

# From Principles to Practice with Class in the First Year

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We propose a bridge between functional and object-oriented programming in the first-year curriculum. Traditionally, curricula that begin with functional programming transition to a professional, usually object-oriented, language in the second course. This transition poses numerous obstacles to students, and often results in confusing the details of development environments, syntax, and libraries with the fundamentals that the course focuses on. Our proposal instead begins the second course with a sequence of custom teaching languages which minimize the transition from the first course, and allow students to focus on the core ideas. We then transition to Java half-way through the course, at which point students have a strong command of the basic ideas. We have 3 years of experience with this course, and it has produced notable success.

## 1 Introduction

Many universities and colleges aim to teach their students proficiency in an industrial object-oriented programming language by the end of the students' first year. Past approaches to achieve this aim have included teaching an industrial language, such as Java, starting on the first day. Others have taken a more indirect route by teaching functional programming in the first semester, followed by a second semester that starts in Java. The latter approach is an improvement over the first, but both suffer serious flaws.

As an example, Northeastern University teaches functional programming in the first semester using *How to Design Programs* [8], followed by object-oriented programming using *How to Design Classes* [11] in the second semester. This sequence was designed to provide a smooth path for incoming students assumed only to have a competence in high-school level algebra to reach proficiency in Java by the end of their first year [9]. It was a major improvement over the previous Java-first curriculum in terms of student success, attrition, and preparation for subsequent courses [20]. However, significant problems remain; in particular, the second semester course violates the designers' own principles (as recalled in [5]):

1. *introduce only those language constructs that are necessary to teach programming principles, and*
2. *choose a language with as few language constructs as possible, and one in which they can be introduced one at a time.*

The problem is that the first semester ends with an advanced pedagogical functional language and the second semester starts with a beginning pedagogical subset of Java. Despite this slimmed-down subset, this transition is too abrupt to meaningfully bridge the gap between functional and object-oriented programming, because there are several other significant transitions happening in concert such as the transitions:

- from a highly regular and minimal syntax to a complicated irregular syntax,
- from an untyped language to a typed language,

- from a pedagogical programming environment to a professional programming environment (Eclipse),
- from a language with numeric values corresponding to mathematical objects to a language with numeric values corresponding to common machine representations,
- from a language with image literals and graphical libraries to one in which graphical programming is tedious,
- from an interaction-oriented language to a compiled, batch-oriented language.

This abrupt transition has several negative consequences: the principles of object-oriented programming are obscured and de-emphasized, struggling with the programming environment is frustrating and can cause potentially good students to leave the program, it favors students with prior exposure to the particular tools, it inhibits students from experimenting by relying upon their past skills, and it creates the false impression that courses are discrete units of instruction that can be discarded after successful completion rather than being part of a continuous and cumulative educational experience.

We contribute an alternative approach to the second semester that overcomes these problems and provides a gradual transition from functional programming to object-oriented programming. Our approach is able to start the second semester by introducing *only* the concept of programming with objects, while all other aspects of course remain where they were left off in the previous semester. This approach allows the other concepts to be introduced at the point at which they are relevant and motivated. Despite this more gradual approach, the course accomplishes the goal of teaching industrial language proficiency by the end of the semester, covering a super-set of the concepts and topics covered in the *How to Design Classes* course.

**Outline** The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: in section 2 provides background on *How to Design Programs* and the context and constraints involved in the first-year at Northeastern. Section 3 describes our approach to the second semester, which starts with a small shift in perspective to bridge the gap between functional programming and object oriented programming. Section 4 describes the path toward programming in an industrial object-oriented programming language. Section 5 discusses the relation to existing work and section 6 concludes.

## 2 Background: the context at Northeastern

At Northeastern, the College of Computer & Information Science (CCIS) requires a four course introductory sequence in the first year. The first semester features both a course on discrete mathematics and an introduction to programming following the *How to Design Programs* curriculum. The second semester follows with a course on object-oriented programming and one featuring formal reasoning about programs, both on paper and with the ACL2 theorem prover [16].

Subsequent to the first year, students take a wide variety of follow-up courses, ranging from a required course in “Object-oriented design” to architecture, operating systems, robotics, and programming languages. No standard language is used in these courses.

More significantly, Northeastern distinctively emphasizes experiential education, with almost all Computer Science majors participating in a 6 month “co-op” internship after their third semester. These co-ops take place at a wide variety of companies, and while most students do some software development, there is almost no uniformity beyond that.

This combination sets the constraints under which we designed our approach. Our students begin the course with a firm grasp of data-driven program design, as well as experience with the tools used in the first course:

- the student languages introduced in *How to Design Programs* [9, 8] as well as the idea of “language levels”;
- the DrRacket (formerly DrScheme) programming environment [12];
- the `check-expect` testing framework [13];
- the “World” approach to developing interactive animations and games using functional programming and functional graphics [10, 4].

We reuse all of these elements in our approach.

After our course, our students should both (a) be prepared for subsequent courses in the curriculum, which expect familiarity with Java and standard Java libraries, (b) be prepared for co-ops in which they will use professional-grade languages and tools which will almost certainly be object-oriented. More significantly, we aim to teach the key insights behind the object-oriented approach to program design.

These constraints, while in detail specific to Northeastern and the CCIS curriculum, are broadly similar to the requirements for the first year at many universities. Our course also attends to smaller and more idiosyncratic elements of our curriculum, ranging from formal reasoning to algorithmic analysis, as described in the following sections.

### 3 A small shift of focus

On the first day of the second semester, we introduce a single linguistic concept to an otherwise unchanged context of the previous semester: the idea of an object. An object is a new kind of value that can, as a first cut, be understood as a pairing together of two familiar concepts: data and functionality.

- An object is like a structure in that it has a fixed number of fields, thus an object (again, like a structure) can represent compound data. But unlike a structure, an object contains not just data, but functionality too;
- An object is like a (set of) function(s) in that it has behavior—it computes; it is not just inert data.

This suggests that objects are a natural fit for well-designed programs since good programs are organized around data definitions and functions that operate over such data. An object, in essence, packages these two things together into a single programming apparatus. This has two important consequences:

1. Students already know how to design programs oriented around objects.

Since objects are just the combination of two familiar concepts that students already use to design programs, they already know how to design programs around objects, even if they have never heard the term “object” before.

2. Objects enable new kinds of abstraction and composition.

Although the combination of data and functionality may seem simple, objects enable new forms of abstraction and composition. That is, objects open up new approaches to the construction of computations. By studying these new approaches, we can distill new design principles. Because we understand objects are just the combination of data and functionality, we can understand how all of these principles apply in the familiar context of programming with functions.

### 3.1 The basics of objects

To begin with, we introduce the notion of a *class definition*, which can be thought of at first as a structure definition in that it defines a new class of compound data. A class is defined using the `define-class` form:

```
(define-class posn (fields x y))
```

An *object* is a value that is a member of this class of data, which can be constructed with the new keyword, a class name, and the appropriate number of arguments for the fields of the object:

```
(new posn 3 4)
```

An object understands some set of *messages*. Simple structure-like objects understand messages for accessing their fields and message are sent by using the `send` keyword, followed by an object, a message name, and some number of arguments:

```
(send (new posn 3 4) x) ;=> 3
(send (new posn 3 4) y) ;=> 4
```

The `send` notation is simple, but syntactically heavy. Once students are comfortable with the `send` form, we introduce a shorthand to make it more convenient by writing `(x . m)` for `(send x m)`. The *dot notation* can be nested, so `(x . m . n)` is shorthand for `(send (send x m) n)`. (The approach of introducing a simple, uniform syntax and later introducing a convenient shorthand that would have been confusing to start with follows the approach of introducing `cons` and later `list` and `quote` in the first semester.)

It is possible to endow objects with functionality by defining *methods*, which extend the set of messages an object understands. A method definition follows the same syntax as a function definition, but is located inside of a class definition. Here is a more complete development of the `posn` class that includes a couple of methods:

```
;; A Posn is a (new posn Number Number),
;; which represents a point on the Cartesian plane
(define-class posn (fields x y)

  ;; Posn -> Number
  ;; Distance between this posn and that posn
  (check-expect ((new posn 0 0) . dist (new posn 3 4)) 5)
  (define (dist that)
    (sqrt (+ (sqr (- (this . x) (that . x)))
             (sqr (- (this . y) (that . y))))))

  ;; -> Number
  ;; Distance of this posn from the origin
  (check-expect ((new posn 0 0) . dist-origin) 0)
  (check-expect ((new posn 3 4) . dist-origin) 5)
  (define (dist-origin)
    (this . dist (new posn 0 0))))
```

This class definition defines a new class of values which are `posn` objects. Such objects are comprised of two numeric values and understand the messages `x`, `y`, `dist`, and `dist-origin`. Unit tests have been

included with each method definition, following the principles of the design recipe studied in the first semester. In fact, the `check-expect` mechanism works exactly as it did before.

Methods can be defined to consume any number of arguments, but they are implicitly parameterized over `this`, the object that was sent the message.

### 3.2 Where did the `cond` go?

Unions, and recursive unions in particular, are a fundamental kind of data definition that students are well-versed in from the previous semester. A fundamental early lesson is how to represent (recursive) unions using classes and how to write recursive methods. As an example, figure 1 defines binary trees of numbers (an archetypal recursive union data definition) using the BSL language and the Class language.

<pre>#lang bsl ;; A Tree is one of: ;; - (make-leaf Number) ;; - (make-node Tree Number Tree) (define-struct leaf (v)) (define-struct node (left v right))  ;; sum : Tree -&gt; Number ;; sums the elements of the given tree (define (sum a-tree)   (cond [(leaf? a-tree) (leaf-v a-tree)]         [else          (+ (sum (node-left a-tree))             (node-v a-tree)             (sum (node-right a-tree)))]))  (check-expect (sum (make-leaf 7)) 7) (check-expect   (sum (make-node         (make-leaf 1)         5         (make-node (make-leaf 0)                    10                    (make-leaf 0))))   16)</pre>	<pre>#lang class/1 ;; A Tree is one of: ;; - (new leaf Number) ;; - (new node Tree Number Tree) ;; and implements ;; sum : -&gt; Number ;; sums the elements of this tree  (define-class leaf   (fields v)   (define (sum) (this . v)))  (define-class node   (fields left v right)   (define (sum)     (+ (this . left . sum)        (this . v)        (this . right .sum))))  (check-expect ((new leaf 7) . sum) 7) (check-expect   ((new node     (new leaf 1)     5     (new node (new leaf 0)               10               (new leaf 0))))   . sum)   16)</pre>
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Figure 1: Binary tree sum in Beginning Student and in the Class language

The structure of this data definition is analogous to the approach of the previous semester but this example brings to light an important difference with the functional approach. The method for computing the sum of the empty tree is defined in the `leaf` class, while the method for computing the sum of a node

is in the `node` class. When a tree object is sent the `sum` method, there is no function with a conditional to determine whether the object is a leaf—instead, the object itself takes care of computing the sum based on the `sum` method it contains. This shift in perspective is at the core of object-orientation: objects contain their own behavior and the case analysis previously done in functions is eliminated.

### 3.3 Worlds and animations

Programming in the first semester is often oriented around interactive event-driven video games. The basic design of a video game involves defining a data representation for states of the game and functions for transitioning between states based on events such as clock ticks, keyboard input, or mouse events. The design of a game thus involves the design of data and functions on that data; in other words, the game involves the design of objects. We therefore continue in the second semester with the use of programming video games but supplement the course with a library for doing so in an object-oriented style. Figure 2 gives an example written in both the functional style and object-oriented style.

The key difference between these two programs is that the functional program uses the `2htdp/universe` library, which provides a `big-bang` form that consumes the initial state of the world and has a declarative form of associating event-handler functions. The object-oriented program uses an alternative library developed for the class language: `class/universe`. It also provides a `big-bang` form but it consumes a single argument, the initial state of the world represented as an object. Event handlers are just methods of this object.

The program on the left is the first program of the first semester, while the one on the right is the first program of the second semester. Our approach is able to make the conceptual connection between functional and object-oriented programming quite clear while appealing the familiar event-driven interactive programs developed throughout the year.

The move to object-oriented style immediately and naturally leads to design principles that are enabled by organizing programs around objects. For example, the state-pattern becomes useful almost immediately. The programs in figure 2 animate a rocket (rendered as a circle in this example) taking off. An illustrative follow-up exercise is to animate a rocket that *lands*. The natural design is to have two variants for states of the rocket: one for descending rockets, one for landed rockets. While in the functional approach it is easy to use the state-pattern for the *data* representing a rocket, it is more difficult to have states of *behavior*. Of course in the object approach, states of behavior are just as natural as data. Therefore it is straightforward to design programs with easy to observe invariants such as “a landed rocket never changes position.” In the functional approach, even such simple properties are more involved to establish.

### 3.4 Language levels

Our introduction to object-oriented programming is built on a series of “language levels”, each of which introduces additional features, adding complexity to the programming model and expressiveness to the programs. Each language is `class/N` for some  $N$ , with features appearing in the following order.

0. Classes and Objects
  1. Abbreviated notation for method calls
  2. Super classes
  3. Overriding
  4. Constructors

```

#lang bsl                                     #lang class/1
(require 2htdp/image 2htdp/universe)         (require 2htdp/image class/universe)

;; A World is a Number                        ;; A World is a (new world Number)
                                              (define-class world
;; on-tick : World -> World                  (fields n)
(define (tick w)                               ;; on-tick : -> World
  (add1 w))                                   (define (on-tick)
                                              (new world (add1 (this . n))))
;; to-draw : World -> Image                  ;; to-draw : -> Image
(define (draw w)                               (define (to-draw)
  (circle w "solid" "red"))                  (circle (this . n) "solid" "red"))
;; on-key : KeyEvent World -> World          ;; on-key : KeyEvent -> World
(define (on-key k w) 10)                       (define (on-key k) (new world 10))

(big-bang 10                                   (big-bang (new world 10))
  [to-draw draw]
  [on-tick tick])

```

Figure 2: World programs

Several commonalities run through all of these languages. First, they are all purely functional; we do not introduce imperative I/O or side-effects until after transitioning to Java in the second half of the course. Second, they all are a super set of the *Intermediate Student* language from *How to Design Programs*, meaning that they support higher-order functional programming and lists.

One key principle that we adhere to in the design of the language levels is that no features of the language are added purely to support “software engineering” concerns such as specification mechanisms. Not only does that language not support declaring types or contracts, but interfaces are described purely in comments.

This is not to say that interfaces and contracts are optional; in fact, they are mandatory. But the focus of the first part of the course is on the fundamentals of object-orientation. Teaching the use of software engineering tools such as type systems, while vital, is a topic which we defer to the second half of the course when we transition to Java.

We made this decision after experience in which students were confused about the relationship between explicit interface specifications, type systems, and the informal data definitions and contracts which students are required to write for all methods. After removing interfaces from the language and making them purely a specification construct, this confusion disappeared.

## 4 From principles to industrial languages

The transition from custom teaching languages to a professional language takes place about half-way through the course. At this point, students have already seen many of the essentials of object-oriented programming. In particular: object, classes, fields and methods, dynamic dispatch, inheritance, and overriding.

From this point, almost any language that students might use in future co-op positions and courses would be an appropriate follow-up. Our course transitions to Java, but C#, Python, Ruby, Eiffel, or JavaScript would all work naturally. The key lesson of the transition is that the fundamental principles underlying object-oriented programming remain the same between languages, and that learning a new language is primarily a matter of mapping these concepts to specific constructs in the new language. Of course, particular languages also use unique specific mechanisms which need to be taught to use the language effectively, but these are rarely as vital as the cross-language principles.

#### 4.1 Functional Java

The transition begins with replicating the object-oriented style of our teaching languages in Java. In particular, we do not introduce mutation, for loops, or mutable data structures such as arrays or `ArrayLists` until later in the semester. Instead, students design data representations using classes, with `interfaces` representing unions of data. Additionally, we avoid mention of the distinction between primitive and other values in Java, which is made easier by not using standard libraries early. An example of this style of programming is presented in figure 3, repeating the binary tree sum from the previous section.

Comparing this figure to the previous example illustrates a number of the differences that students are exposed to upon transition to Java.

1. Explicit representation of unions and interfaces in the language. Previously, interfaces were simply described in stylized comments, following the *How to Design Programs* approach.
2. Types are now specified as part of the program, and are now enforced.
3. Java syntax is substantially different and more verbose. For example, constructors must be defined explicitly.
4. The testing environment is somewhat different, and requires additional boilerplate, although we are able to use the `JavaLib` framework [19] to support simple testing by structural equality.

Of course, there are other differences which cannot be seen from a code snippet.

5. Students must use a new development environment and compiler. In class, we primarily develop in a text editor and run the Java compiler at the command line. In labs and on homeworks, students typically use the Eclipse IDE.
6. Installing and configuring libraries is now required. Because we use a custom library for testing, students must cope with library installation and class paths on the first day.

Of course, all but the first two of these changes are unrelated to the fundamental lessons we hope to teach—the rest merely present additional hurdles for students.

#### 4.2 Traditional Java

Thanks to the the preparation in the first half of the course, we can cover functional OO programming in Java in a just a few lectures. We then increase the subset of the language we use to encompass mutation, loops, and mutable data structures. We present `ArrayLists`, followed briefly by arrays. Students use, and then implement, hash tables as well as other mutable and immutable data structures. Conventional input and output are treated only very briefly, as we focus instead of both fundamentals and exercises making use of real APIs such as hashing functions or Twitter posting. Finally, while, for, and for-each loops are presented, following the methodology of *How to Design Classes* which connects loops to stylized use of recursive functions with accumulators, a technique the students now have two semesters of practice with.



```
import tester.*;

interface Tree {
    // sums the elements of this tree
    Integer sum();
}

class Leaf {
    Integer v;
    Leaf(Integer v) { this.v = v; }
    public Integer sum() { return this.v; }
}

class Node {
    Tree left; Integer v; Tree right;
    Node(Tree l, Integer v, Tree r) {
        this.left = l;
        this.v = v;
        this.right = r;
    }

    public Integer sum() {
        return this.left.sum() + this.v + this.right.sum();
    }
}

class Examples {
    void test_tree(Tester t) {
        t.checkExpect(new Leaf(7).sum(), 7);
        t.checkExpect(new Node(new Leaf(1),
                                5,
                                new Node(new Leaf(0), 10, new Leaf(0))).sum(),
                        16);
    }
}
```

Figure 3: Binary tree sum in How to Design Classes

### 4.3 Beyond Traditional Java

Finally, at the end of the course, we are able to build on the two major segments to examine less-well-explored topics in object-oriented programming. Typically, we cover the basics of implementing OO programming in a functional language, advanced OO techniques such as mixins and prototypes, and a new OO language such as Ruby or JavaScript. Additionally, we emphasize the ability to embed functional programming in an OO context, using techniques such as the command pattern and the visitor patterns. Again, the key message is the transferability of concepts across languages.

## 5 Related work

Teaching programming principles in a functional style has a long history, with Abelson and Sussman's *Structure and Interpretation of Computer Programs* [1] a prominent example. Our work follows in the tradition of the *TeachScheme!* project, now *Program by Design* (PbD), which emphasizes a systematic approach to program construction.

Since the introduction of functional-first curricula, and more specifically in the Program by Design framework, numerous courses have tackled the problem of transition. Typically they, as we, transition to Java in the second course. We discuss first the approach developed by some of the principal creators of PbD, and then other approaches.

### 5.1 TeachScheme! and ProfessorJ

The TeachScheme! project initially focused only on the first course, with the second course typically taught in Java in institution-specific ways. Subsequently, the pedagogical approach was extended to Java, but without the tool support and textbook of the first course. An example of this approach is described by Bloch [5], who presents the experience integrating these courses at Adelphi. He reports that “many of Java’s concepts could be introduced more easily in a second course than a first”.

With these lessons in mind, the TeachScheme! project set out to apply the lessons of teaching languages and IDE support to Java, as well as to present the approach to object-oriented programming in textbook form. ProfessorJ [14] is the resulting system, accompanying the draft textbook *How to Design Classes* [11]. In parallel to our course, Northeastern teaches the remainder of its computer science majors following this approach.

ProfessorJ and *How to Design Classes* maintain many of the excellent ideas of the first course. In particular, ProfessorJ brings language levels to Java, in an attempt to smooth the transition for students from the first course and provide more helpful feedback. ProfessorJ is also embedded in the DrRacket IDE, increasing familiarity for the students and supporting tools such as an interactive read-eval-print loop.

However, the “day 1” transition from the student languages used with *How to Design Programs* to ProfessorJ is too abrupt and too large. Most significantly, changing languages from the first semester immediately rather than simply adding a new concept confuses too many issues for students. On the first day of a *How to Design Classes*-based course, students see object-orientation, a new programming paradigm; Java, a new language with new syntax, and static types, a crucial but orthogonal concept. In contrast, our course presents just one of these concepts on the first day, but covers all of them by the end of the semester.

ProfessorJ also takes on the the dual challenges of implementing Java as well as subsetting it. This ultimately resulted in both a limited Java environment as well as the eventual abandoning of the tool

since it was too difficult to maintain, let alone keep up with advances in Java.

Finally, committing to Java on the first day, regardless of the environment provided to students, has significant limitations. First, the syntactic and semantic heaviness of Java is a burden for beginning students, and discourages interactive and experimental programming. The very first chapter of *How to Design Classes* discusses the fixed size of Java integers, a topic avoided entirely in the first course. Second, by committing to a particular industrial-strength language, it closes off possibilities in the curriculum. Third, it commits entirely to the new paradigm, making it more difficult for students to compare the approaches.

Since ProfessorJ is no longer available, students are faced with an even starker change on the first day. Even with a student-oriented environment such as DrJava or BlueJ [2, 15], students must learn an entirely new tool, along with new libraries. If the course uses a typical professional development environment such as Eclipse, students must also contend with compilation, loss of interactivity, and subtle issues such as classpaths, none of which are fundamental to the concepts that the course focuses on.

## 5.2 Other transitions

Of course, not every curriculum that begins with *How to Design Programs* transitions to Java after the first course. Ragde [21] describes a second course that includes both more advanced work in Scheme beyond teaching-oriented languages as well as low-level programming in C, taught to computer science majors at University of Waterloo. Ragde's course intentionally does not use student-oriented languages, although the recently-developed C0 language [18] could provide this. Other discussions of functional programming in the first year [7] do not discuss the problems of transition.

## 5.3 Other approaches to Java

The problems of teaching Java in introductory courses have been well-explored; we mention only a few related directions here. DrJava [2] and BlueJ [15, 17] are introductory environments for Java, which alleviate some but not all of the drawbacks we have outlined. Several teaching-oriented graphics libraries for Java have been proposed [6, 3], but these are significantly more complex than the graphics and interaction libraries we are able to use in the introductory language we present.

# 6 Experience and outlook

We have now completed the third iteration of this course, teaching approximately 35 students each time. Our experience has been uniformly positive, and the students have gone on to significant success in the subsequent courses, despite the curriculum differing from what the bulk of Northeastern University computer science majors take. The class has also had notable success in the recruitment and retention of female students, as compared to the other versions of the second-semester course.

The course has also provided a vantage point to introduce topics that will be taken up later in the curriculum. We present types, contracts, invariants, and properties of functions, all of which tie into both the concurrent course on logic and computation, as well as later classes on formal methods. The emphasis on representation-independence and interfaces both ties into later classes on software engineering, as well as preparing the ground for algorithms and data structures courses. Finally, the use of interactive and distributed systems connects to later courses on operating systems and networks.

Despite our success, much remains to be done. Type systems are a fundamental concept, but their introduction accompanies the rest of Java. Developing a typed version of our introductory languages would allow a smoother introduction of this idea.

Our class's use of Eclipse could also be improved by first transitioning to a pedagogically-oriented Java environment, but we have not evaluated the specific options. Alternatively, introducing Java-like syntax for the teaching languages we have developed would help tease apart the difficult transitions still present in the course.

Finally, the Java portion of the class does not continue the use of "World"-style interactive graphical programming. Proulx [19]. Instead, our course focuses on coverage of standard Java libraries, as well as introductory algorithmic and data structure topics. Continuing to use World-style programming in motivating examples might be valuable for continuity between the two halves of the course.

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