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OCTOBER 1989

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Volume 14, Number 10

THE 25TH BIRTHDAY OF BASIC

*Everybody's first language is a quarter century old:
You've come a long way, BASIC*

Bill Gates

Since the first program ran on an English-built computer in 1948, computing has evolved by several orders of magnitude. In just 15 years, personal computers have grown from 8-bit, 4K-byte toys to powerful 32-bit, 16-megabyte tools for science and industry.

Amid all this growth in hardware, the BASIC language has quietly turned 25 years old, and the BASIC interpreter that opened up the microcomputer to millions of people has entered its fifteenth year.

BASIC didn't become the best-known and most accessible computer language simply because it comes free with every machine. BASIC's strengths—the simplicity of using an interpreter, its powerful string handling, the richness of the language, its English-like keywords and syntax, and the freedom it gives programmers to experiment—make it the ideal way for computer novices to explore the intricacies of their computers.

During this milestone year for BASIC, you can see how it may evolve by looking at the technology of operating systems like OS/2 and the promise of object-oriented programming.

BASIC was born out of a need to give nontechnical people a simple way to interact with a computer. In 1962, a math professor at Dartmouth College, Thomas Kurtz, proposed to the department chairman, John Kemeny, the radical idea that all Dartmouth students should learn about computers during their four-year stay. But the batch-oriented computers of the day made that prospect impossible, since it often took days to find out if a simple program would compile properly. Even then, the program could only calculate a result and return an answer; the person who wrote the program never actually saw it run.

Kemeny and Kurtz, expanding on research going on at MIT and Bell Labs, built a time-sharing operating system for a new computer that Dartmouth was about to receive. In the process, they decided that giving students a way to share the computer's hardware was of little use without a simple language for talking with the machine. FORTRAN and ALGOL didn't fill the bill for ease of use, so they created the Beginner's All-purpose

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On May 1, 1964, Dartmouth students, greeted by the now famous `READY >` prompt on their teletype terminals, could write simple programs and send them off to be compiled and run. Listing 1 shows a simple program (a multiplication table) written in that first BASIC. Kemeny and Kurtz recount the birth of BASIC in their book *Back to BASIC* (Addison-Wesley, 1985).

And Then There Were Micros

The first microcomputers, sporting very small memories, came on the scene in 1975 from companies like MITS and Southwest Technical Products. These machines understood only machine language. Paul Allen and I sensed an opportunity and wrote a version of BASIC to run in those small memory spaces. Our first BASIC for the MITS Altair allowed a user to run programs on a 4K-byte machine. Memory was so precious that we even replaced the `READY >` prompt with `OK >` to save a few bytes. We built this BASIC as an interpreter.

Memory constraints partly guided our decision to implement BASIC as an interpreter. But another factor was our fascination with interpreters, and the immediacy and ease of use they give to the programming art. An interpreter lets a programmer tell the computer to perform a job, and then the computer gives immediate feedback and results, including the reporting of errors. This immediacy comes from the interpreter's being built as part of the language, not as a separate program like a compiler. First-time users would find working with a compiler difficult.

Drawing on experience I had obtained writing a BASIC interpreter for a PDP-8 while in high school, Paul and I made our original microcomputer BASIC a single-representation interpreter. This means that rather than storing the exact source code in text form, we translated it into a more compact form because of the memory constraints we faced.

We did tricks to let the programmer see his or her program

continued



exactly as he or she keyed it in while executing the program at a reasonable speed. Using the lower values of a byte and the upper 128 ASCII values to tokenize BASIC keywords was an innovation in that interpreter. We also coined the short commands TRON and TROFF to turn on and off BASIC's earliest built-in debugging tool, a trace facility. Fitting the language's reserved words, error messages, and floating-point library to run programs in a 4K-byte machine required a lot of tricks—it's still my favorite piece of code because it is so refined.

We chose to write a BASIC interpreter for several reasons. First, BASIC was simple enough that we thought we could squeeze it, plus user programs, into 4K bytes. We also liked

Listing 1: *The 1964 BASIC had no INPUT statement. Instead, you had to assign data to a variable with the LET or READ DATA statements.*

```
10 REM 1964 BASIC
20 LET N = 355/113
30 PRINT "MULTIPLICATION TABLE FOR",N
40 FOR I = 1 TO 10
50 PRINT I, N * I
60 NEXT I
70 PRINT "-----"
80 END
```

Listing 2: *The 1977 8K-byte BASIC had longer variable names, the INPUT statement, strings, and the IF...GOTO statement. This is a more flexible version of the program in listing 1.*

```
10 REM 1977 8K BASIC
15 PRINT "ENTER NUMBER FOR MULTIPLICATION TABLE"
20 INPUT NUMBER
25 INPUT "ENTER NUMBER OF LINES"; LINES
26 IF LINES < 1 GOTO 120
30 PRINT "MULTIPLICATION TABLE FOR",NUMBER
40 FOR I = 1 TO LINES
50 PRINT I, NUMBER * I
60 NEXT I
70 PRINT "-----"
80 PRINT "DO YOU WANT ANOTHER Y/N";
90 INPUT C$
100 IF C$ = "Y" GOTO 15
115 REM
120 REM ERROR HANDLING
130 PRINT "WRONG NUMBER OF LINES"
140 END
```

Listing 3: *The 1985 Microsoft QuickBASIC. It and other BASICs of the period eliminated line numbers and added subroutines and IF...THEN...ELSE statements.*

```
INPUT "File to be searched";F$
INPUT "Pattern to search for";P$
OPEN F$ FOR INPUT AS #1
WHILE NOT EOF
  LINE INPUT #1, TEST$
  CALL LINESEARCH(TEST$,P$)
WEND

SUB LINESEARCH(TEST,P$) STATIC
  STATIC NUM
  NUM = NUM + 1
  X = INSTR(TEST,P$)
  IF X = 0 THEN
    EXIT SUB
  ELSEIF X > 0 THEN
    PRINT "Line #";NUM;" ":";TEST$
  END IF
END SUB
```

being able to write a meaningful one-line program in BASIC; with other languages, you had so many variable and environment definitions to worry about, you had to write several lines of code just to print "hello" on the screen. And we liked BASIC's powerful variable-length string-handling functions.

Why Use BASIC?

We convinced the makers of the early microcomputers that they needed BASIC in their machines to let people use them. Otherwise, you could turn on the machine, but you couldn't do much with it. And until disk operating systems came along in about 1979, BASIC was the only way most people could use a personal computer. Our BASIC caught on because we encouraged people to write books about BASIC programming that contained lots of source code listings. We also promoted the idea of people writing programs in our BASIC and then selling or giving away those programs.

Other people were writing BASICs at that time: Li Chen Wang (Tiny BASIC), Steve Leininger (Radio Shack Level 1 BASIC), Steve Wozniak (Apple Integer BASIC), and Gordon Eubanks (BASICE and CBASIC). But Microsoft BASIC eventually appeared in the ROMs of over 50 types of machines and became a de facto standard.

That early BASIC was primitive compared to today's language. It forced you to use only two-letter variable names and required line numbers (see listing 2). But it proved to be an acceptable way to create useful programs for computers. It gave you instant feedback as you wrote a program, and its string-handling features let people write fairly sophisticated text-oriented applications. We invented new BASIC verbs like PEEK and POKE, and INP and OUT, to let people get at the resources of the machine. We devised a way to let programmers call machine language routines from BASIC so they could make critical parts of their programs faster.

Interpreters can be extended quite easily, so we frequently added new features to BASIC. We developed the music and graphics-string macro languages that used the verbs PLAY and DRAW. Many features that ended up in GWBASIC (short for Gee Whiz) came from our experience writing interpreters for Japanese machines.

BASIC hit a plateau when GWBASIC was put into the IBM PC ROM. Without IBM's updating the ROM, it was hard to popularize BASIC extensions beyond the interpreter. This BASIC became extremely popular, of course, and even today I'm amazed at what a high percentage of PC users have experimented with that BASIC because it is so simple to learn and use.

When BASIC faltered on the plateau of being an IBM PC-compatible standard, we created QuickBASIC. Other companies were extending BASIC, too—for example, BASIC's inventors, Kemeny and Kurtz, with True BASIC.

Not So Basic

When I show programmers the BASIC I use today, they say something like, "That looks a lot like Pascal." People who think of BASIC as the IBM PC's BASICA are surprised that it doesn't have to be a line-oriented language with little structure. BASIC has become very modern since 1983 (see listing 3).

In the mid-1980s, BASIC improved on three fronts: as a language, with the addition of long variable and label names, record structures, and better block-structuring tools; as an environment, with a built-in editor, debugger, and compile-run facility; and as a compiled language, with faster response in the classic compile/debug/edit/compile cycle while generating fast, high-quality code. BASIC also gained the ability to run

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recursive routines, to handle sophisticated structures such as B-trees, and to deal better with graphics.

About this time, BASIC became more structured, with the addition of DO WHILE, WHILE...WEND, DO UNTIL, LOOP WHILE, and LOOP UNTIL loops, and SELECT CASE constructs. BASIC today has facilities that permit creating data structures as rich as those of C or Pascal. BASIC also shed the



That early BASIC was primitive compared to today's BASIC.

shackles of 64K-byte limits on program size; today's BASIC programs are limited only by memory, and even individual arrays can be up to the limits of memory in size.

You can also use long (32-bit) integers in your programs. Record structures added the capability to let you define your own data structures, combining many different individual data types, such as strings and numbers.

The environment for BASIC programming has changed, too. In QuickBASIC 4.0 and 4.5, for instance, a built-in full-screen editor with automatic syntax editing, a built-in debugger, and context-sensitive help makes the program-creation process as fast and easy as possible. Borland also integrated a full-screen editor into Turbo Basic.

Another important change in the modern BASICs was a move from interpreters back to compilers: Indeed, Dartmouth BASIC has remained a compiled language since its inception. BASIC compilers for microcomputers appeared soon after disk operating systems became available, and were made possible, in part, by the availability of up to 64K bytes of memory.

These compilers included Microsoft products and Digital Research's CBASIC-86 compiler. Later, Better BASIC, QuickBASIC, True BASIC, ZBasic, and Turbo Basic were developed. But the major move to compilers needed to be made without sacrificing the instant feedback and quick detection of errors, features that made the BASIC interpreter so successful.

Advancements in compiler technology enabled the development of a BASIC compiler that gave the appearance of an interpreter, thus offering the best of both worlds. Single-pass compilers that could compile first hundreds—and then thousands—of lines of code in just a few seconds gave BASIC the appearance of an interpreter but let programs execute faster.

Later, we invented an in-memory scheme combining the features of an interpreter and a compiler. It uses a special intermediate threaded pseudocode that, when combined with an environment like the QuickBASIC editor, lets you write, debug, and change the code just like in an interpreter. When you are ready, you can compile the finished product to get maximum speed and compact size in an executable file.

Compiling BASIC also made it easier to call routines written in other languages from within BASIC. Because the compiler generates standard intermediate .OBJ files, you can link C or FORTRAN .OBJ files with your BASIC .OBJ files and call

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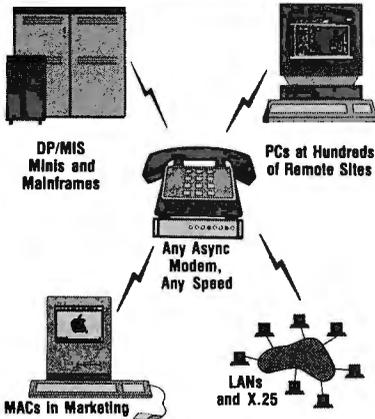
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those "foreign" language routines from within your BASIC program.

With these improvements in compiler technology, BASIC's longtime reputation as a slowly executing language fell by the wayside. Today, many popular commercial applications are written in BASIC. For example, there's a speaker-design program called AccoustaCADD, a radio station playlist manager called Music Scan, and even a program for molecular biologists called DNA Inspector. Modern compiled BASIC programs run as fast as programs compiled in Pascal or C.

I'm still a big fan of BASIC. It handles many of the overhead tasks that other languages force you to deal with, thereby unleashing your programming creativity. I have challenged programmers to write code to solve any problem using any tool they choose; I wager that I can write the same program faster using QuickBASIC. In fact, there is a joke around Microsoft that says when an application is falling behind schedule, "Just give it to Bill and he'll write it in BASIC over the weekend."

Still, as powerful as BASIC is today, there are ways to make it even better.

The BASIC Clairvoyant

Even though BASIC gives you great freedom for writing programs, it still forces you to think procedurally; your programs become a series of linked, step-by-step procedures to perform certain actions. Programming this way becomes an exercise in project management: First do this, then do that if something else happens, and so on.

As programs become more complex, these "projects" get harder to manage. Structured programming concepts deal with this complexity by encouraging programmers to break up code into small chunks, and then tie the chunks together with the unfortunately error-prone convention of function calls within, and across, module and file boundaries. Object-oriented programming puts a new twist on that idea: Make each program chunk a self-contained package of data and the procedures for manipulating that data, and then have the chunks send and receive messages to interact with other chunks.

This scheme provides a "black-box" mentality for program pieces—the pieces become objects whose internal complexity stays hidden from other objects. But why do you need to think of programs as collections of objects?

The visual environments that are used on computers today give a clue as to why thinking about program objects is important and different. In a visual environment, you choose an action or event after you choose the data that is the target of the action or event. For example, delete character, delete word, delete paragraph, and delete page are simply one command applied to different objects. You must choose the object—a character, word, paragraph, or page—before you select the command delete.

Object-oriented design techniques package data and the methods of manipulating that data together: The package becomes an object. If you want an object to do things that it doesn't currently know how to do, you create a new object that inherits the capabilities of the old object and then add the new capabilities you want to define. In traditional procedural programming, you set up the action first and then identify the data and supervise every step in the action's manipulation of that data.

Object-oriented programming will influence the development of all languages, including BASIC, over the next several years. Objects contain both code and data, and they manage their own behavior while hiding their internal complexity.

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Objects interact with other objects by passing messages back and forth. That way, any object can be changed without affecting other objects. Any programmer can create an object that can interact with any other object; all the programmer has to know is the message-passing syntax.

To adapt to this object-oriented emphasis in programming, BASIC will need the ability to create and manipulate classes and subclasses, which are the principal data abstraction devices of object-oriented programming. BASIC will also need a visual component. After all, the best way to design a form is to draw the form, not write code to reproduce it. With a mouse and a palette of predrawn graphics images, you should be able to combine lines, boxes, and buttons interactively on a screen to design a form for a program. That kind of interactive design of objects should also let you attach to or combine your creations within a program.

Future versions of BASIC will increasingly provide support for this kind of programming. The programs will look different from the BASIC we're used to. A visual BASIC program will be a mixture of code, programmer-written objects, and visually specified objects. With separate windows, you would be able to edit both the visual and code parts of the program.

HyperCard provides an interesting example of this combination of visual and more standard procedural programming. The screen display of the card, with its buttons and display areas, provides the visual field; the script language, HyperTalk, lets you create procedures that relate to the card and the information that the card links with. Although HyperCard is only a partial implementation of object-oriented programming, it forms an understandable intermediate step between procedural and object-level programming.

Another major change in BASIC's future will be its universality. This change will result from BASIC's becoming part of the overall computing environment. BASIC may soon become the equivalent of today's MS-DOS command interpreter, COMMAND.COM. If this happens, BASIC will play a role similar to the one it played in the earliest personal computers—as a universal "macro" language through which users interact with their computers and all the applications they run.

A universal BASIC would come in different flavors. One fla-

vor would serve as a central control language for the computing environment. As an environment control tool, BASIC would be a command-line adjunct to a visual user interface. Another flavor would serve as an embedded language within application programs. Embedded BASIC would allow power users to embellish the performance of their applications, as Lotus 1-2-3 users do today, without having to learn a new macro language for each application they use.

You would be able to use BASIC syntax to tell your application programs to perform their various functions in the order you want them performed. For example, if you needed a certain report each month, you'd be able to write a short BASIC program that tells the application to gather the relevant data, format it properly, and have it waiting for you at the appointed hour. BASIC can provide this power while remaining easy to learn and use. These kinds of changes will keep BASIC vibrant for a long time.

Perpetually Young

The next 25 years in BASIC's life will probably be even more exciting than the first 25. BASIC's development has mirrored the explosive growth of the personal computer industry: When the hardware was weak, BASIC was pretty cramped, too. The rapid improvements in hardware in the last 15 years have been matched by the growth of BASIC in both power and flexibility. If you haven't looked at BASIC in the last few years, you'll be surprised by how it's changed. Compare listings 1, 2, and 3 to see the evolution of BASIC from 1964 through 1985.

In the late 1970s, when C started becoming very popular, many people predicted the demise of the COBOL and FORTRAN languages. Pascal was supposed to sound the death knell for BASIC. But all these languages continue to survive. I believe that in the case of BASIC, the language is flourishing. If BASIC becomes a universal macro language, as I think it will, it may outlive all the procedural languages. BASIC may, in fact, outlive us all. ■

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