equality  
<=> identical

Value Equality  
=~ equals-now

EGAL  
= equals-always

# The *intention* of equality

- Should some (or all) equality operators be equivalence relations?
- What does it mean for two objects to be equal?

# Java Specifies an Intention:

```
public boolean equals(Object obj)
```

Indicates whether some other object is “equal to” this one.

The equals method implements an equivalence relation on non-null object references:

- It is *reflexive*: for any non-null reference value  $x$ ,  $x.equals(x)$  should return true.
- It is *symmetric*: for any non-null reference values  $x$  and  $y$ ,  $x.equals(y)$  should return true if and only if  $y.equals(x)$  returns true.
- It is *transitive*: for any non-null reference values  $x$ ,  $y$ , and  $z$ , if  $x.equals(y)$  returns true and  $y.equals(z)$  returns true, then  $x.equals(z)$  should return true.

- It is *consistent*: for any non-null reference values  $x$  and  $y$ , multiple invocations of  $x.equals(y)$  consistently return true or consistently return false, provided no information used in equals comparisons on the objects is modified.
- For any non-null reference value  $x$ ,  $x.equals(null)$  should return false.

...

## Returns:

true if this object is the same as the obj argument; false otherwise.

The Java Platform (Gosling et al. 2005)  
(our underlining)



Java's specification allows  
objects to be equal when they are  
*not* EGAL

e.g., two distinct mutable objects can never be  
EGAL, but they can be `equals`

# The First Lesson

Specifying an intention  
*conditioned on no object changing its state*  
is not very useful in a world of  
stateful objects

# Pragmatics of Equality

- Once a programmer knows that two objects are equal, what can they assume?
- Cook, and Ungar, argue that *equal always* should mean bi-simulation

equal-always

# equal-always

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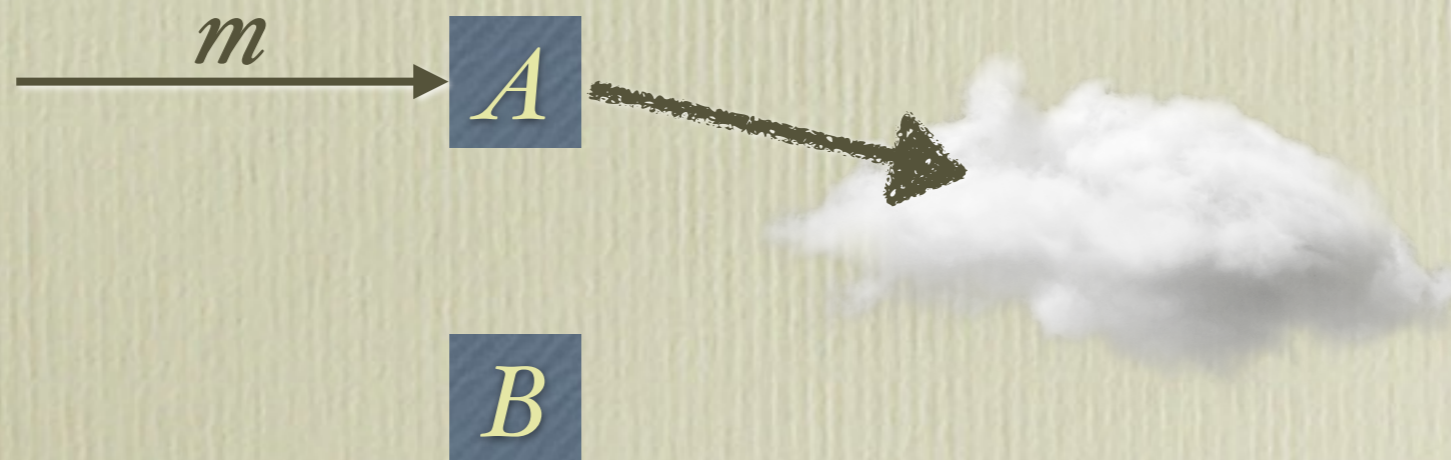
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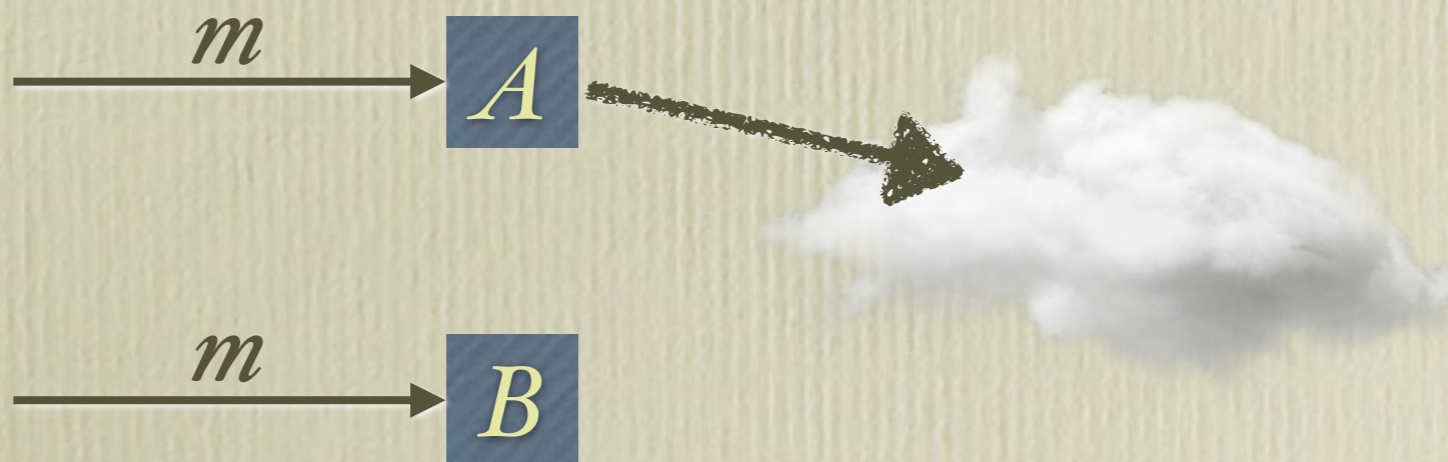
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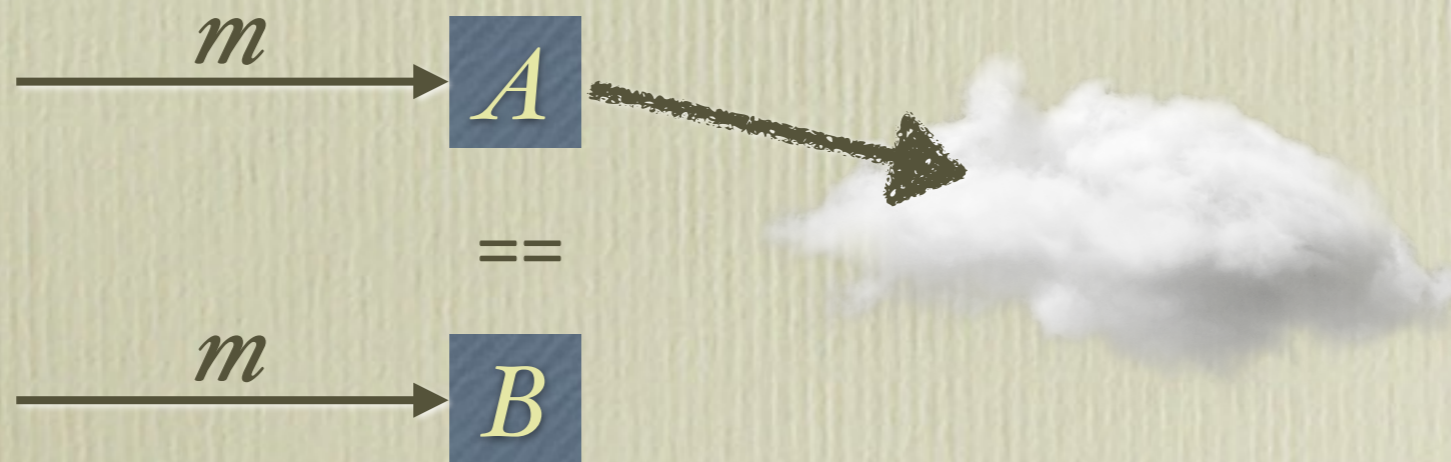
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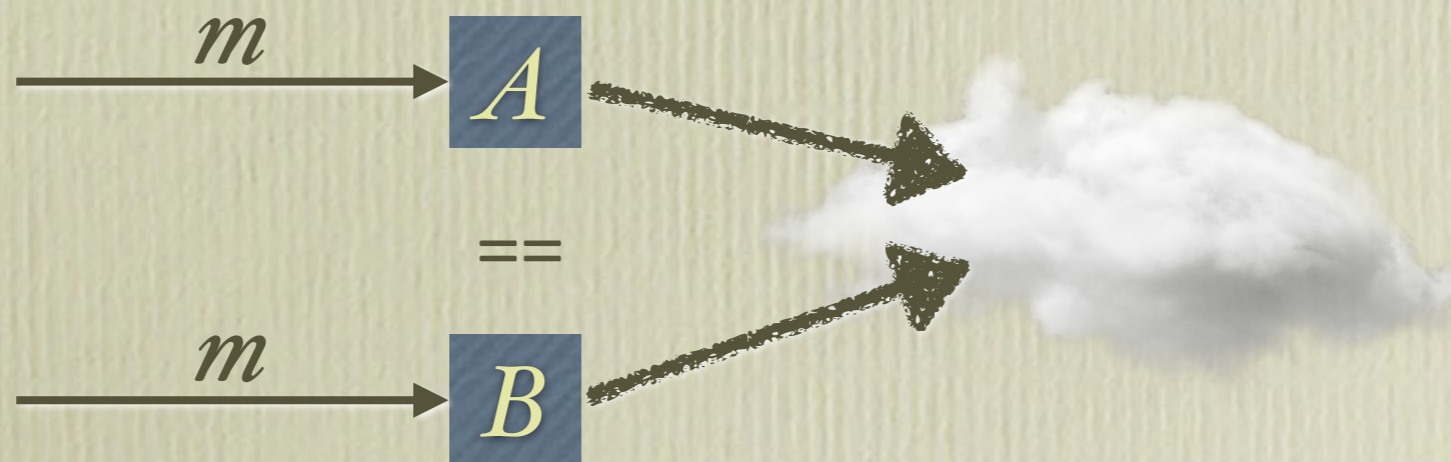
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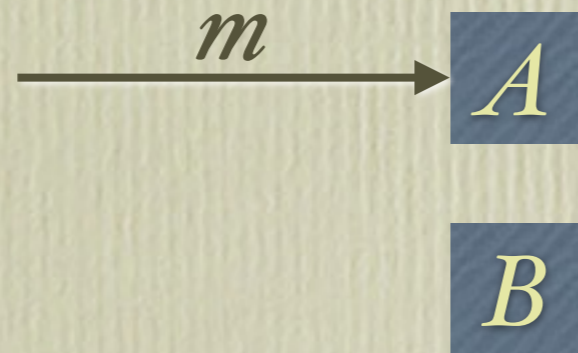
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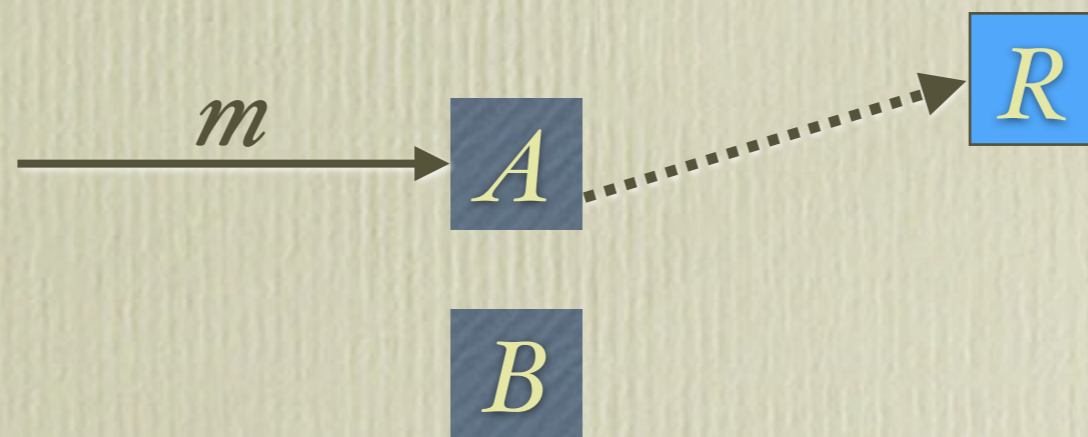
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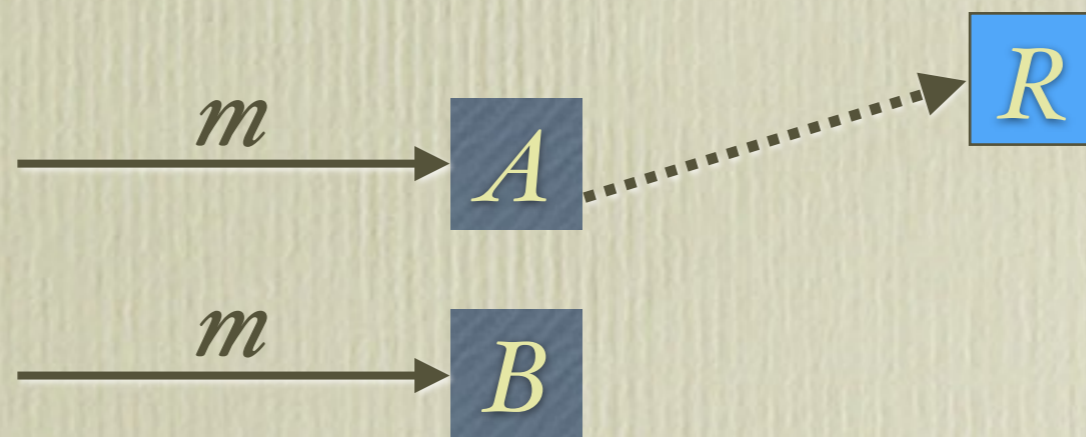
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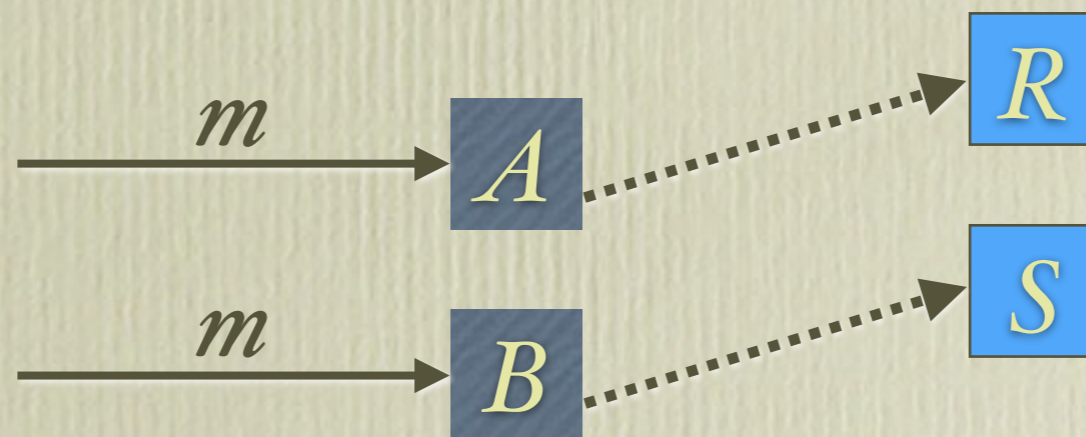
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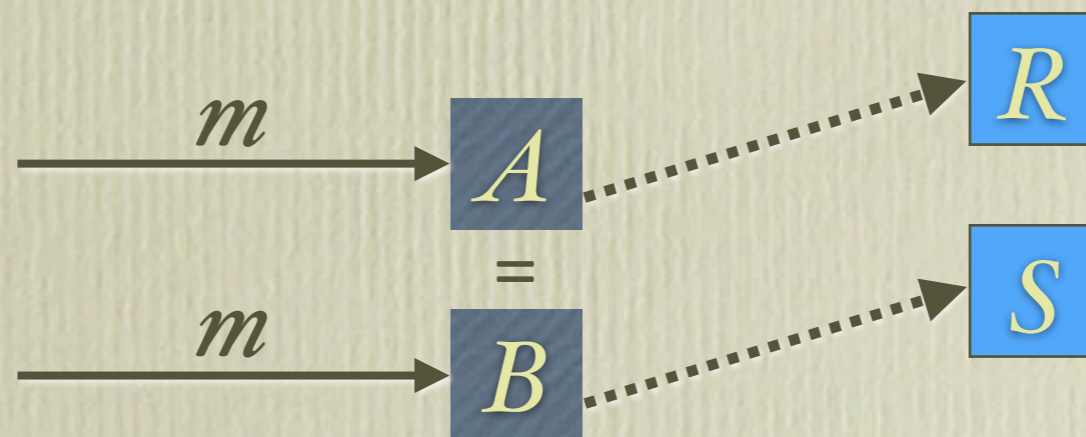
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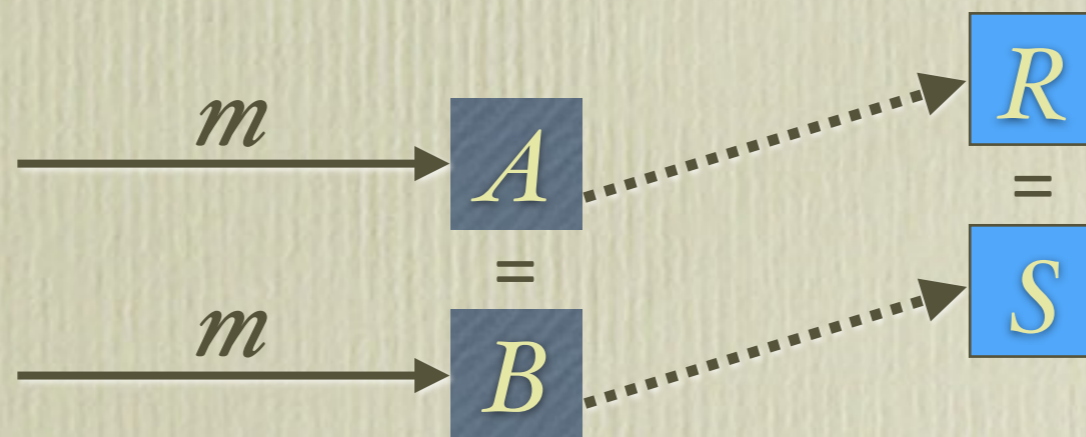
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# Object-Orientation

*O is for Object,  
which is the granddaddy of all soap bubbles.*

Brian Alexander, ABC's for object-gifted children,  
(Alexander 1992)

objects have  
identity, methods  
and state



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- The mystical view:
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- The software engineering view:
  - an OO system is one that supports data abstraction, polymorphism by late-binding of function calls, and inheritance.

# Cook's Autognostic Principle

William Cook

On Understanding Data Abstraction, Revisited

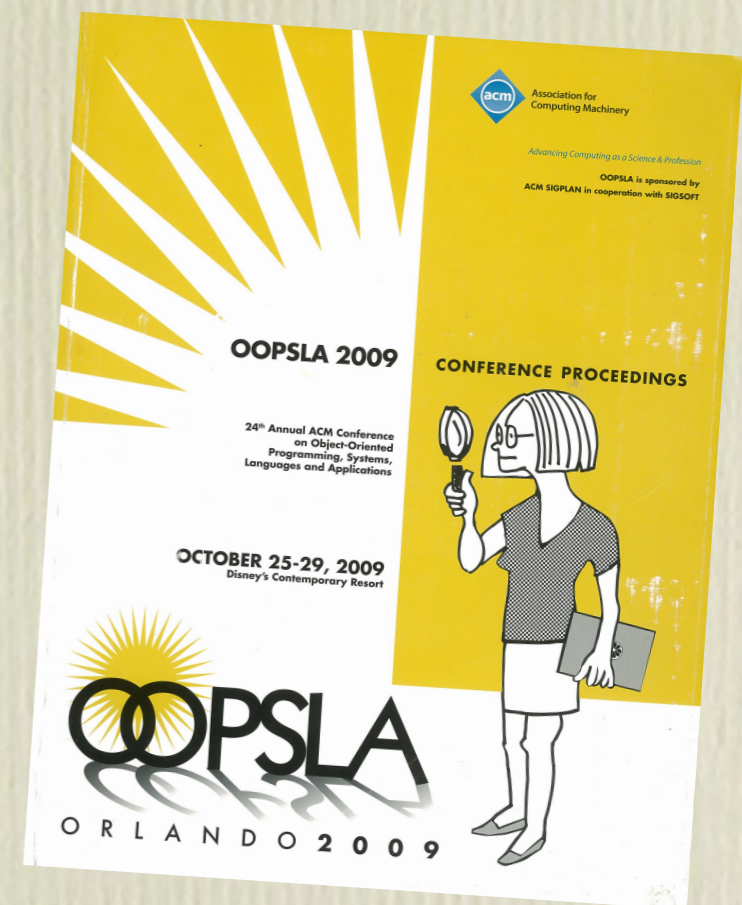


# Cook's Autognostic Principle

William Cook

On Understanding Data Abstraction, Revisited

An object can access other objects only through their public interfaces.





William Cook  
On Understanding Data Abstraction, Revisited  
OOPSLA 2009

- Autognosis means “self knowledge”
- An autognostic object can have detailed knowledge *only* of itself. All other objects are abstract.
- The converse is useful: any programming model that allows inspection of the representation of more than one abstraction at a time is *not* object-oriented.

William Cook  
On Understanding Data Abstraction, Revisited  
OOPSLA 2009

# Equality operators for autognostic languages

- What's the best we can do?
- What's the least we can get away with?

# Left-handed Equality

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Know Thyself: Inscription on Apollo's Temple at Delphi

# Consequences of Autognosticism

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- No “third party” identity test
  - object  $y$  can't ask if  $a == b$
- Example: *strings*. Whether they are intern'ed or not is an implementation secret.
  - abstract equality keeps that secret
  - a third-party `==` test (as in Java) exposes it



# Object Identity

A Position Paper for I-WOOOS '93

Andrew P. Black  
Cambridge Research Laboratory  
Digital Equipment Corporation

This position paper discusses the rôle of Object Identity in object-oriented systems. A distinction is drawn between object identity and object identifier; the former is an intrinsic part of an object-oriented system, while the latter is not. An equality test on object identifiers breaches encapsulation; such a test should therefore only be enabled at the specific request of the implementor of an abstraction.

## 1 Object identity is fundamental

I believe that object identity is fundamental to object-oriented systems: the existence of some concept of object identity is one of the attributes that makes a system object-oriented.

Consider the semantic equations that give meaning to the constructs of an object-oriented language. Clearly, the meaning of *self* depends on the identity of the containing object. The meaning of any identifier *i* also depends on the identity of the containing object. Thus, the semantic function that defines the meaning of an expression like *i* must take amongst its parameters some indication of the identity of the current object.

An application built on an object-oriented operating system may have its own notion of identity that differs from that provided by the underlying system. For example, clients of a replicated directory service may wish to regard all the replicas of a particular directory as identical. Because these replicas are (by design) distinct system-level objects, they have different identities as far as the underlying system is concerned. Indeed, understanding that they are distinct objects is vital to the correct implementation of the replication protocol. The fact that different notions of identity exist at different levels of abstraction is not an argument against the centrality of the concept of identity to object-orientation.

## 2 “Identity” should be distinguished from “Identifier”

Just because identity is essential, it does not follow that it must be possible to reify the identity of an object into a form that can be manipulated in the language itself. For example, it is possible to give a perfectly satisfactory semantics for an object-oriented language by representing each object as a separate state function: rather than having a single global state from which the right part must be extracted by indexing with some sort of object identifier, each object can instead be represented as a separate state. These states, being functions from locations to values, might not themselves be expressible in the language. Even if they are expressible, they cannot be compared for equality.

## 3 Should Objects have Identifiers?

The question that we should ask, then, is not whether the concept of object identity should be manifest to programmers, but in what ways should programmers be allowed to manipulate object identity. Given a reference to an object, what can be done with it, beyond invoking the object to perform one of the operations in its protocol? At one extreme is the answer “nothing at all”; the other extreme is to give object references a full set of operations, like those available on integers.

The minimal set of operations that enable a programmer to implement more complex operations seems to be

*hash* : object  $\rightarrow$  integer  
*equal* : object  $\times$  object  $\rightarrow$  Boolean

In theory, *hash* is superfluous: it is possible to implement *hash* using *equal* and exhaustive search. Although the inefficiency that this would introduce makes *hash* desirable in practice, for the purpose of theoretical analysis we can confine discussion to the

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The question is whether the answer is manifest to programmers. Given a reference to an object, beyond its operations in the system, can a programmer answer “nothing” or “no object reference” or “no object reference available on this system”?

The minimum answer seems to be “no”. The programmer seems to be able to answer “no” or “no object reference available on this system” or “no object reference available on this system” or “no object reference available on this system”.

In theory, a programmer can implement a system that makes *hash* a theoretical and practical

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The question whether the answer is manifest to programmers is a different matter. Given a reference to an object, beyond its operations, how can a programmer answer “not in the current object reference set”? This is not available in the current system.

The minimum amount of information a programmer seems to be able to extract from a hash value is the equality of the objects.

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- It's OK to ask

**self == other**

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## **Self Reference Equality**

Does another reference refer to **self**?

- Reference equality is used — crucially — to define **equals** for *java.lang.Object*

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public boolean equals(Object obj) {  
    return (this == obj);  
}
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- (Almost) the same code can be used to define a self-referential equality:

**confidential**

```
public boolean refEqualsSelf(Object obj) {  
    return (this == obj);  
}
```

# leftEquals

- Assume an autognostic reference quality test

```
refEqualSelf(other)
```

- An object that wishes to expose an identity test to its clients can define

```
method leftEquals(other:Object) {  
    refEqualSelf(other)  
}
```

- Big difference: `==` is trustworthy

# Trust

---

*the truth is not an obstacle for someone such as me,  
she said, because you see  
we all create our own reality  
and if a problem should arise  
the best thing you can say is  
don't worry, be happy, and have a nice day*

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- trust is an assumption, not an assertion
- does an object obey its specification?
  - that's a question about its *implementation*
  - when we encapsulate implementations, *we also encapsulate their correctness*



# Left-handed Equality

`a.leftEquals(b)`

*means*

`a obeys  $\mathcal{E} \Rightarrow \mathcal{E}(a, b)$`

where  $\mathcal{E}$  is a specification of leftEquality

`_ . leftEquals(_)`

is *not* an equivalence relation

if even *one* object does not obey the specification

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```
def perverse = object {  
  method leftEquals(other : Object) → Boolean { true }  
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```

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def perverse = object {  
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$\text{perverse.leftEquals}(o) \rightsquigarrow \text{true } \forall o$

$o.\text{leftEquals}(\text{perverse}) \rightsquigarrow \text{false } \forall o \in U \setminus \text{perverse}$

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- Example:

~~someVariable == false~~

false == someVariable

# The Second Lesson

Object-oriented equality  
*is not, and should not be,*  
an equivalence relation

# Reflection

`==` and `!=` should usually be avoided; if you really care about object identities then you should probably be using mirrors, since object identity is a reflective concept.

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## **Reflective Equality**

Do two mirrors reflect on the same object?

*Grace*

## LIST OF PRINCIPLES

**Abstraction:** Avoid requiring something to be stated more than once; factor out the recurring pattern.

**Automation:** Automate mechanical, tedious, or error-prone activities.

**Defense in Depth:** Have a series of defenses so that if an error isn't caught by one, it will probably be caught by another.

**Information Hiding:** The language should permit modules designed so that (1) the user has all of the information needed to use the module correctly, and nothing more; (2) the implementor has all of the information needed to implement the module correctly, and nothing more.

**Labeling:** Avoid arbitrary sequences more than a few items long; do not require the user to know the absolute position of an item in a list. Instead, associate a meaningful label with each item and allow the items to occur in any order.

**Localized Cost:** Users should only pay for what they use; avoid distributed costs.

**Manifest Interface:** All interfaces should be apparent (manifest) in the syntax.

**Orthogonality:** Independent functions should be controlled by independent mechanisms.

**Portability:** Avoid features or facilities that are dependent on a particular machine or a small class of machines.

**Preservation of Information:** The language should allow the representation of information that the user might know and that the compiler might need.

**Regularity:** Regular rules, without exceptions are easier to learn, use, describe, and implement.

**Security:** No program that violates the definition of the language, or its own intended structure, should escape detection.

**Simplicity:** A language should be as simple as possible. There should be a minimum number of concepts with simple rules for their combination.

**Structure:** The static structure of the program should correspond in a simple way with the dynamic structure of the corresponding computations.

**Syntactic Consistency:** Similar things should look similar; different things different.

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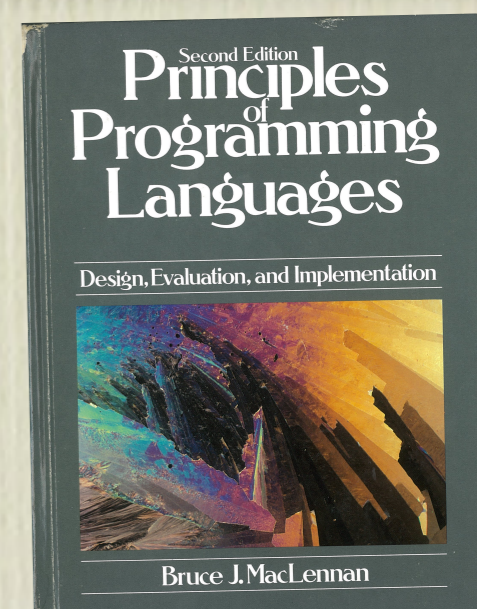
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# Hence:

Grace should have one

- autognostic
- left-handed
- abstract equality

represented by the method `==`

# Implementation

- a *confidential* method `isMe`, inherited by all objects from `graceObject`
- a trait that defines a *public* method `==` in terms of `isMe`, available to any object that chooses to `use` it
- an `==` method on an object's mirror that determines if anotherMirror images the same object as `self`

```
type Object = interface {
  ≠ (other : Object) → Boolean
  hash → Boolean
  ...
}

trait graceObject {
  // root of the inheritance hierarchy
  method isMe(other:Object) → Boolean
  is primitive, confidential { }
  method ≠ (other : Object) { (self == other).not }
  ...
}

trait identity {
  method ==(other:Object) → Boolean { self.isMe(other) }
}

type Reflection = interface {
  reflect(reflectee:Object) → ObjectMirror
  ...
}

type ObjectMirror = Object & interface {
  == (other) → Boolean
  ...
}
```

*The story is not all mine, nor told by me alone.  
Indeed I am not sure whose story it is.*

Ursula Le Guin, *The Left Hand of Darkness*, (LeGuin 1969)

# Acknowledgements

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