THE HUGO BOOK

HUGO: AN INTERACTIVE FICTION DESIGN SYSTEM

BY KENT TESSMAN

First Edition
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AUTHOR’S FOREWORD

Somewhere along the way this became a real book, and a real book deserves a foreword, and maybe even a dedication. Looking back, the reason any of this exists at all probably has something to do with being ten years old, and me and my little brother Dean sitting in front of the family Apple II Plus computer, one chair and one stool, playing those old text adventures.

So Dean, this is for you. I’m sorry I always took the chair.

Kent Tessman
Toronto, Canada
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BOOK 1

THE HUGO PROGRAMMING MANUAL

OR

HOW TO WRITE GAMES AND INFLUENCE PEOPLE
I. INTRODUCTION

I.a. Why You’re Here (or, Just What Is Hugo?)

Chances are if you’re reading this book you’re already at least a little familiar with adventure games, and maybe even more specifically interactive fiction or text adventures. Hugo is a system for designing, programming, and running these. It is not the first such system—and it’s difficult to find substantial fault in any general way with the best of those systems that predate Hugo—but Hugo does hope to extend the concepts developed in earlier, similar systems in order to make interactive fiction programming less cryptic, and more flexible and accessible to designers, as well as to add functionality in certain areas where other systems are lacking.

What does it mean to be a “system” for interactive fiction? In Hugo’s case, it means that not only does it provide an environment for running Hugo games—the rather exciting-sounding Hugo Engine—but also the means of creating them (the Hugo Compiler) and a tool for troubleshooting (the Hugo Debugger). Additionally, it includes the Hugo Library, in essence a suite of Hugo programming code providing the basic infrastructure for a Hugo game.

This book will serve as a means of becoming familiar with what Hugo is and what it does, and what is required to develop an interactive fiction game using Hugo, whether or not you have any prior programming experience.

I.b. Legal Information

Please see the Hugo License for detailed legal information. Hugo is copyrighted by its Author. Programs created using the Hugo Compiler are the property of the individual user who created them. The use of the Hugo library files (the “Hugo Library”) and the distribution of the Hugo Engine are

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1 If not, or if you’d like some additional interesting reading, there are a number of excellent resources to investigate further, some of which are listed in APPENDIX G: ADDITIONAL RESOURCES.

2 The best and most popular of these earlier systems are TADS (Mike Roberts, 1987) and Inform (Graham Nelson, 1993).
authorized for the creation of non-commercial or shareware-based software. The use of the Hugo Library is allowed in commercial software, although copyright of the library files themselves remains with the Author. Commercial distribution of the Hugo Compiler, the Hugo Engine, and/or the Hugo Debugger may be allowed by arrangement with the Author. The source code for the Hugo Compiler, the Hugo Engine, and the Hugo Debugger (the “Hugo Source Code”) is available for porting to new platforms. Public distribution of modified versions of the Hugo Source Code is not permitted.

Note: The Hugo Compiler, the Hugo Engine, the Hugo Debugger, the Hugo Library, and related components are available free of charge; there is no warranty whatsoever pertaining to their use.

I.c. Names And Acknowledgments

Those who have taken upon themselves the task of porting Hugo to various platforms include Julian Arnold (Acorn/RiscOS port), Gerald Bostock (OS/2 port), David Kinder (Amiga port), Bill Lash (original Unix/Linux port), Andrew Plotkin (Macintosh port using his Glk library), and Colin Turnbull (original Acorn Archimedes port). The author is considerably indebted to them, for all their work as well as for their input on how to improve the compiler and engine. Without their efforts, Hugo and the games created with it would not be available for so nearly as wide an audience.3

More than a few words of appreciation must be given to Volker Blasius, the original maintainer of the Interactive Fiction Archive at GMD, one of the key resources for interactive fiction players and developers, and a primary hub of material for contributors to (and readers of) the Usenet newsgroups rec.arts.int-fiction and rec.games.int-fiction. For years, Volker (earlier with the help of David M. Baggett and later with the help of David Kinder) undertook the substantial task of organizing and cataloguing thousands of existing files and a steady stream of new submissions. The IF Archive is now, as of this writing, housed on the web at http://www.ifarchive.org, and is currently maintained by David Kinder and Stephen Granade.

Thanks also to those whose comments and suggestions have contributed to making Hugo as powerful and usable as it is: Torbjörn Andersson, Julian Arnold, Dmitry Baranov, Mark Bijster, Jonathan Blask, Cam Bowes, Jason Brown, Daniel Cardenas, Jose Luis Cebrian, Gilles Duchesne, Jason Dyer, Miguel Garza, Jeff Jenness, Doug Jones, Alan MacDonald, Cena Mayo, Jesse McGrew, John Menichelli, Iain Merrick, Jim Newland, Jerome Nichols, Jason C. Penney, Giacomo Pini, Andrew Pontious, Vikram Ravindran, Gunther Schmidl, Robb

3 Other ports done by the author are for Windows, Linux, Macintosh, DOS, BeOS, Pocket PC, and PalmOS.
Sherwin, Christopher Tate, Mark J. Tilford, Paolo Vece, and Dean Tessman, as well as to many other Hugo users. Graham Nelson’s Inform language helped give early shape to some of the ideas in Hugo’s development with regard to syntax and structure. Finally, sincere apologies on my part for any omission of those who have contributed to Hugo over the years in any way.

And thank you, as always, to Jennifer.

I.d. Manual Conventions

Please refer to the following conventions as they are used in this manual:

- `<parameter>` for required parameters
- `[parameter]` for optional parameters
- `file` for specific filenames
- `FunctionName` functions, etc.
- `Note` important notes related to the matter at hand
- `Output` for output by the compiler or engine
- `token` tokens, keywords
- `...` for omissions (particularly of non-relevant sections of code)

I.e. Packing List

A number of files are part of the basic Hugo package. You’ll need to make sure to have these before you get started; a good starting point is the Hugo web page at http://www.generalcoffee.com/hugo.
Executable package. You’ll need, first and foremost, a version of Hugo compiled for your particular computer system, which will allow you to run existing Hugo programs, as well as compile and run your own. Usually the package itself is named something like:

- `hugov31_win32.zip` (Windows)
- `hugov31_macos.sit` (Macintosh)
- `hugov31_unix_source.tar.gz` (Unix sources)

although filenaming may vary between platforms. Generally, like in the examples above, Hugo comes in an archive file containing the various executables for a given platform. The package should contain the following files (although, again, filenames may differ; they’ll generally appear as `filename`, although on your system they may be lowercase or some combination of upper and lowercase, and the filename extension may vary or be absent):

- Hugo Compiler: `HC.EXE`, `hcwin`, `hc`
- Hugo Engine: `HE.EXE`, `hewin`, `he`, `hewx`
- Hugo Debugger: `HD.EXE`, `hdwin`, `hd`
- Debugger help file: `HDHELP.HLP`

Please note that the Hugo Compiler and the Hugo Debugger are not available for all systems; some packages for some systems contain only the Hugo Engine for playing Hugo games. To develop and compile your own games, the Hugo Compiler is necessary. The Hugo Debugger is a useful and powerful tool, but it is not essential for Hugo development.

Library package. You may be relieved to learn that you don’t have to write every last part of a Hugo game yourself. In fact, much of the basic infrastructure is provided by the Hugo Library, a set of existing Hugo source code files that you include in your game to manage the game world. Using the Hugo Library, you can easily create a small game that incorporates the basic behavior of a standard Hugo game. Normally these files can be found in a single archive called `hugolib.zip`:

- `hugolib.h`: Library definitions and routines
- `verblib.h`: Standard verb routines
- `verblib.g`: Standard verb grammar definitions
- `objlib.h`: A library of useful object definitions (included by `hugolib.h`)
The library also includes these three less commonly used files:

- resource.h  Resource-handling routines
- system.h    System-level routines
- window.h    Text window management

Additionally, the library contains two sets of files that, depending on user-specified settings, are optionally included by hugolib.h:

- hugofix.h   Debugging routines
- hugofix.g   Debugging grammar
- verbstub.h  Additional verb routines
- verbstub.g  Additional verb grammar

Sources. It’s probably a good idea as you delve into Hugo programming to have some existing source code to look at. sample.hug is a valuable resource to have handy since it contains examples of most aspects of Hugo programming. Additionally, you’re probably want to download shell.hug, which provides the very bare bones of a Hugo game for you to start building on:

- sample.hug  Sample game source code
- shell.hug   Empty source code to build on

An additional Hugo source file demonstrates the ability to create precompiled headers (and not something you probably need to worry about just now; it’s covered in APPENDIX E: PRECOMPILED HEADERS):

- hugolib.hug  To create a linkable version of hugolib.h

Extras. The last essential remaining piece you’ll need to begin Hugo development in earnest is a text editor of some sort. This is what you’ll use to edit the Hugo source files that you’ll write and ultimately compile into working Hugo programs. On Windows or Macintosh you could use the pre-packaged Notepad or SimpleText (or TextEdit on Mac OS X) applications, respectively, but it’s really not recommended: there are far better inexpensive or even freeware editors available (and once you get
deeper into programming, you’ll realize that the one sure investment you can make is an editor you’re comfortable with). On Unix-ish systems (including Linux), you’ll generally have a choice of editors including Emacs, vi, and a number of graphical user interface (GUI) programs. It’s a little beyond the scope of this book to even attempt to recommend an editor—since it’s as much a matter of personal preference as anything—so the best advice that can be given is to ask around, experiment, and find out what works best for you.

It would also be good preparation to become familiar with the *terminal* or *console* on your system. On Windows, this is the “MS-DOS Prompt” or “Command Prompt” under the Start menu, or type “command” (Windows 95/98) or “cmd” (Windows NT/2000/XP) from the “Run...” option; on Unix systems, this will be bash or tcsh or some other kind of command shell. Other systems will have different names for their command-line environments (although on something like a pre-OS X Macintosh, there is no such thing as a terminal or console, so you needn’t worry about it).

I.f. The Truth About Programming

The truth about writing interactive fiction games is that yes, it is programming, and no, there’s really no way around it. It’s impossible for a game design system to provide a cookie-cutter means of picking and choosing all the various facets of any relatively complex game so that by clicking on a few buttons a fully formed and entirely original game world and story will be produced. It doesn’t work that way. The attempt to determine at the outset all of the various game elements that will ever be needed by any game author in any type of game necessarily limits what authors are able to include in their games, as well as their ability to tailor gameplay, presentation, character interaction, geography, and other important aspects of a game to the needs of the particular work of interactive fiction they’re writing. So, in order to write the best interactive fiction games you’re capable of, you’ll need to do a at least a little programming. But that’s not reason to fret.

The word “programming” seems to hold a sort of mystique that, to the non-programmer, conjures up some unfathomable combination of knowledge and skills that shall remain forever inaccessible to outsiders. In fact, that’s pretty far from the truth. Programming is indeed a creative pursuit, but it is pretty much unique among creative pursuits in that it’s the only one that can be overcome by enough banging of keys: eventually you can make almost anything work.
If you’ve never done any programming before, you can probably expect to be slightly baffled by at least some of the early going in this manual. The truth about learning programming is that you’re probably not going to be able to read through this book (or any book on programming in any other programming language, for that matter) once, in proper sequence, from cover to cover, and be able to write programs expertly in the language. Many of things will require the introduction of concepts that will only be discussed in full later on once a better grounding in the language is achieved. There will, in fact, be several places in this book (especially in the early sections) where readers will be encouraged to not worry if the subject matter at hand seems quite foreign. But rest assured that, after a brief initial period of acclimation, before long things like “objects”, “properties”, “routines”, “global variables”, “calling parameters”, and a host of others will be rolling off your tongue like the alphabet.

To make everything even easier, Hugo is designed so that writing very basic games will consist largely of defining and describing objects and locations in a very straightforward manner. All of the complex inner workings of the game—from the templates for standard rooms and objects and their related behaviors; to what happens when a player types >GO NORTH or >OPEN THE CARDBOARD BOX or any other command, recognized or unrecognized; to the rules of the game world for containment, edibility, bulk, switching things on or off, or any number of “physical” traits—are handled by the Hugo Library, and a prospective doesn’t have to worry about where these things are handled or how until he or she is ready to investigate deeper.

I.g. Working With Hugo

The way Hugo works is fairly standard for a modern programming language. A programmer begins with a source file, which is a human-readable text file (created and edited in a separate text-editing application). The source file contains all the various definitions, instructions, and other text that will ultimately form the content of the game. The content of a source file is formatted in the particular structure of the Hugo language—the programming language with which the majority of this manual will endeavor to help you become acquainted.

The programmer inputs the source file to a compiler (here, specifically, the Hugo Compiler), which takes the source code and generates an object file. The object file is—unlike a source file—not human readable, but has instead been translated by the compiler into a series of optimized instructions that are easily understood by the computer. The computer can then take that object file and execute it as a program, just like any application users regularly use (applications—like word processors and spreadsheets and browsers—which were probably produced by a compiler in exactly the same process as described
here). The difference between a Hugo-generated program and such other compiled programs is that a Hugo program may, once compiled, be run on any platform for which the Hugo Engine exists. Normally a compiled program can only be executed on the platform for which it was compiled; Hugo programs are much more portable, and can be compiled on one platform and subsequently be run on any other of the large number of platforms that Hugo supports.

The Hugo Engine is the interpreter or runtime for compiled Hugo object files (also referred to as .HEX files, after their default extension meaning “Hugo executable”). It functions as a hosting environment in which to load the .HEX file, in sort of the same way that a browser loads a web page from the Internet.

I.h. Getting Started

Let’s take the first step by becoming acquainted with the tools we’ll be using. First and foremost is the Hugo Compiler. Compiler usage instructions may vary slightly depending on what computer and operating system you’re using.

If you’re using a GUI version of the compiler (such as the one for Windows), when you start the compiler it will display a form for you to enter the name of the Hugo program you want to compile, along with any other compilation options.

If you’re running a command-line version of the compiler, it will behave pretty much the same regardless of what system you’re on. Type

```
hc
```
without any parameters to get a full listing of available compiler options and specifications. For example, the Unix and MS-DOS syntax for running the compiler is

```
hc [-switches] <sourcefile[.hug]> <objectfile>
```

It is not absolutely necessary to specify any switches, the name of the objectfile, or the sourcefile extension. The bare-bones version of the compiler invocation is

```
hc <sourcefile>
```

With no other parameters explicitly described, the compiler assumes an extension of .hug. The default object filename is `<sourcefile>.hex`.

Here’s how to compile the sample game from the `sample.hug` source code mentioned earlier in I.e. Packing List. Make sure the compiler executable,
library files, and sample game source code are all in the current directory, then type

```
hc -ls sample.hug
```

or simply

```
hc -ls sample
```

and after a few seconds (or more, or less, depending on your processor and configuration) a screenful of statistical information will appear following the completed compilation (because of the -s switch). The new file `sample.hex` will have appeared in current directory. As well, the -l switch wrote all compile-time output (which would have included errors, had there been any) to the file `sample.lst`.

**Note:** The next three sections—*I.i. Compiler Switches, I.j. Limit Settings, and I.k. Directories*—may seem a little confusing to those without much compiler experience. Do look them over, but if you’re not exactly sure what it all means, don’t worry about it. You won’t need to tell the compiler to do anything particularly acrobatic at the outset, and the information is here for experimentation and for when you need it.

### I.i. Compiler Switches

A number of *switches* may be selected via the invocation line. These are one or more single-letter (usually, at least) options that follow a `-` character. The available options are:

- `-a` *Abort* compilation on any error
- `-d` compile as an .HDX *Debuggable* executable
- `-e` *Expanded* error format
- `-f` *Full* object summaries
- `-h` compile in .HLB precompiled *Header* format
- `-i` display debugging *Information*
- `-l` print Listing to disk as `<sourcefile>.lst`
- `-o` display *Object* tree
- `-p` send output to standard *Printer*
- `-s` print compilation *Statistics*
- `-t` Text to listfile for spellchecking
- `-u` show memory *Usage* for objectfile
- `-v` *Verbose* compilation
I. INTRODUCTION

-w Write <objectfile> despite any errors
-x ignore switches in source code
-25 compile v2.5 with compatibility

- The -a switch to abort compilation on any error is useful particularly when you suspect that an error earlier in the program is triggering a string of compilation errors later on. Using -a will stop compilation after the first error.
- In order to compile a file usable with the Hugo Debugger (which means it will contain a large amount of symbolic information not normally included in a .HEX file), use the -d switch.
- The standard format in which the Hugo Compiler reports errors is relatively concise, but can sometimes be used by more advanced editors to automatically locate the error-causing line. To have the compiler print errors in greater detail than this standard format, use the -e switch.
- Using the -f switch will tell the compiler to output a list of detailed information about each object, which can sometimes be useful for debugging.
- The -h switch is used to generate a precompiled header, described in APPENDIX E: PRECOMPILED HEADERS.
- The -i switch tells the compiler to finish compilation by printing a list of all symbols used, as well as their numerical equivalents and any address information. Again, this can sometimes be useful in debugging.
- Most programmers will probably make use of the -l switch to record all compilation output to a listfile, by default called <filename>.lst. Such recorded output will contain not only any compile-time errors, but also any output generated by the use of other switches listed here.
- To get a list of all objects (as well as a visual depiction of their inheritance), use the -o switch.
- The -p switch does not exist in all versions of the Hugo Compiler for all platforms. Where present, it causes all output to be sent to a named printer, such as “LPT1” under DOS or Windows, or “/dev/lp” under Unix. (The -p switch is actually deprecated, as it’s much easier and more flexible to capture output to a listfile using the -l switch, then subsequently view and/or print the listfile using a text editor program.)
- Compilation statistics are printed as a summary when compilation is done if the -s switch is used. The summary includes totals of lines compiled, the numbers of objects, routines, properties, dictionary words, and other elements of a .HEX file.
- The -t switch sends all textual output and dictionary entries to the listfile so that it can be run through a spellchecker.
- The -u switch gives a breakdown of the memory used by the .HEX file for various things including the object table, the property table, and executable code.
- When the -v switch (not available on all versions) is used, the compiler runs in verbose mode and maintains a real-time display of the number of lines compiled, and of the percentage of compilation complete.
- Normally if the compiler encounters any errors in the source code, it won’t generate the gamefile. Use the -w switch to generate <objectfile> regardless of any errors encountered. This is useful in a situation where you want to try out a section of code that has nothing to do with another section that may currently have errors, but is otherwise rarely used (for obvious reasons—it’s always best to get rid of those pesky errors).
- The version 3.0 (or later) compiler may be invoked with the -25 switch in order to generate a v2.5 gamefile. Note, however that it’s generally unnecessary to do so, since v2.5 and v3.x are compatible; i.e., the v3.0 (or later) engine will run v2.5 gamefiles, and most recent v2.5 builds of the engine will run v3.0 gamefiles. See APPENDIX F: HUGO VERSIONS for more information.

I.j. Limit Settings

Also included on the invocation line before the sourcefile may be one or more limit settings. These settings are primarily for memory management, and limit the number of certain types of program elements, such as objects and dictionary entries. In order to allow the compiler to function optimally across a range of different computer platforms with differing memory management capabilities, the compiler does not automatically allow an unlimited number of all language elements. For the most part, you won’t need to worry about upping any of these settings until your Hugo games begin to reach larger sizes.

To list the settings, type:

```
hc $list
```

You’ll see something like:

```
----------------------------------------------------------
Static limits (non-modifiable):
MAXATTRIBUTES  128   MAXGLOBALS        240
MAXLOCALS       16
----------------------------------------------------------
Default limits:
MAXALIASES     256   MAXARRAYS         256
MAXCONSTANTS   256   MAXDICT          1024
```
Modify non-static default limits using: \$<setting>=<new limit>

To change a non-static limit (and compile a source file), type:

hc $<setting>=<new limit> <sourcefile>...

Note: Users of Unix or similar systems (including OS X, BeOS, and others) may, depending on the shell being used, need to escape special tokens like '$' or enclose these arguments in single quotes (e.g. \$list and \$<setting>=<new limit> or 'list', '$<setting>=<new limit>', etc.) to override the shell’s parsing of those tokens in the compiler invocation line. (Non-Unix users probably don’t need to worry about what that means.)

For example, to compile the sample game with the maximum number of dictionary entries doubled from the default limit of 1024, and with the -l and -s switches set,

hc -ls $MAXDICT=2048 sample

If a compile-time error is generated indicating that too many symbols of a particular type have been declared, it is probably possible to overcome this simply by recompiling with a higher limit for that setting specified in the invocation line.

See APPENDIX C: LIMIT SETTINGS for a complete listing of valid limit settings.

I.k. Directories

It is possible to specify where the Hugo Compiler will look for different types of files. This can be done in the command line via:

hc @<directory>=<real directory>
For example, to specify that the source files are to be taken from the directory `c:\hugo\source`, invoke the compiler with

```
hc @source=c:\hugo\source <filename>
```

Valid directories (which can be listed using “hc @list”) are:

- **source**: Source files
- **object**: Where the new .HEX file will be created
- **lib**: Library files
- **list**: .lst files
- **resource**: Resources for a resource block
- **temp**: Temporary compilation files (if any)

**Note:** Again, users of Unix or similar systems may, depending on the shell being used, need to escape special tokens like ‘@’ or enclose these arguments in single quotes (e.g. `@list` and `@<directory>=<real directory>` or '@list' and '@<directory>=<real directory>') to override the shell’s parsing of those special tokens in the compiler invocation line.

Advanced users may take advantage of the ability to set default directories using environment variables. (The method for setting an environment variable may vary from operating system to operating system.) The `HUGO_<NAME>` environment variable may be set to the `<name>` directory. For example, the source directory may be set with the `HUGO_SOURCE` environment variable. Command-line-specified directories take precedence over those set in environment variables. In either case, if the file is not found in the specified directory, the current directory is searched. (And if you’re not familiar with environment variables, again, don’t worry about it.)

## I.I. The Hugo Engine

Once the sample game has been successfully compiled, you can run it with the help of the Hugo Engine. The way in which you do this will vary depending on what platform you’re using.

1. If you’re running a GUI version of the engine (such as for Windows), the filetype for .HEX files will generally be associated with the Hugo Engine application, so that double-clicking on the compiled .HEX file will automatically start the engine.
2. Most GUI versions also have the functionality that, if you start the Hugo Engine application directly with no .HEX file given, it will present you with a file-selector to choose the file to run.

3. Command-line versions of the engine require you to specify the name of the .HEX file you want to run. Having compiled the sample game, run it by invoking

```command-line
he sample
```

at the command line (replacing “he” with the name of the engine executable for your system, if necessary). Again, it should not be necessary to specify the extension. The engine assumes .hex if none is given.

Note: If you know how to set environment variables for your system, the environment variable HUGO_OBJECT or HUGO_GAMES may hold the directory that the Hugo Engine searches for the specified .HEX file. The location for save files may be specified with HUGO_SAVE. All of these are optional.
What Should I Be Able To Do Now?

By now, you should be able to:

- browse the sample code and library files;
- run the Hugo Compiler on the platform of your choice, either through a graphical user interface or via the command line;
- view and set compile-time options such as switches, limits, and directories; and
- run a compiled Hugo file using the Hugo Engine.

Here’s an example: on the author’s machine, running under a Unix-like command line, the compiler executable `hc` is in a directory called `/boot/home/hugo`. The library files are in `/boot/home/hugo/lib`, and the source code for the game *Future Boy!* is in `/boot/home/hugo/fb`, with the main source file called `future.hug`.

It’s possible to call the compiler to compile *Future Boy!* with a number of different options, including specifying the appropriate directories for source and library files, increasing the maximum possible number of routines, and printing all debugging information, the object tree, and statistics to a file. (Assume that the current directory is `/boot/home/hugo` and that none of the switches or directories are set in the source.)

Here’s how that’s done:

```
hc -lios $maxobjects=512 @source=fb @lib=lib future
```

(or)

```
hc -lios '$maxobjects=512' '@source=fb', etc.
```

if the command shell requires that sequences beginning with `$` or `@` be contained in single-quotes or otherwise escaped). This makes use of various command-line options, including multiple switches, limit settings, and directory specifications. It sets the desired switches, changes the modifiable limit `MAXOBJECTS` from the compiler default, and points the compiler to look for source files in the `source` subdirectory and library files in the `lib` subdirectory (from the current directory).
II. A FIRST LOOK AT HUGO

II.a. Basic Concepts

There are a couple of basic concepts to become familiar with in order to begin working with Hugo. Once you begin to become familiar with them, you will hopefully be able to look at a chunk of Hugo source code and—even if you don’t understand everything it’s doing—be able to at least get a sense of the general organization.

First of all, the bulk of programming in Hugo will involve the creation of what are called objects. The word “object” in this sense has two meanings. First of all, in a programming sense, objects are discrete subsections of source code. They are referred to by individual names, and they “do something”, whether that something is storing data or performing some set of functions or both. In the case of Hugo, however, these are not just abstract tools for structuring a program. Hugo objects are, more often than not, also representative of objects in the “physical world” of the game: people, places, and things. If, for example, you want to create a book in your game, you’ll create a book object that may comprise the description of the book, what’s written in it, how much it weighs, how many pages it has, what happens when you drop it, and anything else you choose to implement.

The rest of a Hugo program is mostly comprised of routines. These are the sections of code made up of commands or statements that facilitate the actual behavior of the program at different points in the story. (Routines can also be part of a containing object—we’ll get to that in a little while.) Routines are less frequently (although more frequently in other languages) called “functions”—they may be thought of as performing an operation or series of operations, and then optionally returning some kind of answer or result. A program may have a routine called DescribePlace which, when invoked (or “called”, in the parlance of programming) would print the description of a given location. The point of routines is that you don’t have to repeat the same code every time you want a particular task done: you just have to call the routine. Write once, use many times.
The idea of return values from a routine is an important one and, while sometimes puzzling to novices, is actually quite uncomplicated. For instance, often a particular function will be described as “returning true” or “returning false”—all this means is that when it’s done it returns either a non-zero value (usually 1) or a zero value, usually to indicate whether the function was successful or not at whatever it was being asked to do. A program will constantly be checking the return values of the routines it calls to determine if particular operations have been successful in order to decide what to do next. A routine can return any kind of value (listed shortly in II.c Data Types). A very simple example is a routine that performs a needed operation, such as adding two supplied values, \( a \) and \( b \). Let’s call it \( \text{AddTwoValues} \). When \( \text{AddTwoValues} \) is called with the two supplied values, it will return the sum \( a + b \).

For those familiar with the common programming languages such as C or Basic (including Visual Basic), Hugo will not be entirely visually unfamiliar. Individual objects and routines—as well as conditional blocks—are enclosed in braces as in C (“{}”), but unlike C and other C-like languages, a semicolon is not required at the end of each line to tell the compiler when the line is finished, and the language itself is considerably less cryptic. Keywords, variables, routine and object names, and other tokens are not case-sensitive.

II.b. Hello, Sailor!

In the time-honored tradition of programming texts, the introduction to a new programming language is quite often a description of how to print the optimistic phrase “Hello, world” as an example of that particular language’s form and substance. In the almost-equally time-honored tradition of interactive fiction, we’ll start with the rallying cry “Hello, Sailor!”. Here’s how one accomplishes that in Hugo:

```hugo
routine Main
{
  print "Hello, Sailor!"
  pause
  quit
}
```

The entire program consists of one routine. (Two routines are normally required for any Hugo program, the other being the \( \text{Init} \) routine, which is omitted in this simple example since there isn’t anything required in the way of initialization.)

The \( \text{Main} \) routine is automatically called by the engine. It is from here that the central behavior of any Hugo program is controlled. In this case the task at hand is the printing of “Hello, Sailor!”, followed by a wait for a keypress (the
II. A FIRST LOOK AT HUGO

pause) and an order to exit the program (i.e., quit it) so that we don’t strand
the program waiting for input from the player, which is the normal order of
Hugo business.4

II.c. Data Types

Computer programs are mainly about two things: input and output
(called i/o, for short), and modifying values. In fact, the bulk of a computer
program (that is, what happens behind the scenes, whirring away, unbeknownst
to the user) consists of setting, changing, and comparing various values. Hugo is
no exception. All data in Hugo is represented in terms of 16-bit integers5, treated
as signed (-32768 to 32767) or unsigned (0 to 65535) as appropriate. It’s up to the
compiler and engine to decide what a particular value means in a given context.
The name of any individual data type may contain up to 32 alphanumeric
characters (as well as the underscore ‘_’).

All of the following are valid data types:

- Integer values
  - 0, -10, 16800, -25005
  (constant values that appear in Hugo source code as numbers)

- ASCII characters
  - 'A', 'z', '7'
  (constant values equal to the common ASCII value for a character; i.e., 65
  for ‘A’)

- Objects
  - mysuitcase, emptyroom, player
  (constant values representing the object number of the given object)

- Variables
  - a, b, score, TEXTCOLOR
  (changeable value-holders that may be set to equal another variable or
  constant value)

---

4 Normally, unless the Main routine explicitly returns—as opposed to just running through to the closing
brace—the Hugo Engine continues running. Those familiar with the C programming language may notice
the slight difference here: whereas in C the main() function is the entry point for a C program, in Hugo
Init is the entry point, and Main can be thought of as the “each-turn routine”. For more elaboration on the
execution pattern of a Hugo program, see IX. THE GAME LOOP.

5 While it’s a little beyond the scope of this manual to talk about what exactly a 16-bit integer is (partly
because you don’t need to worry about it, other than to know they involve a range of 65536, either 0 to 65535
or -32768 to 32767). Essentially, “bits” refer to 1s or 0s in a base 2 number system (so that the right-most bit
is the 1s, the next-to-right-most is the 2s, the next the 4s, the next the 8s, etc.) For example, the 4-bit number
1100 is equal to decimal 12, since 8+4=12. (If you’re familiar with bitwise notation, you already knew that.
If you’re not, it probably didn’t particularly clear anything up, but as always, not to worry.)
**Constants**

`true, false, BANNER`

(constant—obviously—values that are given a name similarly to a variable, but are non-modifiable)

**Dictionary entries**

"a", "the", "basketball"

(The appearance of "the" in a line of code actually refers to the location in the dictionary table where the word "the" is stored. Dictionary entries are non-modifiable.)

**Array elements**

`ranking[1]`

(a series of one or more changeable values that may be referenced from a common base point)

**Array addresses**

`ranking`

(the base point of an array—see above; the array address itself is non-modifiable, unlike the contents of the array)

**Properties**

`nouns, short_desc, found_in`

(variable attachments of data relating specifically to objects)

**Attributes**

`open, light, transparent`

(less complex attachments of data describing an object, which may be specified as either having or not having the given attribute)

Most of these types are relatively straightforward, representing in most cases a simple value. As noted, some values are dynamic (modifiable), while others are static (non-modifiable). Dictionary entries are addresses in the dictionary table (comprising all dictionary words in the .HEX file), with the empty string "" having the value 0. Array addresses (as opposed to separate array elements) represent the address at which the array begins in the array table (comprising all array data in the .HEX file). Properties and attributes treated as discrete values represent the number of that property or attribute, assigned sequentially as the individual property or attribute is defined.

As mentioned, routines also return values, as do built-in engine functions, so that

\[ \text{FindLight}(room) \]

---

*Built-in functions are just like other Hugo functions except that they’re never defined anywhere in source code or any library file: the compiler and engine always know about them. To distinguish them, they’re generally printed in lowercase, whereas program-defined routines (including library routines) are almost always capitalized.*
and

\[ \text{parent(object)} \]

are also valid integer data types.\(^\text{7}\)

It’s good medicine to be as descriptive as possible in naming symbols, regardless of what you’re naming. A variable that holds the count of a number of objects \textit{could} be called \textit{n}, but it’s almost always better (especially after the fact, when you’re looking at code you’ve written days or even months before) to call it something more helpful like \textit{object_count}.

At this point it’s probably helpful to know that you can assign a value to a variable using the form:

\[ <\text{some variable}> = <\text{some value}>^8 \]

For instance, to set the variable \textit{x} equal to 5, you would use:

\[ x = 5 \]

To set it equal to element 4 of array \textit{some_array}, you would use:

\[ x = \text{some_array}[4] \]

\textbf{Note:} What follows is one of those \textit{if-you-don’t-quite-understand-yet-don’t-panic sections of the manual:} unless you can think of a place off the top of your head where something like this would be useful, it’ll probably be a little while until you need to use it.

When you want to get the return value of a routine, you would use:

\[ x = \text{Routine} \]

If, then, you ever need to get the indexed address of a routine to use it as a value, as you may at some point, you obviously won’t be able to do:

\[ x = \text{Routine} \]

\(^7\) Routine addresses are also stored as 16-bit integers. However, those versed at all in such calculations will notice that if such a value was treated as an absolute address, then any addressable executable code would be limited to 64K in size (65536 bytes, the maximum size of an unsigned 16-bit integer). Such is not the case, since the routine address is actually an indexed representation of the absolute address, allowing Hugo games to far exceed any such limit in their size of executable code.

\(^8\) The section \textit{IV.e. Operators and Assignments} goes into greater detail on assigning values to variables.
again and hope that this time it will assign the address of Routine to the variable \texttt{x}, since that will assign to \texttt{x} the value \textit{returned by Routine}. Instead, you can use the address operator \texttt{\&}, as in:

\begin{verbatim}
x = \&Routine
\end{verbatim}

which won’t actually call Routine but will instead only assign the routine’s address to \texttt{x} (or, as we’ll see later,

\begin{verbatim}
x = \&object.property
\end{verbatim}

to get a property routine address instead of calling the property routine itself.)

\section*{II.d. Multiple Lines}

If any single command is too long to fit on one line, it may be split across several lines by ending all but the last with the control character \texttt{\textbackslash}.

"This is an example string."

and

\begin{verbatim}
x = 5 + 6 * higher(a, b)
\end{verbatim}

are the same as

"This is an example \textbackslash\ string."

and

\begin{verbatim}
x = 5 + 6 * \textbackslash\ higher(a, b)
\end{verbatim}

String constants, such as in the below \texttt{print} statement, are an exception in that they do not require the \texttt{\textbackslash} character at the end of each line (although, as shown just above, it’s not wrong to use it).

\begin{verbatim}
print "The engine will properly
p\texttt{rint this text, assuming a}
\texttt{s\texttt{ingle space at the end of each}
\texttt{line."}
\end{verbatim}
will result in:

The engine will properly print this text, assuming a single space at the end of each line.

Care must be taken, however, to ensure that the closing quotes are not left off the string constant. Failing that, the compiler will likely generate a “Closing brace missing” or similar error when it overruns the object/routine/event boundary looking for a resolution to the odd number of quotation marks.

(Habitual double-space-after-a-period typists may find it useful to use the ‘\’ character for line continuation in situations like this:

```print "Here, we'll end a sentence on one line. \nHowever, we'd like to make sure there are two spaces before the second sentence."
```

giving:

```Here, we'll end a sentence on one line. However, we'd like to make sure there are two spaces before the second sentence.
```

since normally, if the ‘/’ were omitted after “...on one line.”, the compiler would assume only a single space before continuing with “However...” from the next line.)

Also, most lines ending in a comma, and, or or will automatically continue on to the next line (if they occur in a line of code). In other words:

```x[0] = 1, 2, 3, ! array assignment x[0]..x[4]
4, 5```

and

```if a = 5 and
  b = "tall"
```

get compiled the same as:

```x[0] = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5```

and
if a = 5 and b = "tall"

This is provided primarily so that lengthy lines and complex expressions do not have to run off the right-hand side of the screen during editing, nor do they continually need to be extended using ‘\’ and the end of each line.

**Note:** Multiple lines that are not strictly code, such as property assignments in object definitions—to be discussed shortly—must still be joined with ‘\’, as in

```plaintext
nouns "plant", "flower", "marigold", \ 
"fauna", "greenery"
```

and similar cases, even if they end in a comma.

There is a complement to the ‘\’ line-control character: the ‘:’ character allows multiple lines to be put together on a single line, i.e.:

```plaintext
x = 5 : y = 1
```

or

```plaintext
if i = 1:  print "Less than three."
```

Which the compiler translates to:

```plaintext
x = 5
y = 1
```

and

```plaintext
if i = 1
{print "Less than three."}
```

(We’ll get to exactly what that “if...print...” business means in just a little bit in *IV.h Conditional Expressions and Program Flow.*

II.e. **Comments**

Comments allow you to insert notes into source code to serve as reminders, descriptions of what a particular chunk of code does, put a curse upon the library/language author, or whatever else you want. Comments are
very helpful, and beginning programmers tend to put in either too many comments or too few. Despite the complaints that some people may have about over-commented code—generally referring to commenting a line like:

\[ x = 5 \]

with the rather obvious explanation of “set x equal to 5”—it’s always better to err on the side of too many comments in order to avoid the situation that every programmer find himself or herself in at least once (and once only if very, very lucky) of trying to remember what a piece of code does that you wrote yesterday, or last week, or several months ago. Comment, comment, comment.\(^9\)

There are two types of comments. Comments on a single line begin with a ‘!’ and ended with ‘\!’.

\[
! A \text{ comment on a single line}
\]

\[
!\!\ A \text{ multiple-line comment } \!\!
\]

Note: The ‘!\!’ combination must come at the start of a line to be significant; it cannot be preceded by any other statements or remarks. Similarly, the ‘\!’ combination must come at the end of a line (or alone on an otherwise blank line).

II.f. Compiler Errors And Warnings

The compiler is pretty good about catching you when you do something that isn’t going to work. When it encounters something in your source code that doesn’t make sense, or is illegal in terms of the Hugo language, it’ll tell you.

A compiler error is generally of one of two types. A fatal error looks like this:

Fatal error: <message>

and halts compiler execution. Fatal errors include things like not being able to find a requested file, encountering some sort of i/o difficulty (such as not being

---

\(^9\) But keep an eye out for issues of comment maintenance. Again, a good comment should add clarity to a section of code, but it (usually) shouldn’t restate exactly what the code is doing. Doing that just means that when you change the code, you have to change the comment to keep it accurate, too, which if you’ve overcommented means doing the same thing twice, and increasing the chances of getting out of sync so that the comment doesn’t perfectly reflect the code it’s supposed to be commenting.
able to read from or write to a necessary file), or having encountered something in the source code that makes it impossible to continue with compilation.

A non-fatal error typically looks like:

```
<filename>:<line>:  Error:  <message>
```

Non-fatal errors are usually programming mistakes: either doing something illegal (like trying to assign a value to something to which you’re not allowed to assign a value), making a syntax error such as using a symbol name that the compiler doesn’t know about (often due to a typing mistake), or making a formatting mistake (like missing something that the compiler knows is supposed to be coming next but you forgot to include). Unless the `-a` switch is specified at invocation to tell the compiler to quit after the first error, multiple non-fatal errors may be printed. The side-effect of this is that a specific error (particularly a formatting error) may affect many lines of code after it, so that the compiler—having become lost and not really knowing what you’re trying to do—may report a whole string of errors, even on lines that, if the compiler understood their proper context, would be error free.\(^\text{10}\)

When a compiler issues a warning, it looks like:

```
<filename>:<line>:  Warning:  <message>
```

Compilation will continue, but this is an indication that the compiler suspects a problem at compile-time.

If the `-e` switch has been set during invocation to generate expanded-format errors, error output looks like:

```
<FILENAME>:  <LOCATION>
(Error-causing line)
"ERROR:  <error message>"
```

It prints the section of code that caused the error, followed by an explanation of the problem. Compilation will generally continue unless the `-a` switch has been set.

**Note:** The section of offending code may not be printed exactly as it appears in the source when using the `-e` switch, since the compiler occasionally mildly paraphrases and rebuilds the source line into a more rigid format before finally compiling it.

\(^{10}\) Which is why, in certain cases, the `-a` switch can be helpful.
II.g. Compiler Directives

A number of special commands may be used that aren’t really part of a huge program per se, but rather give instructions to the compiler itself to determine (a) how the source code—or a part thereof—is read by the compiler and (b) what special output will be generated at compile-time. These special commands or instructions are called compiler directives, and are preceded with a ‘#’ character to set them apart.

To set switches within the source code so that they do not have to be specified each time the compiler is invoked for that particular program, the line

```c
#switches -<sequence>
```

will set the switches specified by `<sequence>`, where `<sequence>` is a string of characters representing valid switches, without any separators between characters. Many programmers may find it useful to make

```c
#switches -1s
```

the first line in every new program, which will automatically print a statistical summary of compilation (plus any warnings or errors) to the `.lst` list file.

Using

```c
#version <version>[.<revision>]
```

specifies that the file is to be used with version `<version>`. `<revision>` of the compiler. If the file and compiler version are mismatched, a warning will be issued.

**Note:** The `#version` directive is intended mainly for things like library files, and although you may use it in your own source files, it isn’t necessary. Its general usage is largely deprecated.

To include the contents of another file at the specified point in the current file, use

```c
#include "<filename>"
```

where `<filename>` is the full path and name of the file to be read. When `<filename>` has been read completely, the compiler resumes with the statement immediately following the `#include` directive. There is no limit on the number
of files that a single file may include; also, a file may include a file which includes
another file which includes another file and so on. (A file or set of files can be
compiled into a precompiled header using the -h switch, and then linked using
\texttt{#link} instead of \texttt{#include}. See \textit{APPENDIX E: PRECOMPILED HEADERS}.)

A useful tool for managing Hugo source code is the ability to use compiler
flags for conditional compilation. A compiler flag is simply a user-defined
marker that can control which sections of the source code are compiled. In this
way, a programmer can demarcate sections of a program that can be included or
excluded at will. For example, the library files \texttt{hugolib.h}, \texttt{verblib.h}, and
\texttt{verblib.g} check to see if a flag called \texttt{DEBUG} has been set previously (as it is in
\texttt{sample.hug}). Only if it has do they include the \texttt{hugofix.h} and \texttt{hugofix.g}
files, which in turn provide certain debugging features to a running Hugo
program. (For a final version to be released to the general public for playing,
then, by simply not setting the \texttt{DEBUG} flag those special features are not enabled.)

To set and clear flags, use

\begin{verbatim}
#set <flagname>
\end{verbatim}

and

\begin{verbatim}
#clear <flagname>
\end{verbatim}

respectively. (Flags can also be explicitly set on the command line during
compiler invocation via

\begin{verbatim}
hc #<flagname> <sourcefile>...
\end{verbatim}

similarly to compiler limit settings and directories, with the same caveat that on
some systems it may be necessary to enclose \#<flagname> in single quotes or
otherwise escape it, if required.)

Then, check to see if a flag is set or not (and include or exclude the
specified block of source code) by using

\begin{verbatim}
#ifset <flagname>
...conditional block of code...
#endif
\end{verbatim}

or

\begin{verbatim}
#ifclear <flagname>
...conditional block of code...
#endif
\end{verbatim}
Conditional compilation constructions may be nested up to 32 levels deep. (Note also that compiler flags can be specified in the invocation line as \texttt{#<flag name>}.)

"\texttt{#if set}" and "\texttt{#if clear}" are the long form of "\texttt{#ifset}" and "\texttt{#ifclear}", allowing usage of "\texttt{#elseif}" for code such as:

\begin{verbatim}
#set THIS_FLAG
#set THAT_FLAG

#if clear THIS_FLAG
#message "This will never be printed."
#elseif set THAT_FLAG
#message "This will always be printed."
#else
#message "But not this if THAT_FLAG is set."
#endif
\end{verbatim}

Use "\texttt{#if defined <symbol>}" and "\texttt{#if undefined <symbol>}" to test if objects, properties, routines, etc. have previously been defined, where \texttt{<symbol>} is the name of the object, property, routine, etc. in question.

As seen above, the \texttt{#message} directive can be used as

\begin{verbatim}
#message "<text>"
\end{verbatim}

to output \texttt{<text>} when (or if) that statement is processed during the first compilation pass.

Including "\texttt{error}" or "\texttt{warning}" before "\texttt{<text>}" as in

\begin{verbatim}
#message error "<text>"
\end{verbatim}

or

\begin{verbatim}
#message warning "<text>"
\end{verbatim}

will force the compiler to issue an error or warning, respectively, as it prints "\texttt{<text>}".

\textbf{Note:} It’s worth pointing out that all of the text printed in the above \texttt{#if/elseif} example is \textit{compile-time} output, not \textit{runtime} output. That is, it’s printed only when the compiler initially compiles the source code, not when a player plays the actual game.
It is also possible to include inline limit settings, such as

$<\text{setting}> = <\text{limit}>$

in the same way as in the invocation line. However, an error will be issued if, for example, an attempt is made to reset \texttt{MAXOBJECTS} if one or more objects have already been defined. Any limit settings in the code of a program must be done before the particular data type for which a new limit is being set has been used.
II.h. **What Should I Be Able To Do Now?**

By now you should:

- be able to look at Hugo source code and start to see the separation into different discrete parts, such as routines;
- have a general idea about the various Hugo data types, and be able to differentiate them in Hugo source code;
- know about different aspects of Hugo source code formatting such as multiple lines and comments;
- know how to read an error produced by the Hugo Compiler; and
- know how to use inline compiler directives to set switches, flags, limits, and directories.

To experiment a little, make a copy of `sample.hug` and call it something like `test.hug` so that we can modify and use it without changing the original sample game source code. Pick a line in the new file `test.hug` like:

```c
#set DEBUG
```

and add some garbage letters to change it to

```c
asdf#set DEBUG
```

Now, when you compile, you’ll see:

```
test.hug:12: Error: Unknown compiler directive: asdf
```

(Depending on the contents of `test.hug`, the actual line number may vary.) Once we’ve seen the effect of that, go back and remove the “asdf” from `test.hug`. Next, let’s try adding the line:

```c
$MAXOBJECTS=50
```
to the start of `test.hug`. Compile again, and you’ll see this time a whole bunch of compiler errors. Most importantly are the first couple, which look something like:

```
  test.hug:691: Error: Maximum of 50 objects exceeded
```

(The other errors basically follow from the last few objects in `test.hug` not getting defined, and the compiler subsequently knowing that a particular symbol is the name of an object.)

Feel free to experiment with `test.hug` by adding comments, changing lines, commenting out various objects or routines or other sections of codes, and seeing what happens when you try to compile it and run it.
III. OBJECTS

III.a. Getting To Know Your Objects

Objects are the building blocks of any Hugo program. Anything that will be accessible to a player during the game—including items, rooms, other characters, and even directions—will most likely be defined as an object. The basic object definition looks like this:

```hugo
object <objectname> "object name"
{
    ...
}
```

For example, a suitcase object might be defined as:

```hugo
object mysuitcase "suitcase"
{}
```

The enclosing braces are needed even if the object definition has no content (yet). The only data attached to the suitcase object are—from right to left—a name ("suitcase"), an internal identifier (mysuitcase), and membership in the basic object class.

The compiler assigns the object labeled <objectname> the next sequential object number. The first-defined object is object 0; the next-defined object is object number 1; the one after that is 2, etc. This is academic, however, as a programmer almost never need know what object number a particular object is—except for certain debugging situations—and can always refer to an object by its label <objectname>. If no explicit "object name" (or name property) is provided, the compiler automatically gives it the name "(<objectname>)", i.e., <objectname> in parentheses. That is, whereas

```hugo
object mysuitcase "suitcase"
{}
```
creates an object called “suitcase”,

```c
object placeholder
{
}
```

creates an object called “(placeholder)” . Usually the latter is used for system objects or classes (see III.e Classes) that will never actually appear in a game.

**Note:** The compiler automatically creates an object called “display” as the last-defined object if no other object named “display” is defined by the program (or the library). The display object can be used to get information about the engine’s output state and capabilities. See section XI.a The Display Object.

### III.b. The Object Tree

In order for objects to have a “physical place” in the game, i.e., to be in a room or contained in another object or beside another object, they must occupy a position in the object tree. The object tree is a simple map which represents the relationships between all objects in the game. The total number of objects is held in the global variable `objects`.

The “nothing” object is defined in the library as object 0 and is referred to in code using the label `nothing`. This is the root of the object tree, upon which all other objects are based.\(^{11}\) (And again, the name “nothing” is given to this first object by the library.)

**Note:** When using the standard library routines, ensure that no objects (or classes, to be discussed later) are defined before `hugolib.h` is included. Problems will arise if the first-defined object—object 0—is not the `nothing` object. Currently the library will point this out for you as a runtime error if for some reason it’s not the case.

When referring to object numbers, this manual is generally referring to the name given the object in the source code: i.e., `<objectname>`. The compiler automatically assigns each object an object number, and refers to it whenever a specified `<objectname>` is encountered.

\(^{11}\) It’s also no coincidence that the “nothing” object is equal in its value to 0, which also represents the empty string “” (see II.c Data Types). The fact that these three are (value-wise, at least) identical will come in handy, as what it means in practice is that 0/null/empty/nothing/etc. is the same in every context.
Here is an example of an object tree:

```
nothing
 |  Room
  |  Table——Chair——Book——Player
   |  Bowl           Bookmark
  |  Spoon
```

A number of built-in functions can be used to read the object tree.

- `parent`: parent(Table) = Room
  - parent(Bookmark) = Book
  - parent(Player) = Room
- `child`: child(Bowl) = Spoon
  - child(Room) = Table
  - child(Chair) = 0 ("nothing")
- `sibling`: sibling(Table) = Chair
  - sibling(Player) = 0 ("nothing")
- `youngest`: youngest(Room) = Player
  - youngest(Spoon) = 0 ("nothing")
- `elder`: elder(Chair) = Table
  - elder(Table) = 0 ("nothing")

Each function takes a single object as its argument, so that

- `parent`:
  - parent(Table) = Room
  - parent(Bookmark) = Book
  - parent(Player) = Room
- `child`:
  - child(Bowl) = Spoon
  - child(Room) = Table
  - child(Chair) = 0 ("nothing")
- `sibling`:
  - sibling(Table) = Chair
  - sibling(Player) = 0 ("nothing")
- `youngest`:
  - youngest(Room) = Player
  - youngest(Spoon) = 0 ("nothing")
- `elder`:
  - elder(Chair) = Table
  - elder(Table) = 0 ("nothing")

and
children(Room) = 4
children(Table) = 1
children(Chair) = 0

(In keeping with the above explanation of object numbers and `<objectname>`, the functions in the first set actually return an integer number that refers to the object `<objectname>`.)

To better understand how the object tree represents the physical world, the table, the chair, the book, and the player are all in the room. The bookmark is in the book. The bowl is on the table, and the spoon is on the bowl. The Hugo library will assume that the player object in the example is standing; if the player were seated, the object tree might look like:

```
nothing
|   
Room
|   
Table——Chair——Book
|       |       |
Bowl    Player    Bookmark
|   
Spoon
```

and

```
child(Chair) = Player
parent(Player) = Chair
children(Chair) = 1
```

(Try compiling `sample.hug` with the -o switch in order to see the object tree for the sample game. Or, if the DEBUG flag was set during compilation, use the HugoFix\textsuperscript{12} command “$ot” or “$ot `<object>`” during play to view the current state of the object tree during play. Compiling with the -d switch will generate a debuggable (.HDX) version of the file—the object tree can then be viewed directly from the debugger.)

To initially place an object in the object tree, use

```
in `<parent>`
```

in the object definition, or, alternatively

\textsuperscript{12}See APPENDIX D: HUGOFIX AND THE HUGO DEBUGGER.
nearby <object>

or simply

nearby

to give the object the same parent as <object> or, if <object> is not specified, the same parent as the last-defined object. If no such specification is given (i.e., if you don’t tell the compiler explicitly where to place the new object), the parent object defaults to 0—the “nothing” object as defined in the library. All normal room objects have 0 as their parent. Therefore, the expanded basic case of an object definition is

```object <objectname> "object name"
{
    in <parent object>
    ...
}
```

(Ensure that the opening brace ‘{’ does not come on the same line as the `object` definition. Trying to do:

```object <objectname> "object name" {...
```

is not permitted.)

The table in the example presumably had a definition like

```object table "Table"
{
    in room
    ...
}
```

To put the suitcase object defined earlier into the empty room in `shell.hug`

```object mysuitcase "suitcase"
{
    in emptyroom
}
```

Objects can later be moved around the object tree using the `move` command as in:
move <object> to <new parent>

which, essentially, disengages <object> from its old parent, makes the sibling of <object> the sibling of <object>‘s elder, and moves <object> (along with all its possessions) to the new parent.

Therefore, in the original example, the command

move bowl to player

would result in altering the object tree to this:

```
nothing
|   |
Room |
|   |
Table—Chair—Book—Player
     |   |
     Bookmark Bowl
     |   |
     Spoon
```

There is also a command to remove an object from its position in the tree:

remove <object>

which is the same as

move <object> to 0

The object may of course be moved to any position later.

Logical tests can also be evaluated with regard to objects and children. The structure

<object> [not] in <parent>

will be true if <object> is in <parent> (or false if not is used). In this way, you can write a piece of code that looks something like:

```c
if mysuitcase in bedroom
{
    "The suitcase is in the bedroom."
}
else
```
{  
    print "The suitcase is not in the bedroom."  
}

(We’ll cover the “if...else...” structure in IV.h Conditional Expressions and Program Flow.)

III.c. Attributes

Attributes are essentially qualities that every object either does or doesn’t have\(^{13}\). An attribute is defined as

attribute <attribute name>

Up to 128 attributes may be defined. Those defined in hugolib.h include:

- known: if an object is known to the player
- moved: if an object has been moved
- visited: if a room has been visited
- static: if an object cannot be taken
- plural: for plural objects (i.e., some hats)
- living: if an object is a character
- female: if a character is female
- openable: if an object can be opened
- open: if it is open
- lockable: if an object can be locked
- locked: if it is locked
- unfriendly: if a character is unfriendly
- light: if an object is or provides light
- readable: if an object can be read
- switchable: if an object can be turned on or off
- switchedon: if it is on
- clothing: for objects that can be worn
- worn: if the object is being worn
- mobile: if the object can be rolled, etc.
- enterable: if an object is enterable
- container: if an object can hold other objects
- platform: if other objects can be placed on it\(^{14}\)

\(^{13}\) For this reason, attributes are sometimes thought of as being “lightweight classes” in that, as can be seen in the list of attributes, they generally categorize an object as a certain “kind” of object—although other than flagging the object with that particular quality they have no other direct effect.
hidden if an object is not to be listed
quiet if container or platform is quiet (i.e., the initial listing of contents is suppressed)
transparent if object is not opaque
already_listed if object has been pre-listed (i.e., before a WhatsIn listing
workflag for system use
special for miscellaneous use

Some of these attributes are actually the same attribute with different names. This is primarily just to save on the absolute number of attributes defined and is accomplished via

attribute <attribute2> alias <attribute1>

where <attribute1> has already been defined. For example, the library equates visited with moved (since, presumably, they will never apply to the same object—rooms are never moved and objects are never visited), so:

attribute visited alias moved

In this case, an object which is visited is also, by default, moved, so it is expected that attributes which are aliased will never both need to be checked under the same circumstances. For the most part, you should never need to alias your own attributes, although it’s helpful to know what it means since the library does it, and you may run across it in other places.

Attributes are given to an object during its definition as follows:

object <objectname> "object name"
{  
is [not] <attribute1>, [not] <attribute2>, ...
    ...
}

Note: The not keyword in the object definition is important when using a class instead of the basic object definition, where the class may have predefined attributes that are undesirable for the current object.

---
14 The container and platform attributes are mutually exclusive. An object cannot have both attributes, since in the library the idea of containment is one of an object being either “in” or “on” another object. There are available classes that aren’t part of the standard library distribution that allow an object to function as both.
15 WhatsIn is a library function used to list in formatted fashion all the objects present in a location: see APPENDIX B: THE HUGO LIBRARY.
To give the suitcase object some appropriate attributes at compile-time, expand the object definition to include

```
object mysuitcase "suitcase"
{
    in emptyroom
    is openable, not open
    ...
}
```

Even if an object was not given a particular attribute in its object definition, it may be given that attribute at any later point in the program with the command

```
<object> is [not] <attribute>
```

where the `not` keyword clears the attribute instead of setting it. For example, when the suitcase is opened, somewhere (likely in the library), the command

```
mysuitcase is open
```

will be executed. When the suitcase is closed, the command will be:

```
mysuitcase is not open
```

Attributes can also be read using the `is` and `is not` structures and evaluate to either true or false. In code, the expression

```
<object> is [not] <attribute>
```

returns true (1) if `<object> is (or is not, if not is specified) <attribute>`. Otherwise, it returns false (0). Therefore, given the suitcase object definition:

```
object mysuitcase "suitcase"
{
    in emptyroom
    is openable, not open
    ...
}
```

the following equations hold true:

```
mysuitcase is openable = 1    ! or true
```
mysuitcase is open = 0  ! or false
mysuitcase is locked = 0  ! or false

III.d.  Properties

Properties are considerably more complex than attributes. First, not every object may have every property; in order for an object to have a property, it must be specified in the object definition at the time you create the object. As well, properties are not simple on/off flags. They are sets of valid data associated with an object, where the values may represent almost anything, including object numbers, dictionary addresses, integer values, and sections of executable code.

These are some valid properties as they would appear in an object definition (using property names defined in hugolib.h)\(^\text{16}\):

```plaintext
nouns "tree", "bush", "shrub", "plant"
size 20
found_in livingroom, entrancehall
long_desc
{
    "Exits lead north and west.  A door is set in the southeast wall."
}
short_desc
{
    "There is a box here.  It is ";
    if self is open
        print "open";
    else
        print "closed";
    print "."
}
before\(^\text{17}\)
{
```

\(^{16}\) Don’t worry too much about the specifics about what this code is supposed to be doing, or about the details of the language syntax. We’ll cover all of that in due course.

\(^{17}\) Just for clarity: the Art routine from hugolib.h prints the appropriate article, if any, followed by the name of the object, such as “an apple” or “a suitcase”. The Acquire routine returns true only if the first object’s holding property plus the size property of the second object does not exceed the capacity property of the first object (i.e., if there’s room in the first object to move the second object into it).
III. OBJECTS

```c
object DoGet
{
    if Acquire(player, self)
    {
        "You pick up ";
        print Art(self); "."
    }
    else
        return false
}
}
```

The nouns property contains four dictionary addresses; the size property is a single integer value; the found in property holds two object numbers; and the long and short description properties are both property routines, which instead of just containing one or more simple values stored as a data type are actually sections of executable code attached to the object.

The before property is a special case. This complex property routine is defined by the compiler and handled differently by the engine than a normal property routine. In this case, the property value representing the routine address is only returned if the global variables object and verbroutine contain the object in question and the address of the DoGet routine, respectively. If there is a match, the routine is executed before DoGet, which is the library routine (in `verblib.h`) that normally handles the taking of objects. (There is also a companion to before called after, which is checked after the verb routine has been called.) See V.c Before And After Routines for further elucidation.

There will be more on property routines and complex property routines later. For now, think of a property as simply containing one or more values of some kind.

A property is defined similarly to an attribute as

```
property <property name>
```

A default value may be defined for the property using

```
property <property name> <default value>
```

where `<default value>` is a constant or dictionary word. For objects without a given property, attempting to find that property will result in the default value. If no default is explicitly declared, it is 0 (or "" or the "nothing" object, whatever is appropriate in context—since they all represent the same zero value).

The list of properties defined in `hugolib.h` is:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>name</td>
<td>the basic object name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>pre-verb routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>post-verb routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noun</td>
<td>noun(s) for referring to object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adjective</td>
<td>adjective(s) for describing object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>article</td>
<td>“a”, “an”, “the”, “some”, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>preposition</td>
<td>“in”, “inside”, “outside of”, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pronoun</td>
<td>appropriate for the object in question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>react_before</td>
<td>to allow reaction by an object that is not directly involved in the action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>react_after</td>
<td>directly involved in the action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short_desc</td>
<td>basic “X is here” description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>initial_desc</td>
<td>supersedes short_desc (or long_desc for locations)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long_desc</td>
<td>detailed description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>found_in</td>
<td>in case of multiple locations (virtual, not physical parent objects\textsuperscript{18})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>type</td>
<td>to identify the type of object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size</td>
<td>for holding/inventory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capacity</td>
<td>“” “” “”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>holding</td>
<td>“” “” “”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reach</td>
<td>for limiting object accessibility</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>list_contents</td>
<td>for overriding normal listing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in_scope</td>
<td>actor(s) that can access an object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parse_rank</td>
<td>for differentiating like-named objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exclude_from_all</td>
<td>for interpreting “all” in player input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>door_to</td>
<td>for handling “&gt;ENTER &lt;object&gt;“</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>n_to</td>
<td>(for rooms only, where an exit leads)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>se_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sw_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nw_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cant_go</td>
<td>message if a direction is invalid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extra_scenery</td>
<td>unimportant words/objects in location desc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\textsuperscript{18} In this usage, a “physical” parent is one in the object tree. The \textit{found in} property allows you have an object considered in a location (i.e., a room object) without it being “physically” in that room object.
III. OBJECTS

Each turn

- a routine called each turn

Key object

- If lockable, the proper key

When open

- supersedes short_desc

When closed

- " "

Ignore response

- for characters

Order response

- " "

Contains desc

- Instead of basic “Inside X are...”

Inv desc

- For special inventory descriptions

Desc detail

- Parenthetical detail for object listing

Misc

- For miscellaneous use

(For a detailed description of how each property is used, see APPENDIX B: THE HUGO LIBRARY.)

The following properties are also defined and used exclusively by the display object:

- Screenwidth: width of the display, in characters
- Screenheight: height of the display, in characters
- Linelength: width of the current text window
- Windowlines: height of the current text window
- Cursor_column: horizontal and vertical position of the cursor in the current text window
- Cursor_row: true if the current display is graphics-capable
- Statusline_height: dictionary entry giving the full proper name of the program (optional)

Property names may be aliased similarly to attributes using:

- property <property2> alias <property1>

where <property1> has already been defined. The library aliases (among others) the following:

- Nouns alias noun
- Adjectives alias adjective
- Prep alias preposition
- Pronouns alias pronoun

Whereas a simple property is expressed as
<object>.<property>

The number of elements to a property with more than a single value can be found via

<object>.#<property>

and a single element is expressed as

<object>.<property> #<element number>

**Note:** `<object>.<property>` is simply the shortened version of `<object>.<property> #1`.

To add some properties to the suitcase object, expand the object definition to:

```plaintext
object mysuitcase "big green suitcase"
{
  in emptyroom    ! done earlier
  is openable, not open  !

  nouns "suitcase", "case", "luggage"
  adjective "big", "green", "suit"
  article "a"
  size 25
  capacity 100
}
```

Based on the parser’s rules for object identification, the suitcase object may now be referred to by the player as “big green suitcase”, “big case”, or “green suitcase” among other combinations. Even “big green” and “suit” may be valid, provided that these don’t also refer to other objects within valid scope such as “a big green apple” or “your suit jacket”.

The basic form for identification by the parser is

```plaintext
<adjective 1> <adj. 2> <adj. 3>...<adj. n> <noun>
```

where any subset of these elements is allowable. However, the noun must come last, and only one noun is recognized, so that

```plaintext
<noun> <noun>
```
and

<noun> <adjective>

as in “luggage case” and “suitcase green” are not recognized.

One occasional source of befuddling code that doesn’t behave the way the programmer intended is not allowing enough slots for a property on a given object. That is, if an object is originally defined with the property

found_in kitchen

and later, the program tries to set

<object>.found_in #2 = livingroom

in order to make the object available in both the kitchen and the living room, it will have no substantial effect. That is, there will be no space initialized in <object>’s property table for a second value under found_in. Trying to read <object>.found_in #2 will return a value of 0—a non-existent property—not the number of the livingroom object.

To overcome this, if it is known that eventually a second (or third, or fourth, or ninth) value is going to be set—even if only one value is defined at the outset—use

found_in kitchen, 0[, 0, 0, ...]

in the object definition. (A useful shortcut for initializing multiple zero values is to use

found_in #4

instead of

found_in 0, 0, 0, 0

where #n initializes n zero values in the object definition.)

As might be expected, combinations of properties are read left-to-right, so that

location.n_to.name
is understood as

\[(location.n_to).name\]

which is, in other words, the name property of the object stored in location.n_to.

III.e. Classes

Classes are objects that are specifically intended to be used as prototypes for one or more similar objects. They’re extremely useful for when you want to create a number of objects that will all share certain basic characteristics. Here is how a class is defined:

```hugo
class <classname> ["<optional name>"]
{
    ...
}
```

with the body of the definition being the same as that for an object definition, where the properties and attributes defined are to be the same for all members of the class.

For example:

```hugo
class box
{
    noun "box"
    long_desc
      "It looks like a regular old box."
    is openable, not open
}

box largebox "large box"
{
    article "a"
    adjectives "big", "large"
    is open
}

box greenbox "green box"
{
    article "a"
    adjective "green"
    long_desc
```
"It looks like a regular old box, only green."
}

(Beginning the long_desc property routine on the line below the property name is understood by the compiler as:

```cpp
long_desc
{
    "It looks like a regular old box, only green."
}
```

Since the property is only one line—a single line of text to print—the braces are unnecessary.)

The definition of an object derived from a particular class is begun with the name of the prototype object instead of object. All properties and attributes of the class are inherited (except for its position in the object tree), unless they have been explicitly defined in the new object (in which case they take precedence over any defaults defined in the class).

That is, although the box class is defined without the open attribute, the largebox object will begin the game as open, since this is in the largebox definition. It will begin the game as openable, as well, as this is inherited from the box class.

And while the largebox object will have the long_desc of the box class, the greenbox object replaces the default property routine with a new description. (An exception to this is an "$additive" property, to be discussed later, where new properties are added to those of previous classes.)

It is also possible to define an object using a previous object as a class even though the previous object was not explicitly defined as a class (using the class keyword). Therefore,

```cpp
largebox largeredbox "large red box"
{
    adjectives "big", "large", "red"
}
```

is perfectly valid. We created what amounts to a “copy” of largebox, with a different name (“large red box” this time) and a different set of adjectives to refer to it.

Occasionally, it may be necessary to have an object or class inherit from more than one previously defined class. This can be done using the "inherits" instruction.
<class1> <objectname> "name"
{
    inherits <class2>[, <class3>,...]
    ...
}

or even

object <objectname> "name"
{
    inherits <class1>, <class2>[, <class3>,...]
    ...
}

The precedence of inheritance is in the order of occurrence. In either example, the object inherits its properties and attributes first from <class1>, then from <class2>, and so on.

The Hugo Object Library (<objlib.h>) contains a number of useful class definitions for things like rooms, characters, scenery, vehicles, etc. Sometimes, however, it may be desirable to use a different definition for, say, the room class while keeping all the others in the Object Library.

Instead of actually editing <objlib.h>19, use:

replace <class> ["<optional name>"]
{
    (...completely new object definition...)
}

where <class> is the name of a previously defined object or class, such as "room". All subsequent references to <class> will use this object instead of the previously defined one. (Note that this means that the replacement must come before20 any uses of the class as the parent class for other objects.)

---

19 Editing the library files is generally not recommended, and not only because you’ll have to re-apply your changes if you update to a newer release of the library. If you absolutely must change one of the library files, make a copy first.
20 In terms of order-of-inclusion.
III. OBJECTS

III.f. What Should I Be Able To Do Now?

By now you should:

• be able to create simple objects and add them to an existing game—whether an empty game based on shell.hug or a copy of sample.hug complete with existing objects and locations;

• experiment by adding new objects, giving them different names and starting locations as well as nouns and adjectives to describe them, assigning new property values or modifying existing ones, setting different attributes, etc.;

• have a basic understanding of how the object tree works in terms of how objects are arranged within the physical world of the game, including rooms or locations, objects within those locations, and objects within other objects.
IV. HUGO PROGRAMMING

IV.a. Variables

What is a variable, exactly? Let’s start with the difference between a constant value and a variable value. The number 6 is a constant: we can’t change it. We can’t tell the program: “In this particular circumstance, let’s treat this 6 like it was actually 21.” Consider a situation, however, where we may want to record a particular value at one point in order to refer to it later. In other words, we may want to use a value that we won’t know at the time we write the code that will be using it.

Here’s a piece of code that, as we’ll see shortly, prints a single line of output with a number in the middle:

    print "The temperature is "; number temp; " degrees."

That statement may print

    The temperature is 10 degrees.

or

    The temperature is –9 degrees.

or any other similar variation depending on what the variable temp happens to be equal to at the time.\footnote{Those readers who weren’t already aware of variables and their usage may at this point be starting to have high-school algebra flashbacks. That’s because we’re talking about the same concept—but, promise, no one is going to be asked to solve any quadratic equations.}

Hugo supports two kinds of variables: \textit{global} and \textit{local}. Either type simply holds an integer value, so a variable can hold a simple value, an object number, a dictionary address, a routine address, or any other standard Hugo data type through an assignment such as:

\begin{verbatim}
21
\end{verbatim}
IV. HUGO PROGRAMMING

a = 1
nextobj = parent(obj)
temp_word = "the"

Global variables are visible throughout the program. They must be defined similarly to properties and attributes as

\[
global \ <\text{<global variable name>}[\ = \ <\text{initial value}>]\]

Local variables, on the other hand, are recognized only within the routine in which they are defined. They are defined using

\[
local \ <\text{<local variable name>}[\ = \ <\text{initial value}>]\]

Global variables must of course have a unique name, different from that of any other data object; local variables, on the other hand, may share the names of local variables in other routines.

In either case, global or local, the default initial value is 0 if no other value is given. For example,

\[
global \ time\_of\_day = 1100
\]

is equal to 1100 when the program is run, and is visible at any point in the program, by any object or routine. On the other hand, the variables

\[
local \ a, \ max = 100, \ t
\]

are visible only within the block of code where they are defined, and are initialized to 0, 100, and 0, respectively, each time that section of code (be it a routine, property routine, event, etc.) is run.

The compiler defines a set of engine globals: global variables that are referenced directly by the engine, but which may otherwise be treated like any other global variables. These are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>variable</th>
<th>description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>object</td>
<td>direct object of an action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xobject</td>
<td>indirect object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self</td>
<td>self-referential object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words</td>
<td>total number of words in command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>player</td>
<td>the player object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actor</td>
<td>the player, or character obj. (for scripts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verbroutine</td>
<td>specified by the command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>location</td>
<td>location of the player object</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
endflag  if not false (0), run EndGame routine
prompt  for input; default is “>”
objects  the total number of objects
system_status  after certain operations

The object, xobject, and verbroutine globals are set up by the engine depending on what command is entered by the player. The self global is undefined except when an object is being referenced (as in a property routine or event). In that case, it is set to the number of that object. The player variable holds the number of the object that the player is controlling; the endflag variable must be 0 unless something has occurred to end the game; and the prompt variable represents the dictionary word appearing at the start of an input line (which most programs set to “>” by convention).

The objects variable can be set by the program, but to no useful effect. The engine will reset it to the “real” value whenever referenced. (All object numbers range from 0 to the value of objects.) The system_status variable may be read (after a resource operation or a system call; see the relevant sections for an explanation of these functions) to check for an error value. See the section on “Resources” for possible return values.

Note: Setting endflag to a non-zero value forces an immediate break from the game loop. Statements following the endflag assignment even in the same function are not executed; control is passed directly to the engine, which calls the EndGame routine.

IV.b. Constants

Constants are simply labels that represent a non-modifiable value.

  constant FIRST_NAME "John"
  constant LAST_NAME "Smith"

(Note the lack of an ‘=’ sign between, for example, FIRST_NAME and “John”.)

  print LAST_NAME; ", "; FIRST_NAME

results in:

    Smith, John
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Constants can, like any other Hugo data type, be integers, dictionary entries, object numbers, etc.

It is not absolutely necessary that a constant be given a definite value if the constant is to be used as some sort of flag or marker, etc. Therefore,

\[
\text{constant THIS\_RESULT} \\
\text{constant THAT\_RESULT}
\]

will have unique values from each other, as well as from any other constant defined without a specific value.

Sometimes it may be useful to enumerate a series of constants in sequence. Instead of defining them all individually, it is possible to use:

\[
\text{enumerate start = 1} \\
\{ \\
\text{MONDAY, TUESDAY, WEDNESDAY, THURSDAY, FRIDAY} \\
\}
\]

giving:

\[
\text{MONDAY = 1, TUESDAY = 2, WEDNESDAY = 3, THURSDAY = 4, FRIDAY = 5}
\]

The start value is optional. If omitted, it is 0. Also, it is possible to change the current value at any point (therefore also affecting all following values).

\[
\text{enumerate} \\
\{ \\
\text{A, B, C = 5, D, E} \\
\}
\]

giving:

\[
\text{A = 0, B = 1, C = 5, D = 6, E = 7.}
\]

Finally, it is possible to alter the step value of the enumeration using the step keyword followed by \(+n\), \(-n\), \(*n\), or \(/n\), where \(n\) is a constant integer value. To start with 1 and count by multiples of two:

\[
\text{enumerate step \(*2\)} \\
\{ \\
\text{A = 1, B, C, D} \\
\}
\]
giving:

\[
A = 1, \ B = 2, \ C = 4, \ D = 8.
\]

Enumeration of global variables is also possible, using the `globals` specifier, as in:

```hugo
enumerate globals
{
    <global1>, <global2>, ...
}
```

Otherwise the specifier “`constants`” (as opposed to “`globals`”) is implied as the default.

**IV.c. Printing Text**

Text can be printed—that is, output to the screen during running of a Hugo program—using two different methods. The first is the basic `print` command, the simplest form of which is

```hugo
print "<string>"
```

where `<string>` consists of a series of alphanumeric characters and punctuation.

The backslash character (‘\’) is handled specially. It modifies how the character following it in a string is treated. 22

- `\"` inserts quotation marks
- `\\` insert a literal backslash character
- `\_` insert a forced space, overriding left-justification for the rest of the string
- `\n` insert a forced newline

As usual, a single ‘\’ at the end of a line signals that the line continues with the following line.

**Examples:**

---

22 These formatting combinations are valid for printing only; they are not treated as literal characters, as in, for example, expressions involving dictionary entries. Note also that (unlike in languages such as C) formatting sequences such as “\n” are treated as two characters in a string.
 IV. HUGO PROGRAMMING

print '"Hello!"'
"Hello!"

print "Print a...\n...newline"
Print a...
...newline

print "One\two\three"
One\two\three

print "    _   Left-justified"
print "    _  Not left-justified"

Left-justified
    Not left-justified

print "This is a \
    single line."
This is a single line.

(Although

print "This is a 
    single line."

will produce the same result, since the line break occurs within quotation marks.)

After each of the above print commands, a newline is printed. To avoid this, append a semicolon (';') to the end of the print statement.

print "This is a ";

print "single line."

This is a single line.

Print statements may also contain data types, or a combination of data types and strings. The command

print "The "; object.name; " is closed."
will print the word located at the dictionary address specified by `object.name`, so that if `object.name` points to the word “box”, the resulting output would be:

```
The box is closed.
```

To capitalize the first letter of the specified word, use the `capital` modifier.

```
print "The "; capital object.name; " is closed."
```

```
The Box is closed.
```

To print the data type as a value instead of referencing the dictionary, use the `number` modifier. For example, if the variable `time` holds the value 5,

```
print "There are "; number time; " seconds remaining."
```

```
There are 5 seconds remaining.
```

If `number` were not used, the engine would try to find a word at the dictionary address 5, and the result will likely be garbage.

Mainly for debugging purposes, the modifier `hex` prints the data type as a hexadecimal number instead of a decimal one. If the variable `val` equals 127,

```
print number val; " is "; hex val; " in hexadecimal."
```

```
127 is 7F in hexadecimal.
```

The second way to print text is from the text bank, from which—if memory is in short supply—sections are loaded from disk only when they are needed by the program. This method is provided so that lengthy blocks of text—such as description and narration—do not take up valuable space if memory is limited. The command consists simply of a quoted string without any preceding statement.

```
"This string would be written to disk."
```

```
This string would be written to disk.
```

or

```
"So would this one ";
"and this one."
```
So would this one and this one.

Notice that a semicolon at the end of the statement still overrides the newline. The in-string formatting combinations are still usable with these print statements, but since each statement is a single line, data types and other modifiers may not be compounded. Because of that,

"\"Hello,\"" he said."

will write

“Hello,” he said.

to the .HEX file text bank, but

"There are "; number time_left; " seconds remaining." is illegal.

The color of text may be changed using the color command (also valid with the U.K. spelling colour). The format is

```
color <foreground>[, <background>[, <input color>]]
```

where the background color is not necessary. If no background color is specified, the current one is assumed. The input color is also not necessary—this refers to the color of player input and, if not given, is the same as the foreground color.

The standard color set with corresponding values and constant labels (defined in hugolib.h) is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COLOR</th>
<th>VALUE</th>
<th>LABEL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>BLACK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blue</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>BLUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Green</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>GREEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyan</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>CYAN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Red</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>RED</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Magenta</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>MAGENTA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brown</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>BROWN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>WHITE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dark gray</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>DARK_GRAY</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light blue</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>LIGHT_BLUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light green</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>LIGHT_GREEN</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Light cyan</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>LIGHT_CYAN</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The labels are defined in hugolib.h, when using the library, it is never necessary to refer to a color by its numerical value.)

It is expected that, regardless of the system, any color will print visibly on any other color. Video technology and shortcomings of the visible light spectrum conspire to foil this plan, however, it is suggested for practicality that white (and less frequently bright white) be used for most text-printing. Blue and black are fairly standard background colors for light-colored (such as white) text—this is a common combination for default text (as is dark text, such as black, on a white background). A game author can use the DEF_FOREGROUND, DEF_BACKGROUND, DEF_SL_FOREGROUND, and DEF_SL_BACKGROUND colors (as is done in sample.hug and is the default in shell.hug) since this uses the colors supplied by the Hugo Engine, allowing the user to change colors to his or her liking if the port supports that capability.

Magenta printing on a cyan background is accomplished by

    color MAGENTA, CYAN

or

    color 5, 3  ! if not using HUGOLIB.H

A current line can be filled—with blank spaces in the current color—to a specified column (essentially a tab stop) using the "print to..." structure as follows:

    print "Time:"; to 40; "Date:"

where the value following to does not exceed the maximum line length in the engine global linelength.

The resulting output will be something like:

    Time:      Date:
Text can be specifically located using the `locate` command via

```
locate <column>, <row>
```

where

```
locate 1, 1
```

places text output at the top left corner of the current text window. Neither `<column>` nor `<row>` may exceed the current window boundaries—the engine will automatically constrain them as necessary.

### IV.d. More Formatting Sequences

As listed above, the following are valid printing sequences that may be embedded in printed strings:

```
"    quotation marks
\"   a literal backslash character
_    a forced space, overriding left-justification for the rest of the string
\n   a newline
```

The next set of formatting sequences control the appearance of printed text by turning on and off boldface, italic, proportional, and underlined printing. Not all computers and operating systems are able to provide all types of printed output; however, the engine can be relied upon to properly process any formatting—i.e., proportionally printed text will still look fine even on a system that has only a fixed-width font, such as a Unix text terminal or DOS output (although, of course, it won’t be proportionally spaced).

```
\B    boldface on
\b    boldface off
\I    italics on
\i    italics off
\P    proportional printing on
\p    proportional printing off
\U    underlining on
\u    underlining off
```

A statement like the following:
"A \textbf{bold string with some \textit{italics} and \underline{underline} thrown in.}\"  

will result in output like:  

A \textbf{bold string with some \textit{italics} and \underline{underline} thrown in.}.  

Print style can also be changed using the \texttt{Font} routine in \texttt{hugolib.h}, so that in  

\texttt{Font(<font\ change\ code>)}  

\texttt{the <font\ change\ code> can be one or more of:}  

\begin{itemize}  
\item \texttt{BOLD\_ON} \texttt{\ BOLD\_OFF}  
\item \texttt{ITALICS\_ON} \texttt{\ ITALICS\_OFF}  
\item \texttt{UNDERLINE\_ON} \texttt{\ UNDERLINE\_OFF}  
\end{itemize}  

and can subsequently be used alone or in combination such as:  

\texttt{Font(BOLD\_ON \mid ITALICS\_ON \mid PROP\_OFF)}  

It’s preferable to rely on the \texttt{Font} function and the various font constants instead of embedding multiple font-change formatting sequences because if for no other reason than it being clearer to understand when reading the source code.  

Special characters can also be printed via formatting sequences. Note that these characters are contained in the Latin-1 character set; if a particular system is incapable of displaying it, it will display the normal-ASCII equivalent. (The following examples, appearing in parentheses, may not display properly on all computers and printers.)  

\begin{itemize}  
\item \texttt{\`} accent grave \texttt{\ followed by a letter} \texttt{\ \ \ \ e.g. "\`a" will print an ‘a’ with an accent grave (à)}  
\item \texttt{\’} accent acute \texttt{\ followed by a letter} \texttt{\ \ \ \ e.g. "\’E" will print an ‘E’ with an accent acute (É)}  
\item \texttt{\~} tilda \texttt{\ followed by a letter}  
\end{itemize}
e.g. “\~n” will print an ‘n’ with a tilde (ñ)

\^ circumflex followed by a letter
e.g. “\^i” will print an ‘i’ with a circumflex (î)

\: umlaut followed by a letter
e.g. “\:u” will print a ‘u’ with an umlaut (ü)

\, cedilla followed by c or C
e.g. “\,c” will print a ‘c’ with a cedilla (ç)

\< or \> Spanish quotation marks (« »)
\! upside-down exclamation point (¡)
\? upside-down question mark (¿)
\ae ae ligature (æ)
\AE AE ligature (Æ)
\c cents symbol (¢)
\L British pound (£)
\Y Japanese Yen (¥)

\#xxx any ASCII or Latin-1 character where xxx represents the three-digit ASCII number (or Latin-1 code) of the character to be printed, e.g. “\#065” will print an ‘A’ (ASCII 65) (Care should be taken when using codes other than those for which special character support explicitly exists, as not all systems or fonts may display all desired non-ASCII characters.)

Note: It is possible to embed Latin-1 characters directly into printed text in source code using a text editor that allows it—but ensure that the non-ASCII characters are indeed Latin-1. Using non-Latin-1 fonts (such as Mac-encoded fonts or other encodings) will result in the wrong character(s) being printed on various platforms. Also note that platforms which cannot display Latin-1 characters (including some Unix-based terminal displays, DOS windows, etc.) may not have proper Latin-1-to-ASCII translation in order to decode Latin-1 characters embedded directly in printed text. For this reason, or if you’re not positive whether your font encoding is Latin-1, stick to using the special-character sequences described above, which are guaranteed to work properly across platforms.
IV.e. Operators and Assignments

Hugo allows use of all standard mathematical operators:

* multiplication
/ integer division

which take precedence over:

+ addition
- subtraction

Comparisons are also valid as operators, returning Boolean true or false (1 or 0) so that

\[
2 + (n = 1) \\
5 - (n > 1)
\]

evaluate respectively to 3 and 5 if \( n \) is 1, and 2 and 4 if \( n \) is 2 or greater. Valid relational operators are

= equal to
~= not equal to
< less than
> greater than
<= less than or equal to
>= greater than or equal to

Logical operators (and, or, and not) are also allowed.

\[
(x \text{ and } y) \text{ or } (a \text{ and } b) \\
(j + 5) \text{ and not ObjectisLight}(k)
\]

Using and results in true (1) if both values are non-zero. Using or results in true if either is non-zero; not results in true only if the following value is zero.

\[
1 \text{ and } 1 = 1 \\
1 \text{ and } 0 = 0 \\
5 \text{ and } 3 = 1 \\
0 \text{ and } 9 = 0 \\
0 \text{ and } 169 \text{ and } 1 = 0
\]

---

23 Hugo follows standard order of operations for operator precedence.
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1 and 12 and 1233 = 1
1 or 1 = 1
35 or 0 = 1
0 or 0 = 0

not 0 = 1
not 1 = 0
not 8 = 0
not (8 and 0) = 1

1 and 7 or (14 and not 0) = 1
(0 or not 1) and 3 = 0

Additionally, bitwise operators are provided:

1 & 1 = 1 (Bitwise and)
1 & 0 = 0

1 | 0 = 1 (Bitwise or)
1 | 1 = 1

~0 = -1 (Bitwise not/inverse)

(As mentioned previously, a detailed explanation of bitwise operations is a little beyond the scope of this manual; programmers may occasionally use the ‘|’ operator to combine bitmask-type parameters for certain library functions such as fonts and list-formats, but only advanced users should have to worry about employing bitwise operators to any great extent in practical programming.)

Any Hugo data type can appear in an expression, including routines, attribute tests, properties, constants, and variables. Standard mathematical rules for order of significance in evaluating an expression apply, so that parenthetical sub-expressions are evaluated first, followed by multiplication and division, followed by addition and subtraction.

Some sample combinations are:

10 + object.size ! integer constant and
! property

object is openable + 1 ! attribute test and constant

FindLight(location) + a ! return value and variable
1 and object is light ! constant, logical test, 
! and attribute

Expressions can be evaluated and assigned to either a variable, a property, or an array element.

<variable> = <expression>
<object>.<property> [#<element>] = <expression>
<array>[<element>] = <expression>

IV.f. Efficient Operators

Something like

number_of_items = number_of_items + 1
if number_of_items > 10
{
    print "Too many items!"
}

can be coded more simply as

if ++number_of_items > 10
{
    print "Too many items!"
}

The ‘++’ operator increases the following variable by one before returning the value of the variable. Similarly, ‘--’ can precede a variable to decrease the value by one before returning it. Since these operators act before the value is returned, they are called “pre-increment” and “pre-decrement”.

If ‘++’ or ‘--’ comes after a variable, the value of the variable is returned and then the value is increased or decreased, respectively. In this usage, the operators are called “post-increment” and “post-decrement”.

For example,

while ++i < 5       ! pre-increment
{
    print number i; " ";
}
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will output:

    1 2 3 4

But

    while i++ < 5 ! post-increment
    {
        print number i; " ";
    }

will output:

    1 2 3 4 5

Since in the second example, the variable is increased before getting the value, while in the second example, it is increased after checking it.

It is also possible to use the operators ‘+=’, ‘-=’, ‘*=’, ‘/=’, ‘&=’, and ‘|=’. These can also be used to modify a variable at the same time its value is being checked. All of these, however, operate before the value in question is returned.

    x = 5
    y = 10
    print "x = "; number (x*=y); ", y = "; number y

Result:

    x = 50, y = 10

When the compiler is processing any of the above lines, the efficient operator takes precedence over a normal (i.e., single-character) operator. For example,

    x = y + ++z

is actually compiled as

    x = y++ + z

since the ‘++’ is parsed first. To properly code this line with a pre-increment on the z variable instead of a post-increment on y, use parentheses to order the various operators:

    x = y + (++z)
IV.g. **Arrays And Strings**

Prior to this point, little has been said about arrays. Arrays are sets of values that share a common name, and where the elements are referenced by number. Arrays are defined by

\[
\text{array } \langle\text{array name}\rangle [\langle\text{array size}\rangle]
\]

where \(\langle\text{array size}\rangle\) must be a numerical constant.

An array definition reserves a block of memory of \(\langle\text{array size}\rangle^{24}\), so that, for example,

\[
\text{array test_array[10]}
\]

reserves ten possible storage elements for the array.

Keep in mind that \(\langle\text{array size}\rangle\) determines the size of the array, not the maximum element number. Elements begin counting at 0, so that \(\text{test_array}\), with 10 elements, has members numbered from 0 to 9. Trying to access \(\text{test_array[10]}\) or higher will return a zero value (and, if running in the debugger, cause a debugger warning). Trying to assign it by mistake will have no effect.

To prevent such out-of-bounds array reading/writing, an array’s length may be read via:

\[
\text{array[]}
\]

where no element number is specified. Using the above example,

\[
\text{print number test_array[]}
\]

would result in “10”.

Array elements can be assigned more than one at a time, as in

\[
\langle\text{array name}\rangle = \langle\text{element1}\rangle, \langle\text{element2}\rangle, \ldots
\]

where \(\langle\text{element1}\rangle\) and \(\langle\text{element2}\rangle\) can be expressions or single values. Elements need not be all of the same type, either, so that

\[
\text{test_array[0]} = (10+5), \ "Hello!", \ \text{FindLight(location)}
\]

\[24\] Measured in 16-bit words, or 2 bytes per element.
is perfectly legal (although perhaps not perfectly useful). More common is a usage like

```plaintext
names[0] = "Ned", "Sue", "Bob", "Maria"
```
or

```plaintext
test_array[2] = 5, 4, 3, 2, 1
```
The array can then be accessed by

```plaintext
print names[0]; " and "; names[3]
```

Ned and Maria

or

```plaintext
```
which would set the variable `b` to `4 + 2`, or `6`.

Because array space is statically allocated by the compiler, all arrays must be declared at the global level. Local arrays are illegal, as are entire arrays passed as arguments. However, single elements of arrays are valid arguments.

It is, however, possible to pass an array address as an argument, and the routine can then access the elements of the array using the `array` modifier. For example, if `items` is an array containing:

```plaintext
items[0] = "apples"
items[1] = "oranges"
items[2] = "socks"
```
The following:

```plaintext
routine Test(v)
{
    print array v[2]
}
```
can be called using

```plaintext
Test(items)
```

25 “Arguments” are simply parameters passed to a routine at calling time. See V.a Routines.
to produce the output

    socks

even though \( v \) is an argument (i.e., local variable), and technically not an array. The line

    print array v[2]

tells the engine to treat \( v \) as an array address, so that we can follow it with [\langle element number\rangle].

Arrays also allow a Hugo programmer to implement what are known as string arrays, which are textual strings, somewhat similar but not identical to dictionary entries. Most significantly, since they are arrays, string arrays may be altered at runtime by a program (unlike dictionary entries, which are hard-coded into the program’s dictionary). A string array is an array containing a series of character values, terminated by a zero value.

If the array \( \text{apple\_array} \) holds the string array “apple”, the actual elements of \( \text{apple\_array} \) look like:

    apple_array[0] = 'a'
    apple_array[1] = 'p'
    apple_array[2] = 'p'
    apple_array[3] = 'l'
    apple_array[4] = 'e'
    apple_array[5] = 0

Hugo provides a handy way to store a dictionary entry in an array as a series of characters using the \string built-in function:

    string(<array address>, <dict. entry>, <max. length>)

For example,

    string(a, word[1], 10)

will store up to 10 characters from \( \text{word}[1] \) into the array \( a \).

Note: It is expected in the preceding example that \( a \) would have at least 11 elements, since \string expects to store a terminating 0 after the string itself.
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It’s not necessary to look at the return value from `string`, but it can be useful, since it lets us know how many characters were written to the string. For example,

```
x = string(a, "microscopic", 10)
```

will store up to 10 characters of "microscopic" in the array `a`, and return the length of the stored string to the variable `x`.

The Hugo Library defines the functions `StringCopy`, `StringEqual`, `StringLength`, and `StringPrint`, which are extremely useful when dealing with string arrays.

`StringCopy` copies one string array to another array.

```
StringCopy(<new array>, <old array>[, <length>])
```

For example,

```
StringCopy(a, b)
```

copies the contents of `b` to `a`, while

```
StringCopy(a, b, 5)
```

copies only up to 5 characters of `b` to `a`.

```
x = StringEqual(<string1>, <string2>)
x = StringCompare(<string1>, <string2>)
```

`StringEqual` returns true only if the two specified string arrays are identical. `StringCompare` returns 1 if `<string1>` is lexically greater than `<string2>`, -1 if `<string1>` is lexically less than `<string2>`, and 0 if the two strings are identical.

`StringLength` returns the length of a string array, as in:

```
len = StringLength(a)
```

and `StringPrint` prints a string array (or part of it).

```
StringPrint(<array address>[, <start>, <end>])
```

---

26 (The built-in engine variables ‘parse$’ and ‘serial$’ may be used in place of the dictionary entry address; see VII.b The Parser for a description.)
For example, if the array \( a \) contains “presto”,

\[
\text{StringPrint}(a)
\]

will print “presto”, but

\[
\text{StringPrint}(a, 1, 4)
\]

will print “res”. (The \(<\text{start}>\) parameter in the first example defaults to 0, not 1—remember that the first numbered element in an array is 0.)

An interesting side-effect of being able to pass array addresses as arguments is that it is possible to “cheat” the address, so that, for example,

\[
\text{StringCopy}(a, b+2)
\]

will copy \( b \) to \( a \), beginning with the third letter of \( b \) (since the first letter of \( b \) is \( b[0] \)).

It should also be kept in mind that string arrays and dictionary entries are two entirely separate animals, and that comparing them directly is not possible. That is, while a dictionary entry is a simple value representing an address, a string array is a series of values each representing a character in the string.

The library provides the following to overcome this:

\[
\text{StringDictCompare}(\text{<array>}, \text{<dict. entry>})
\]

which returns the same values \((1, -1, 0)\) as \(\text{StringCompare}\), depending on whether the string array is lexically greater than, less than, or equal to the dictionary entry.

There is also a complement to \(\text{string}\): the \(\text{dict}\) built-in function, that dynamically creates a new dictionary entry at runtime. Its syntax is:

\[
\begin{align*}
x &= \text{dict}(\text{<array>}, \text{<maxlen>}) \\
x &= \text{dict}(\text{parse$}, \text{<maxlen>})
\end{align*}
\]

where the contents of \(\text{<array>}\) or \(\text{parse}$\) are written into the dictionary, to a maximum of \(\text{<maxlen>}\) characters, and the address of the new word is returned.

However, since this requires extending the actual length of the dictionary table in the game file, it is necessary to provide for this during compilation. Inserting

\[
\$\text{MAXDICTEXTEND}=\text{<number>}
\]
at the start of the source file will write a buffer of <number> empty bytes at the end of the dictionary. (MAXDICTEXTEND is, by default, 0.)

Dynamic dictionary extension is used primarily in situations where the player may be able to, for example, name an object, then refer to that object by the new name, or whenever the game needs to introduce new words into the dictionary that are not known at compile-time. However, a guideline for programmers is that there should be a limit to how many new words the program or player can cause to be created, so that the total length of the new entries never exceeds <number>, keeping in mind that the length of an entry is the number of characters plus one (the byte representing the actual length). That is, the word “test” requires 5 bytes.)

IV.h. Conditional Expressions and Program Flow

Program flow can be controlled using a variety of constructions, each of which is built around an expression that evaluates to false (zero) or non-false (non-zero).

The most basic of these is the if statement.

```plaintext
if <expression>
  { ...conditional code block... }
```

The enclosing braces are not necessary if the code block is a single line. Note also that the conditional block may begin (and even end) on the same line as the if statement provided that braces are used.

```plaintext
if <expression>
  ...single line...

if <expression> { ...conditional code block... }
```

If braces are not used for a single line, the compiler automatically inserts them, although special care must be taken when constructing a block of code nesting several single-line conditionals. While

```plaintext
if <expression1>
  if <expression2>
    ...conditional code block...
```

may be properly interpreted, other constructions (particularly those involving some of the more complex program-flow concepts we’re about to get into) may
not be. Therefore, it’s always best to be as clear as possible about your intent, more along the lines of:

```cpp
if <expression1>
{
    if <expression2>
    ...conditional code block...
}
```

More elaborate uses of `if` involve the use of `elseif` and `else`.

```cpp
if <expression1>
    ...first conditional code block...
elseif <expression2>
    ...second conditional code block...
elseif <expression3>
    ...third conditional code block...
...
else
    ...default code block...
```

In this case, the engine evaluates each expression until it finds one that is true, and then executes it. Control then passes to the next non-`if`/`elseif`/`else` statement following the conditional construction. If no true expression is found, the default code block is executed. If, for example, `<expression1>` evaluates to a non-false value, then none of the following expressions are tested.

Of course, all three (`if`, `elseif`, and `else`) need not be used every time, and simple `if-elseif` and `if-else` combinations are perfectly valid.

In certain cases, the `if` statement may not lend itself perfectly to clarity, and the `select-case` construction may be more appropriate. The general form is:

```cpp
select <var>
    case <value1>[, <value2>, ...]
        ...first conditional code block...
    case <value3>[, <value4>, ...]
        ...second conditional code block...
    ...
    case else
        ..default code block... 27
```

27 C programmers are used to cases that “fall through” to the next case unless explicitly told not to do so; such is not the case with Hugo.
In this case, the evaluation is essentially

\[
\text{if } \langle \text{var} \rangle = \langle \text{value1} \rangle \text{ [or } \langle \text{var} \rangle = \langle \text{value2} \rangle \ldots]\]

There is no limit on the number of values (separated by commas) that can appear on a line following `case`. The same rules for bracing multiple-line code blocks apply as with `if` (as well as for every other type of conditional block).

Basic loops may be coded using `while` and `do-while`.

```plaintext
while \langle \text{expression} \rangle
\ldots \text{conditional code block}\ldots

do
\ldots \text{conditional code block}\ldots
while \langle \text{expression} \rangle
```

Each of these executes the conditional code block as long as \langle \text{expression} \rangle holds true. It is assumed that the code block somehow alters \langle \text{expression} \rangle so that at some point it will become false; otherwise the loop will execute endlessly.

```plaintext
while \langle \text{expression} \rangle
{ x = x + 1
  print "x is "; number x
}
do
{ x = x + 1
  print "x is "; number x
} while x <= 10
```

The only difference between the two is that if \langle \text{expression} \rangle is false at the outset, the `while` code block will never run. The `do-while` code block will run at least once even if \langle \text{expression} \rangle is false at the outset.

It is also important to recognize— with `while` or `do-while` loops—that the expression is tested each time the loop executes. The most important side effect of this is that if you’re doing something in the expression that has some

\[\text{Okay, this isn't quite true. While there isn’t an explicit limit, if you create a single ‘case’ line that runs on forever and ever, eventually you’ll reach the point where, for buffer reasons, the compiler isn’t able to compile it, and it will complain with an appropriate error.}\]
effect—whether printing something, calling a function, or modifying some other value—this will happen every time the expression is evaluated.

The most complex loop construction uses the for statement:

\[
\text{for (<assignment>; <expression>; <modifier>)}
\]

...conditional code block...

For example:

\[
\text{for (i=1; i<=15; i=i+1)}
\]
\[
\text{print "i is equal to: "; number i}
\]

First, the engine executes the assignment setting “i = 1”. Next, it checks to see if the expression holds true (if i is less than or equal to 15). If it does, it executes the print statement and the modifying assignment that increments i. It continues the loop until the expression tests false.

Not all elements of the for construction are necessary. For example, the assignment may be omitted, as in

\[
\text{for (; i<=15; i=i+1)}
\]

and the engine will simply use the existing value of i, whatever it was before this point. With

\[
\text{for (i=1;;i=i+1)}
\]

the loop will execute endlessly, unless some other means of exit is provided.

The modifying expression does not have to be an arithmetic expression as shown above. It may be a routine that modifies a global variable, for example, which is then tested by the for loop.

A second form of a for loop is:

\[
\text{for <var> in <object>}
\]

...conditional code block...

which loops through all the children of <object> (if any), setting the variable <var> to the object number of each child in sequence, so that

\[
\text{for i in mysuitcase}
\]
\[
\text{print i.name}
\]

will print the names of each object in the mysuitcase object.
Hugo also supports `jump` commands and labels. A label is simply a user-specified token preceded by a colon (`:`) at the beginning of a line. The label name must be a unique token in the program.\(^{29}\)

```plaintext
print "We're about to make a jump."
jump NextLine
print "This will never get printed."
:NextLine
print "But this will."
```

One final concept is important in program flow, and that is `break`. At any point during a loop, it may be necessary to exit immediately (and probably prematurely). The `break` statement passes control to the statement immediately following the current loop. In the example:

```plaintext
do
{
while <expression2>
{
...
if <expression3>
break
...
}
...
}
while <expression1>
```

the `break` causes the immediately running `while <expression2>` loop to terminate, even if `<expression2>` is true. However, the external `do-while <expression1>` loop continues to run.

It has been previously stated that lines ending in `and` or `or` are continued onto the next line in the case of long conditional expressions. A second useful provision is the ability to use a comma to separate options within a conditional expression. As a result,

```plaintext
if word[1] = "one", "two", "three"
```

while object is open, not locked

\(^{29}\) The `jump` keyword is more or less equivalent to `goto` in other languages. The reason it's different in Hugo is mainly to encourage the use of the proper alternatives (i.e., `for` and `while` or `do-while` loops) in keeping with proper programming practices. And, in the end, less `jumps` and labels make for far more readable code.
if box not in livingroom, garage

if a ~= 1, 2, 3

are interpreted as:

if word[1]="one" or word[1]="two" or word[1]="three"

while object is open and object is not locked

if box not in livingroom and box not in garage

if a ~= 1 and a ~= 1 and a ~= 3

respectively.

Note that with an ‘=’ or in comparison, a comma results in an or comparison. With ‘~=' or an attribute comparison, the result is an and comparison. The compiler looks after this translation for you.
IV. HUGO PROGRAMMING

IV.i. What Should I Be Able To Do Now?

Example: Mixing Text Styles

! Sample to print various typefaces/colors:

```
#include "hugolib.h"

routine main
{
    print "Text may be printed in \Bboldface\b, \Iitalics\i, \Uunderlined\u, or \Pproportional\p typefaces."

    color RED    ! or color 4
    print "\nGet ready.  ";
    color YELLOW  ! color 14
    print "Get set.  ";
    color GREEN   ! color 2
    print "Go!"
}
```

The output will be:

Text may be printed in **boldface**, *italics*, **underlined**, or proportional typefaces.

Get ready.  Get set.  Go!

with “boldface”, “italics”, “underlined”, and “proportional” printed in their respective typefaces. “Get ready”, “Get set”, and “Go!” will all appear on the same line in three different colors.

Note that not all computers will be able to print all typefaces. The basic Unix and MS-DOS ports, for example, use color changes instead of actual typeface changes, and do not support proportional printing.

Example: Managing Strings

```
#include "hugolib.h"

routine main
```
{  
  StringTests
  return
}

array s1[32]
array s2[10]
array s3[10]

routine StringTests
{
  local a, len
  a = "This is a sample string."
  len = string(s1, a, 31)
  string(s2, "Apple", 9)
  string(s3, "Tomato", 9)

  print "a = " a "\n"
  print "(Dictionary address:  "; number a; ")"
  print "s1 contains " s1; "\n"
  print "(Array address:  "; number s1; ")"
  print "s2 is " s2; "\n"
  print "s3 is " s3; "\n"

  StringCompare(s1, s2) = ";
  print number StringCompare(s1, s2)
  "StringCompare(s1, s3) = ";
  print number StringCompare(s1, s3)
}

The output will be:

  a = "This is a sample string."
  (Dictionary address = 887)
  s1 contains "This is a sample string."
  (Array address = 1625, length = 24)
  s2 is "Apple", s3 is "Tomato"

  StringCompare(s1, s2) = 1
  StringCompare(s1, s3) = -1

As is evident above, a dictionary entry does not need to be a single word; any piece of text which is referred to by the program as a value gets entered into the dictionary table.
The argument 31 in the first call to the `string` function allows up to 31 characters from `a` to be copied to `s1`, but since the length of `a` is only 24 characters, only 25 values (including the terminating 0) get copied, and the string length of `s1` is returned in `len`.

Since “A(pple)” is lexically less than “T(his...)”, comparing the two returns -1. As “To(mato)” is lexically greater than “Th(is...)”, `StringCompare` returns 1.
V. ROUTINES AND EVENTS

V.a. Routines

Routines are blocks of code that may be called at any point in a program. A routine may or may not return a value, and it may or may not require a list of parameters or arguments. (Some different uses of routines have already been encountered in previous examples, but here is the formal explication.) Routines are also sometimes referred to as subroutines or functions, the latter particularly when they’re returning a value, i.e., performing some function and reporting the result.

A routine is defined as:

```
routine <routinename> [(<arg1>, <arg2>, ...)]
{
    ...
}
```

once again ensuring that the opening brace (‘{’) comes on a new line following the routine specifier.

**Note:** To substitute a new routine for an existing one with the same name (such as in a library file), define the new one using replace instead of routine.

```
replace <routinename> [(<arg1>, <arg2>, ...)]
```

An example of a simple routine definition is:

```
routine TestRoutine(obj)
{
    print "The "; obj.name; " has a size of ";
    print obj.size; "."
    return obj.size
}
```
Where `TestRoutine` takes a single value as an argument, assigns it to a local variable `obj`, executes a simple printing sequence, and returns the property value: `obj.size`.

The `return` keyword exits the current routine, and returns a value if specified. Both

```plaintext
return
```
and

```plaintext
return <expression>
```

are valid. If no expression is given, the routine returns 0. If no `return` statement at all is encountered, the routine continues until the closing brace (`}`), then returns 0.\(^{30}\)

Once defined, `TestRoutine` can be called several ways:

```plaintext
TestRoutine(mysuitcase)
```

will (assuming the `mysuitcase` object as been defined as previously illustrated) print

"The big green suitcase has a size of 25."

The return value will be ignored. On the other hand,

```plaintext
x = TestRoutine(mysuitcase)
```

will print the same output, but will assign the return value of `TestRoutine` to the variable `x`.

Now, unlike C and similar languages, Hugo does not require that routines follow a strict prototype. Therefore, both

```plaintext
TestRoutine
```
and

```plaintext
TestRoutine(mysuitcase, 5)
```

\(^{30}\) Routines return 0 by default, with the exception of property routines, which we’ll discuss shortly and which return true (or 1) by default.
are valid calls for the above routine. In the first case, the argument `obj` defaults to 0, since no value is passed. (The parentheses are not necessary if no arguments are passed.) In the second case, the value 5 is passed to `TestRoutine`, but ignored.

Arguments are always passed by value, not by reference or address. A local variable in one routine can never be altered by another routine. What this means is that, for example, in the following routines:

```hugo
routine TestRoutine
{
    local a

    a = 5
    Double(a)
    print number a
}

double Double(a)
{
    a = a * 2
}
```

calling `TestRoutine` would print “5” and not “10” because the local variable `a` in `Double` is only a copy of the variable passed to it as an argument. These two routines would, on the other hand, print “10”:

```hugo
routine TestRoutine
{
    local a

    a = 5
    a = Double(a)
    print number a
}

double Double(a)
{
    return a * 2
}
```

The local `a` in `TestRoutine` is reassigned with the return value from the `Double` routine.
An interesting side-effect of a zero (0) return value can be seen using the `print` command. Consider the `The` routine in `hugolib.h`, which prints an object’s definite article (i.e., “the”, if appropriate), followed by the object’s name property.

```
print "You open "; The(object); "."
```

might result in

```
You open the suitcase.
```

Note that the above `print` command itself really only prints

```
"You open 
```

and

```
"."
```

It is the `The` routine that prints

```
the suitcase
```

Since `The` returns 0 (the empty string, or “”), the `print` command is actually displaying

```
"You open ", "", and "."
```

where the empty string (“”) is preceded on the output line by `The`’s printing of “the” (notice the trailing space) and the object name.

V.b. Property Routines

Property routines are slightly more complex than the simple routines described so far, but follow the same basic rules. Normally, a property routine runs when the program attempts to get the value of a property that contains a routine.

That is, instead of having the property value:

```
size 10
```
an object may contain the property:

```javascript
size
{
    return some_value + 5
}
```

Trying to read `object.size` in either case will return an integer value, although in the second case it is calculated by a routine.

**Note:** While normal routines return false (or 0) by default, property routines return true (or 1) by default.

Here’s another example. Normally, if `object` is the current room, then `object.n_to` would contain the object number of the room to the north (if there is one). The library checks `object.n_to` to see if a value exists for it; if none does, the move is invalid.

Consider this:

```plaintext
n_to office
```

and

```javascript
n_to
{
    "The office door is locked."
}
```

or

```javascript
n_to
{
    "The office door is locked. ";
    return false
}
```

In the first case, an attempt on the part of the player to move north would result in `parent(player)` being changed to the `office` object. In the second case, a custom invalid-move message would be displayed. In the third case, the custom invalid-move message would be displayed, but then the library would continue as if it had not found a `n_to` property for `object`, and it would print the standard invalid-move message (without a newline, thanks to the semicolon):
"The office door is locked. You can’t go that way."

(For those wondering why the true (i.e., equal to 1) return value in the second case doesn’t prompt a move to object number 1, the library DoGo routine assumes that there will never be a room object numbered one, since there are all manner of system objects that get defined first.)

Property routines may be run directly using the run command:

```plaintext
run <object>.<property>
```

If `<object>` does not have `<property>`, or if `<object>.<property>` is not a routine, nothing happens. Otherwise, the property routine executes. Property routines do not take arguments.

Remember that at any point in a program, an existing property may be changed using

```plaintext
<object>.<property> = <value>
```

A property routine may be changed using

```plaintext
<object>.<property> =
{
  ...the new code for this property routine...
}
```

where the new routine must be enclosed in braces.

It is entirely possible to change what was once a property routine into a simple value, or vice-versa, providing that space for the routine (and the required number of elements) was allowed for in the original object definition. Even if a property routine is to be assigned later in the program, the property itself must still be defined at the outset in the original object definition. A simple

```plaintext
<property> 0
```

or

```plaintext
<property> {return false}
```

will suffice.

There is, however, one drawback to this reassignment of property values to routines and vice-versa. A property routine is given a “length” of one value, which is the property address. When assigning a value or set of values to a property routine, the engine behaves as if the property was originally defined for
this object with only one word of data, since it has no way of knowing the original length of the property data.

For example, if the original property specification in the object definition was:

    found_in bedroom, livingroom, garage

and at some point the following was executed:

    found_in = { return basement }

then the following would not subsequently work:

    found_in #3 = attic

because the engine now believes <object>.found_in to have only one element—a routine address—attached to it.

Finally, keep in mind that whenever calling a property routine, the global variable self is normally set to the object number. To avoid this, such as when “borrowing” a property from another object from within a different object, reference the property via

    <object>..<property>

using ‘..’ instead of the normal property operator.

V.c. Before And After Routines

The Hugo Compiler predefines two special properties: before and after. They are unique in that not only are they always routines, but they are much more complex (and versatile) than a standard property routine.

Complex properties like before and after are defined with

    property <property name> $complex

as in:

    property before $complex
    property after  $complex

Here is the syntax for the before property:
V. ROUTINES AND EVENTS

before
{
    <usage1> <verbroutine1>[], <verbroutine2>,...
    {
        ...
    }
    <usage2> <verbroutine3>[], <verbroutine4>,...
    {
        ...
    }
    ...
}

(The after property is the same, substituting after for before.)

The <usage> specifier is a value against which the specified object is matched. Most commonly, it is "object", "xobject", "location", "actor", "parent(object)", etc. The <verbroutine> is the name of a verb routine to which the usage in question applies.

When the Hugo Engine goes to execute a player command, it runs a series of tests on the various elements of the command, such as the object on which the specified verb is to be enacted. Know for now that when a player command is executed, the before properties of the object (i.e., the direct object) and xobject (i.e., the indirect object) are checked, then if neither has returned non-false, the appropriate verbroutine is run. Afterward, the after properties are checked; if neither returns non-false, a default message is normally printed by the verbroutine. In other words, before routines typically pre-empt the execution of a verbroutine, and after routines typically pre-empt the default response of a verbroutine.

When the <object>.before property is checked, with the global verbroutine set to one of the specified verbroutines in the before property, and <usage> in that instance is "object", then the following block of code is executed. If no match is found, <object>.before returns false.

Here is an example applied to the mysuitcase object created previously:

```plaintext
before
{
    object DoEat
    {
        "You can't eat the suitcase!"
    }
}
```

---

32 The actual mechanics are described in VIII.g Perform.
33 In the imperative sentence “Put the book on the shelf”, the book is the direct object, and the shelf is the indirect object.
When the player tries the command “eat suitcase”, the response printed will be:

You can't eat the suitcase!

and the normal verb routine for “eat”, the library’s DoEat verb routine, will not be run. When the player tries to “get the suitcase”, the library’s DoGet verb routine will be run (since no before property interrupts it), but instead of the default library response (which is a simple “Taken.”), the game will print:

With a vigorous effort, you pick up the suitcase.

Finally, when the player tries to put something into the suitcase using, say, “put the book in the suitcase”, the normal DoPutIn routine will be run, but the custom response of the suitcase will be printed instead:

You put the book into the suitcase.

Each of these examples will return true (as property routines do by default), thereby overriding the engine’s default operation34. In order to fool the engine into continuing normally, as if no before or after property has been found, return false from the property routine.

---

34 See IX THE GAME LOOP.
Since the after routine returns false, and the library’s default response for a successful call to DoGet is “Taken.”

It is important to remember that, unlike other property routines, before and after routines are also additive; i.e., a before (or after) routine defined in an inherited class or object is not overwritten by a new property routine in the new object. Instead, the definition for the routine is—in essence—added onto. An additive property is defined using the $additive qualifier, as in:

```plaintext
property <property name> $additive <default value>
```

All previously inherited before/after subroutines are carried over. However, the processing of a before/after property begins with the present object, progressing backward through the object’s ancestry until a usage/verbroutine match is found; once a match is made, no further preceding class inheritances are processed (unless the property routine in question returns false).

**Note:** To force a before or after property routine to apply to *any* verbroutine, do not explicitly specify a verbroutine.

For example:

```plaintext
before
{
  xobject
  {
    ...property routine...
  }
}
```

The specified routine will be run whenever the object in question is the xobject of any valid input.
If a non-specific block occurs before any block(s) specifying verbroutines, then the following blocks, if matched, will run as well so long as the block does not return true. If the non-specific block comes after any other blocks, then it will run only if no other object/verbroutine combination is matched.

A drawback of this non-specification is that all verbroutines are matched—both verbs and xverbs\(^3\). This can be particularly undesirable in the case of location before/after properties, where you may wish to be circumventing any action the player tries to perform in that location, but where the non-specific response will be triggered even for save, restore, etc. (i.e.,

To get around this, the library provides a function AnyVerb, which takes an object as its argument and returns that object number if the current verbroutine is not within the group of xverbs; otherwise it returns false. Therefore, it can be used via:

```plaintext
before
{
    AnyVerb(location)
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

instead of

```plaintext
before
{
    location
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

The former will execute the conditional block of code whenever the location global matches the current object and the current verbroutine is not an xverb. The latter (without using AnyVerb), will run for verbs and xverbs. (The reason for this, simply put, is that the location global always equals the location global (of course!). But AnyVerb(location) will only equal the location global if the verbroutine is not an xverb.)

\(^3\) Verbs are actions that the player uses to interact with the physical world of the game. Xverbs are “non-action” verbs that generally deal with system functions, such as getting help, saving a game, etc. but don’t otherwise affect the state of the game world. See VII.a Grammar Definition.
V.d. Init And Main

At least two routines are typically part of every Hugo problem: Init and Main. Init is optional but almost always implemented. If it exists, is called once at the start of the program (as well as during a restart command). The routine should configure all variables, objects, and arrays needed to set up the game state and begin the game. Here’s the Init routine from shell.hug:

```c
routine init {
    Start the counter at one turn before 0 turns, since Main will increment it to begin the game:
    counter = -1

    Set up the kind of statusline we’re going to be displaying, as well as define the default text colors:
    STATUSTYPE = 1 ! score/turns
    TEXTCOLOR = DEF_FOREGROUND
    BGCOLOR = DEF_BACKGROUND
    SL_TEXTCOLOR = DEF_SL_FOREGROUND
    SL_BGCOLOR = DEF_SL_BACKGROUND

    Set the player prompt to the default “>”, and set the starting foreground and background colors:
    prompt = ">
    color TEXTCOLOR, BGCOLOR

    Clear the screen before starting the game, set the font to the default font, and print the game title (“SHELL”, in this case) and a subtitle, followed by the BANNER constant:
    cls
    Font(BOLD_ON | DEFAULT_FONT)
    "SHELL"
    Font(BOLD_OFF)
    "An Interactive Starting Point\n"
    print BANNER

    Set the player to the “you” object (from objlib.h), and set up the starting location:
```

36 All of the capitalized constants used here are defined in hugolib.h.
player = you              ! player initialization
location = emptyroom
old_location = location

Move the player to the starting location, run the library rules to see if there’s light in the location, then describe the starting location and flag it as visited. Also, determine the starting bulk of whatever the player is carrying at the outset (if anything):

move player to location
FindLight(location)
DescribePlace(location)
location is visited
CalculateHolding(player)

Finally, if we’ve defined USE_PLURAL_OBJECTS, call the appropriate initialization routine:

#ifset USE_PLURAL_OBJECTS
  InitPluralObjects
#endif
}

Main is called every turn. It should take care of general game management such as moving ahead the counter, as well as running events and scripts. The Main routine from shell.hug is as follows:

routine main
{

The counter global gets incremented each turn, and the statusline gets updated:

counter = counter + 1
PrintStatusLine

The each_turn property of the current location object gets run. The runevents statement runs all valid events. The RunScripts library routine runs any active scripts:

---

37 A constant that tells objlib.h that we’re implementing a special class of plural/identical objects for use in the game.
38 Events and scripts are discussed next.
run location.each_turn
run events
RunScripts

Finally, we check to see if the player is currently engaged in conversation with a character (if the speaking global is set) and, if so, if the character in question has left the current location:

if parent(speaking)~=location
    speaking = 0
}

V.e. Events

Events are useful for bringing a game to life, so that little quirks, behaviors, and occurrences can be provided for with little difficulty or complexity. Events are also routines, but their special characteristic is that they may be attached to a particular object, and they are run as a group by the runevents command. Events are defined as:

    event
    {
        ...Event routine...
    }

for global events, and

    event [in] <object>
    {
        ...Event routine...
    }

for events attached to a particular object. (The in is optional, but is recommended for legibility.) If an event is attached to an object, it is run only when that object has the same grandparent as the player object, where “grandparent” refers to the last object before 0 (the nothing object as defined in hugolib.h), or can otherwise be determined to be in the player’s current location.

Note: If the event is not a global event, the self global is set to the number of the object to which the event is attached.

---

39 That is, by the FindObject routine in hugolib.h, as called by the engine.
What Should I Be Able To Do Now?

Example: “Borrowing” Property Routines

Consider a situation where a class provides a particular property routine. Normally, that routine is inherited by all objects defined using that class. But there may arise a situation where one of those objects must have a variation or expansion on the original routine.

```hugo
class food
{
  bites_left 5
  eating
  {
    self.bites_left = self.bites_left - 1
    if self.bites_left = 0
      remove self         ! all gone
  }
}

food health_food
{
  eating
  {
    actor.health = actor.health + 1
    run food..eating
  }
}
```

(Assuming that bites_left, eating, and health are defined as properties, with eating being called whenever a food object is eaten.)

In this case, it would be inconvenient to have to retype the entire food.eating routine for the health_food object just because the latter must also increase actor.health. Using ‘..’ calls food.eating with self set to health_food, not the food class, so that food.eating affects health_food. This also allows changes to be made to any property, attribute, or property routine in a class, and that change will be reflected in all objects built from that class.
Example: Building a (More) Complex Object

At this point, enough material has been covered to develop a comprehensive example of a functional object that will serve as a summary of concepts introduced so far, as well as providing instances of a number of common properties from hugolib.h.

```hugol
object woodcabinet "wooden cabinet"
{
    in emptyroom
    article "a"
    nouns "cabinet", "shelf", "shelves", \ 
        "furniture", "doors", "door"
    adjectives "wooden", "wood", "fine", "mahogany"

    short_desc
        "A wooden cabinet sits along one wall."
    when_open
        "An open wooden cabinet sits along one wall."
    long_desc
    {
        "The cabinet is made of fine mahogany wood, hand-crafted by a master cabinetmaker. In front are two doors (presently ";
        if self is open
            print "open";
        else:  print "closed";
        print ")."
    }
    contains_desc
        "Behind the open doors of the cabinet you can see";
    key_object cabinetkey ! a cabinetkey object
        ! must also be created
        holding 0    ! starts off empty
    capacity 100

    before
    {
        object DoLookUnder
            {"Nothing there but dust."}
    }
```
object DoGet
    {"The cabinet is far too heavy to lift!"}
}

after
{
    object DoLock
    {"With a twist of the key, you lock the cabinet up tight."}
}

is container, openable, not open
is lockable, static

Now, for bonus points for those who have looked ahead to APPENDIX B: THE HUGO LIBRARY to see what things like when_open, contains_desc, and static are for, how could the cabinet be converted into, say, a secret passage into another room?
The answer is: by adding a door_to property, such as:

door_to secondroom ! a new room object

and

is enterable

as a new attribute. The cabinet can now be entered via: “go cabinet”, “get into cabinet”, “enter cabinet”, etc.

Example: Building a Clock Event

Suppose that there is a clock object in a room. Here is a possible event:

event in clock
{ local minutes, hours

    hours = counter / 60
    minutes = counter - (hours * 60)

    if minutes = 0
    {
        print "The clock chimes ";
    }
select hour
    case 1:  print "one";
    case 2:  print "two";
    case 3:  print "three";
    .
    .
    case 12:  print "twelve";  print " o'clock."

Whenever the player and the clock are in the same room (when a runevents command is given), the event will run.

Now, suppose the clock should be audible throughout the entire game—i.e., in any location on the game map. Simply changing the event definition to:

    event ! no object is given
    {
        ...
    }

will make the event a global one. (In this case, the self global is not altered.)

40 You can actually use the NumberWord routine from hugolib.h to do this a lot more efficiently.
VI. FUSES, DAEMONS, AND SCRIPTS

VI.a. Introduction

While most of the previously discussed elements of programming with Hugo (such as events) are part of the internal architecture of the Hugo Engine, the means of running fuses, daemons, and scripts are written entirely in the Hugo language itself and contained in the Hugo Library.

VI.b. Fuses And Daemons

A daemon is the traditional name for a recurring activity. Hugo handles daemons as special events attached to objects that may be activated or deactivated (i.e., moved in and out of the scope of `runevents`). Since the daemon class is defined in the library, define a daemon itself using:

```
daemon <name>
{}
```

The body of the daemon definition is empty. The daemon object is only needed to attach the daemon event to, so the daemon definition must be followed by:

```
event [in] <name>
{
    ...
}
```

Activate it by:

```
Activate(<name>)
```

which moves the specified daemon object into scope of the player. This way, whenever a `runevents` command is given (as it should be in the `Main` routine), the event attached to `<name>` will run.
Deactivate the daemon using:

Deactivate(<name>)

which removes the daemon object from scope. (It can be seen here that a
daemon is actually a special type of object which is moved in and out of the
scope of runevents, and that it is the event attached to the daemon that actually
contains the code.)

A fuse is the traditional name for a timer—i.e., any event set to happen
after a certain period of time. The fuse itself is a slightly more complex version of
a daemon object, containing two additional properties as well as in_scope:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>timer</td>
<td>the number of turns before the fuse event runs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tick</td>
<td>a routine that decrements timer and returns the number of turns remaining (i.e., the value of timer)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly to a daemon, define a fuse in two steps:

```
fuse <name> {}
```

```
event [in] <name> {
    
    if not self.tick {
        ...
    
    }
}
```

and turn it on or off by:

```
Activate(<name>, <setting>)
```

and

```
Deactivate(<name>)
```

where <setting> is the initial value of the timer property.

Note that it is up to the event itself to run the timer and check for its expiration. The line
if not self.tick

runs the tick property—defined in the library, which is responsible for decrementing the timer—and executes the following conditional block if self.timer is 0.

VI.c. Scripts

Scripts are considerably more complex than fuses and daemons. The purpose of a script (also called a character script) is to allow an object—usually a character—to follow a sequence of actions turn-by-turn, independent of the player. Up to 16 scripts may be running at once.41

A script is represented by two arrays: scriptdata and setscript. The latter was named for programming clarity rather than for what it actually contains. Here’s why:

To define a script, use the following notation:

```plaintext
setscript[Script(<char>, <num>)] = &CharRoutine, obj,
    &CharRoutine, obj,
    ...
```

(remembering that a hanging comma at the end of a line of code is a signal to the compiler that the line continues onto the next unbroken.)

Notice that “setscript” is actually an array, taking its starting element from the return value of the Script routine, which has <object> and <number> as its arguments.

Script returns a pointer within the large “setscript” array where <num> number of steps of a script for <object> may reside. A single script may have up to 32 steps. A step in a script consists of a routine and an object—both are required, even if the routine does not require an object. (Use the nothing object (0); see the CharWait routine in hugolib.h for reference.)

The custom in hugolib.h is that character script routines use the prefix “Char” although this is not required. Currently, routines provided include:

- CharMove (requiring a direction object)
- CharWait (using the nothing object)
- CharGet (requiring a takeable object)
- CharDrop (requiring an object held by the character)

41 This is a library-set limit.
as well as the special routine

    LoopScript   (using the nothing object)

which indicates that a script will continually execute. (It is the responsibility of
the programmer to ensure that the ending position of the character or object is
suitable to loop back to the beginning if LoopScript is used. That is, if the
script consists of a complex series of directions, the character should always
return to the same starting point.)

The sequence of routines and objects for each script is stored in the
setscript array.

Scripts are run using the RunScripts routine, similar to runevents, the
only difference being that runevents is an engine command while
RunScripts is contained entirely in hugolib.h. The line:

    RunScripts

will run all active object/character scripts, one turn at a time, freeing the space
used by each once it has run its course.

Here is a sample script for a character named “Ned”:

    setscript[Script(ned, 4)] = &CharMove, s_obj,
                              &CharGet, cannonball,
                              &CharMove, n_obj,
                              &CharWait, 0,
                              &CharDrop, cannonball

    
Ned will go south, retrieve the cannonball object, bring it north, wait a
turn, and drop it. (The character script routines provided in the library are
relatively basic; for example, CharGet assumes that the specified object will be
there when the character comes to get it, so it’s more or less up to the game
author—at least when using the default library routines for character scripting—to
have things well planned out.)

Other script-management routines in hugolib.h include:

    CancelScript(obj)   to immediately halt execution of the script for
                          <obj>

    PauseScript(obj)    to temporarily pause execution of the script for
                          <obj>

    ResumeScript(obj)   to resume execution of a paused script
SkipScript(obj) skips the script for <obj> during the next call to RunScripts only.

The RunScripts routine also checks for before and after properties. It continues with the default action—i.e., the character action routine specified in the script—if it finds a false value.

To override a default character action routine, include a before property for the character object using the following form:

```euclid
before
{
    actor CharRoutine
    {
        ...
    }
}
```

where CharRoutine is CharWait, CharMove, CharGet, CharDrop, etc.

VI.d. A Note About The event_flag Global

The library routines—particularly the DoWait... verb routines (invoked whenever a player types “wait”, “wait for (someone)”, or “wait for 5 turns”—expect the event_flag global variable to be set to a non-false value if something happens (i.e., in an event or script) so that the player may be notified and given the opportunity to quit waiting. For instance, the character script routines in hugolib.h set event_flag whenever a character does something in the same location as the player.

If hugolib.h is to be used, the convention of setting event_flag after every significant event should be adhered to.
VI.e. What Should I Be Able To Do Now?

Example: A Simple Daemon and a Simpler Fuse

The most basic daemon would be something like a sleep counter, which measures how far a player can go beginning from a certain rested state. Assume that the player’s amount of rest is kept in a property called `rest`, which decreases by 2 each turn.

```plaintext
daemon gettired
{
}

event in gettired
{
    player.rest = player.rest - 2
    if player.rest < 0
        player.rest = 0

    select player.rest
        case 20
            "You're getting quite tired."
        case 10
            "You're getting \Very\ tired."
        case 0
            "You fall asleep!"
}
```

Start and stop the daemon with `Activate(gettired)` and `Deactivate(gettired)`.

Now, as for a fuse, why not construct the most obvious example: that of a ticking bomb? (Assume that there exists another physical `bomb` object; `tickingbomb` is only the countdown fuse.)

```plaintext
fuse tickingbomb
{
}

event in tickingbomb
{
    if not self.tick
    {
        if Contains(location, bomb)
```
"You vanish in a nifty KABOOM!"
else
    "You hear a distant KABOOM!"
    remove bomb
}

Start it (with a countdown of 25 turns):

Activate(tickingbomb, 25)

and stop it with:

Deactivate(tickingbomb)
VII. GRAMMAR AND PARSING

VII.a. Grammar Definition

Every valid player command must be specified. More precisely, each usage of a particular verb must be detailed in full by the source code. Grammar definitions must always come at the start of a program, preceding any objects or executable code. That is, if several additional grammar files are to be included, or new grammar is to be explicitly defined in the source code, it must be done before any files containing executable code are included, or any routines, objects, etc. are defined.

The syntax used for grammar definition is:

```
[x]verb "<verb1>" [, "<verb2>", "<verb3>", ...]
* <syntax specification 1> <VerbRoutine1>
* <syntax specification 2> <VerbRoutine2>
...
```

Now, what does that mean? Here are some examples from the library grammar file `verblib.g`:

```
verb "get"

*  DoVague
* "up"/"out"/"off" DoExit
* "outof"/"offof"/"off" object DoExit
* "in"/"on" object DoEnter
* multinotheld "from"/"off" parent DoGet
* multinotheld "offof"/"outof" parent DoGet
* multinotheld DoGet

verb "take"

*          DoVague
* "off" multiheld DoTakeOff
* multiheld "off" DoTakeOff
* multinotheld DoGet
```
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* multinotheld "from"/"off" parent  DoGet
* multinotheld "offof"/"outof" parent  DoGet

verb "save"
*        DoSave
* "game"
 DoSave

verb "read", "peruse"
* readable
 DoRead

verb "unlock"
*        DoVague
* lockable "with" held
* lockable
 DoUnLock

Each verb or xverb header begins a new verb definition. An xverb is a special signifier that indicates that the engine should not call the Main routine after successful completion of the action. xverb is typically used with non-action, housekeeping-type verbs such as saving, restoring, quitting, and restarting.

Another thing that can be done is to specify:

verb some_object
* object
 DoVerb

which will have the effect of, instead of defining the verb with a dictionary word, checking at runtime some_object.noun as the verb word to be matched. What this allows is for the some_object.noun property to be a routine that can return varying values at runtime in order to provide for dynamic grammar, if required. However, since this sort of dynamic grammar isn’t often required, static grammar definitions are far more common.

Next in the header comes one or more verb words. Each of the specified words will share the following verb grammar exactly. This is why “get” and “take” in the above examples are defined separately, instead of as

verb "get", "take"

In this way, the commands like

> get up

and
VII. GRAMMAR AND PARSING

>take off hat
are allowable, while

>take up
and

>get off hat
won’t make any sense.

Each line beginning with an asterisk (‘*’) is a separate valid usage of the
verb being defined. (Every player input line must begin with a verb. Exceptions,
where a command is directed to an object as in

>Ned, get the ball
will be dealt with later.)

Up to two objects and any number of dictionary words may make up a
syntax line. The objects must be separated by at least one dictionary word.

Valid object specifications are:

object  any visible object (the direct object)
xobject  the indirect object
attribute any visible object that is attribute
parent  an xobject that is the parent of the object
held any object possessed by the player object
notheld an object explicitly not held
anything any object, held or not, visible or not
multi multiple visible objects
multiheld multiple held objects
multinotheld multiple notheld objects
number a positive integer number
word any dictionary word
string a quoted string
(RoutineName) a routine name, in parentheses
(objectname) a single object name, in parentheses

(If a number is specified in the grammar syntax, it will be passed to the
verbroutine in the object global. If a string is specified, it will be passed in the
engine's parse$ variable, which can then be turned into a string array using the string function.)

Dictionary words that may be used interchangeably are separated by a slash ('/').

Two or more dictionary words in sequence must be specified separately. That is, in the input line:

>take hat out of suitcase

the syntax line

* object "out" "of" container

will be matched, while

* object "out of" container

would never be recognized, since the engine will automatically parse “out” and “of” as two separate words; the parser will never find a match for “out of”.

Regarding object specification within the syntax line: once the direct object has been found, the remaining object in the input line will be stored as the xobject. That is, in the example immediately above, a valid object in the input line with the attribute container will be treated as the indirect object by the verb routine.

Note: An important point to remember when mixing dictionary words and objects within a syntax line is that, unless directed differently, the parser may confuse a word-object combination with an invalid object name.

Consider the following:

verb "pick"
  * object DoGet
  * "up" object DoGet

This definition will result in something like

>pick up box
You haven’t seen any "up box", nor are you likely to in the near future even if such a thing exists.
(assuming that “up” has been defined elsewhere as part of a different object name, as in \texttt{objlib.h}, because the processor processes the syntax

* object

and determines that an invalid object name is being used; it never gets to

* "up" object

The proper verb definition would be ordered like

\begin{verbatim}
verb "pick"
  * "up" object   DoGet
  * object    DoGet
\end{verbatim}

so that both “pick <object>“ and “pick up <object>“ are valid player commands. It’s generally good practice to make sure that more specific grammar precedes more general grammar for this reason.

To define a new grammar condition that will take precedence over an existing one—such as in \texttt{verblib.g}—simply define the new condition first (i.e., before including \texttt{verblib.g}).

\textbf{Note:} As a rule, unless you need to preempt the library’s normal grammar processing, include any new grammar \textit{after} the library files. (The reason for this is that the library grammar is carefully tuned to handle situations exactly like that described above.)

A single object may be specified as the only valid object for a particular syntax:

\begin{verbatim}
verb "rub"
  * (magic_lamp)   DoRubMagicLamp
\end{verbatim}

will produce a “You can’t do that with...” error for any object other than the \texttt{magic_lamp} object.

Using a routine name to specify an object is slightly more involved: the engine calls the given routine with the object specified in the input line as its argument; if the routine returns true, the object is valid—if not, a parsing error is expected to have been printed by the routine. If two routine names are used in a particular syntax, such as

* (FirstRoutine) "with" (SecondRoutine)
then FirstRoutine validates the object and SecondRoutine validates the object.

**VII.b. The Parser**

Immediately after an input line is received, the engine calls the parser, and the first step taken is to identify any invalid words, i.e., words that are not in the dictionary table.

**Note:** One non-dictionary word or phrase is allowed in an input line, providing it is enclosed in quotation marks. If the command is successfully parsed and the quoted word or phrase is matched to a string grammar token, that string is passed to parse$. More than one non-dictionary word or phrase (even if the additional phrases are enclosed in quotes) are not allowed.

The next step is to break the line down into individual words. Words are separated by spaces and basic punctuation (including “!” and “?”) which are removed. All characters in an input line are converted to lowercase (except those inside quotation marks).

The next step is to process the four types of special “words” which may be defined in the source code.

**Removals** are the simplest. These are simply words that are to be automatically removed from any input line, and are generally limited to words such as “a” and “the” which would, generally speaking, only make grammar matching more complicated and difficult. The syntax for defining a removal is:

```
removal "<word1>"[, "<word2>", "word<3>",...]
```

as in

```
removal "a", "an", "the"
```

**Punctuation** is similar to a removal, except it specifies the removal of individual characters instead of whole words:

```
punctuation "<character1>[<character2>...]
```

as in

```
punctuation "$\$"
```
Synonyms are slightly more complex. These are words that will never be found in the parsed input line; they are replaced by the specified word for which they are a synonym.

\[ \text{synonym} \text{ "<synonym>" for "<word>" } \]

as in

\[ \text{synonym} \text{ "myself" for "me" } \]

The above example will replace every occurrence of “myself” in the input line with “me”. Usage of synonyms will likely not be extensive, since of course it is possible to, particularly in the case of object nouns and adjectives specify synonymous words which are still treated as distinct.

Compounds are the final type of special word, specified as:

\[ \text{compound} \text{ "<word1>", "<word2>" } \]

as in

\[ \text{compound} \text{ "out", "of" } \]

so that the input line

\[ > \text{get hat out of suitcase} \]

would be parsed to

\[ > \text{get hat outof suitcase} \]

Depending on the design of grammar tables for certain syntaxes, the use of compounds may make grammar definition more straightforward, so that by using the above compound,

\[ \text{verb} \text{ "get" } \]
\[ * \text{ multinotheld "outof"/"offof"/"from" parent } \]

is possible, and likely more desirable to

\[ \text{verb} \text{ "get" } \]
\[ * \text{ multinotheld "out"/"off" "of" parent } \]
\[ * \text{ multinotheld "from" parent } \]
When the parser has finished processing the input line, the result is a specially defined (by the Hugo Engine) array called \texttt{word\[\]} , where the number of valid elements is held in the global variable \texttt{words} . Therefore, in

\texttt{>get the hat from the table}

the parser—using the removals defined in \texttt{hugolib.h}—will produce the following results:

\begin{verbatim}
word[1] = "get"
word[2] = "hat"
word[3] = "from"
word[4] = "table"
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{words} = 4

\textbf{Note:} Multiple-command input lines are also allowed, provided that the individual commands are separated by a period (".").

\texttt{>get hat. go n. go e.}

would become

\begin{verbatim}
word[1] = "get"
word[2] = "hat"
word[3] = ""
word[4] = "go"
word[5] = "n"
word[6] = ""
word[7] = "go"
word[8] = "e"
word[9] = ""
\end{verbatim}

\texttt{words} = 9

(See \texttt{hugolib.h} for an example of how

\texttt{>get hat then go n}

is translated into:

\begin{verbatim}
word[1] = "get"
word[2] = "hat"
\end{verbatim}
A maximum of thirty-two words is allowed. The period is in each case converted to the empty dictionary entry (""; dictionary address = 0), which is a signal to the engine that processing of the current command should end here.

**Note:** The parsing and grammar routines also recognize several system words, each in the format "~word". These are:

- `~and` referring to: multiple specific objects
- `~all` "" multiple objects in general
- `~any` "" any one of a list of objects
- `~except` "" an excluded object
- `~oops` to correct an error in the previous input line

To allow an input line to access any of these system words, a synonym must be defined, such as:

```
synonym "and" for "~and"
```

The library defines several such synonyms.
VII.c. What Should I Be Able To Do Now?

It should by now be relatively straightforward how to go about adding a new verb (with appropriate grammar)—or even modifying an existing one. For instance, consider a game in which disco dancing plays an absolutely vital role, and where the command “/>GET DOWN” must at all costs be implemented as a synonym for “/>DANCE” or “/>BOOGIE”.

For starters, you’ll need to add the initial grammar and verb routine:

```language
verb "dance", "boogie"
*     DoDance
and

routine DoDance
{
    "You get down, all night long."
}
```

Keep in mind that the verb definition, as with all grammar, must come before any other code, definitions, etc. Now, you’ll have to add the “/>GET DOWN” grammar:

```language
verb "get"
* "down"    DoDance
```

Now, this must come both before any other code or definitions as well as the existing grammar for “/>GET <objects>” (from VERBLIB.G). Otherwise, the regular grammar for

```language
* object    DoGet
```

will take precedence. By superseding it, however, we ensure that any grammar matching the desired pattern will result in DoDance being called instead.
VIII. JUNCTION ROUTINES

VIII.a. Before We Get To The Routines

Because, the engine is unaware of such things as attributes, properties, and objects in anything but a technical sense, there are provided a number of routines to facilitate communication between the engine and the program proper. Along with these junction routines are certain global variables and properties that are pre-defined by the compiler and accessed directly by the engine. They are:

**GLOBALS**
- object: the direct object of a verb
- xobject: the indirect object
- self: self-referential object
- words: total number of words
- player: the player object
- actor: the player, or character obj. (for scripts)
- location: location of the player
- verbroutine: the verb routine address
- endflag: if not false (0), call EndGame
- prompt: for the player input line
- objects: total number of objects
- system_status: after certain operations

**PROPERTIES**
- name: basic object name
- before: pre-verb routines
- after: post-verb routines
- noun: noun(s) for referring to object

---

42 In other words, it is the library that defines all the rules and useful-sounding names for properties, routines, and the like; the engine doesn’t really have any idea about the higher-level work being done by the library.
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adjective adjective(s) for referring to object
article “a”, “an”, “the”, “some”, etc.

(Additionally, the aliases nouns and adjectives for noun and adjective, respectively, are defined by the library.)

Junction routines are not required. The engine has built-in default routines, although it’s likely that not all of these will be satisfactory for most programmers. hugolib.h contains each of the following routines which fully implement all the features of the library. If a different routine is desired in place of a provided one, the routine should be substituted using replace.

VIII.b. Parse

The Parse routine, if one exists, is called by the engine parser. Here, the program itself may modify the input line before grammar matching is attempted. What happens is:

1. The input line is split into discrete words (by the engine).
2. The Parse routine, if it exists, is called.
3. Control returns to the engine for grammar matching.
4. During grammar matching, the FindObject routine may be called (possibly repeatedly).

For example, the Parse routine in hugolib.h takes care of such things as pronouns (“he”, “she”, “it”, “them”) and repeating the last legal command (with “again” or simply “g”). Returning true from the Parse routine calls the engine parser again (i.e., returns to step 1 in the process above); returning false continues normally. This is useful in case the Parse routine has changed the input line substantially, requiring a reconfiguration of the already split words.

The HugoFix debugging library can be used at runtime to monitor the goings-on of the Parse routine by enabling parser monitoring with the “$pm” command.43

---

43 For more information on debugging using HugoFix, see APPENDIX D: HUGOFIX AND THE HUGO DEBUGGER.

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Note: Since the library’s Parse routine is rather extensive, a provision is made for a PreParse routine—which in the library is defined as being empty—which may more easily be replaced for additional parsing.

VIII.c. ParseError

The ParseError routine is called whenever a command is invalid. ParseError is called in the form:

```
ParseError(<errornumber>, <object>)
```

where <object> is the object number (if any) of the object involved in the error.

Note: The engine also sets up the special variable parse$, which represents the illegal component of an input line, whether it is the verb itself, an object name, a partial object name, or any other word combination.

For example:

```
print "The illegal word was: " ; parse$ ; "."
```

The default responses provided by the engine parse error routine are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ERROR NUMBER</th>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>“What?”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>“You can’t use the word &lt;parse$&gt;.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>“Better start with a verb.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>“You can’t &lt;parse$&gt; multiple objects.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>“Can’t do that.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>“You haven’t seen any &lt;parse$&gt;, nor are you likely to in the near future even if such a thing exists.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6 “That doesn’t make any sense.”

7 “You can’t use multiple objects like that.”

8 “Which <parse$> do you mean,…?”

9 “Nothing to <parse$>.”

10 “You haven’t seen anything like that.”

11 “You don’t see that.”

12 “You can’t do that with the <parse$>.”

13 “You’ll have to be a little more specific.”

14 “You don’t see that there.”

15 “You don’t have that.”

16 “You’ll have to make a mistake first.”

17 “You can only correct one word at a time.”

The ParseError routine in hugolib.h provides customized responses that take into account such things as, for example, whether the player is first or second-person, whether or not an object is a character or not, and if so, if it is male or female, etc.

If the ParseError routine does not provide a response for a particular <errornumber>, it should return false. Returning false is a signal that the engine should continue with the default message. Returning 2 is a signal to reparse the entire existing line (useful in cases where a peculiar syntax is trapped as an error, changed, and must then be reparsed).
Note: If custom error messages are desired for user parsing routines, replace the routine CustomError with a new routine (called with the same parameters as ParseError), providing that <errornumber> is greater than or equal to 100.

VIII.d. EndGame

The EndGame routine is called immediately whenever the global variable endflag is non-zero, regardless of whether or not the current function has not yet been terminated.

`hugolib.h`'s EndGame routine behaves according to the value to which endflag is set:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>endflag</th>
<th>RESULT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Player wins</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Player’s demise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Other ending—not provided for by default PrintEndGame routine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Returning false from Endgame terminates the game completely; returning non-false restarts.

Note: To modify only the message displayed at the end of the game (defaults: “*** YOU’VE WON THE GAME! ***” and “*** YOU ARE DEAD ***”), replace the PrintEndGame routine. Other than being non-false, the various values of endflag are insignificant except to PrintEndGame.

VIII.e. FindObject

The FindObject routine takes into account all the relevant properties, attributes, and object hierarchy to determine whether or not a particular object is available in the current context. For example, the child of a parent object may be available if the parent is a platform, but unavailable if the parent is a container (and closed)—although internally, the object hierarchy is the same. FindObject is called via:

FindObject(<object>, <location>)
where <object> is the object in question, and <location> is the object where its availability is being tested. (Usually <location> is a room, unless a different parent has been specified in the input line.)

FindObject returns true (1) if the object is available, false (0) if unavailable. It returns 2 if the object is visible but not physically accessible.

The FindObject routine in hugolib.h considers not only the location of <object> in the object tree, but also tests the attributes of the parent to see if it is open or closed. As well, it checks the found_in property, in case <object> has been assigned multiple locations instead of an explicit parent, and then scans the in_scope property of the object (if one exists).

Finally, the default behavior of the library’s FindObject requires that a player have encountered an object for it to be valid in an action, i.e., it must have the known attribute set. To override this, replace the routine ObjectisKnown with a routine that returns an unconditional true value.

There is one special case in which the engine expects the FindObject routine to be especially helpful: that is if the routine is called with <location> equal to 0. This occurs whenever the engine needs to determine if an object is available at all—regardless of any rules normally governing object availability—such as when an anything grammar token is encountered, or the engine needs to disambiguate two or more seemingly identical objects. (Also, FindObject may be called by the engine with both <object> and <location> equal to 0 to reset any library-based object disambiguation.)

The HugoFix debugging library can be used at runtime to monitor calls to FindObject by enabling the “$fi” command. 44

VIII.f. SpeakTo

The SpeakTo routine is called whenever an input line begins with a valid object name instead of a verb. This is so the player may direct commands to (usually) characters in the game. For example:

>Professor Plum, drop the lead pipe

It is up to the SpeakTo routine to properly interpret the instruction. SpeakTo is called via:

SpeakTo(<character>)

44 For more information on debugging using HugoFix, see APPENDIX D: HUGOFIX AND THE HUGO DEBUGGER.
where `<character>` in the above example would be the Professor Plum object. The globals `object, xobject, and verbroutine` are all set up as normal. For the above example, then, these would be

```
object       leadpipe
xobject      nothing
verbroutine  &DoDrop
```

when `SpeakTo` is called.

`hugolib.h`'s `SpeakTo` routine provides basic interpretation of questions, so that

```
>Professor Plum, what about the lead pipe?
```

may be directed to the proper verb routine, as if the player had typed:

```
>ask Professor Plum about the lead pipe
```

Imperative commands are, such as

```
>Colonel Mustard, stand up
```

are first directed to the `order_response` property of the character object in question. It is subsequently up to `<character>`.`order_response` to analyze `verbroutine` (as well as `object` and `xobject`, if applicable) to see if the request is a valid one. If no response is provided, `order_response` should return false.

The HugoFix debugging library can be used at runtime to monitor calls to `SpeakTo` by enabling the "`$pm`" command. 45

```
order_response
{
  if verbroutine = &DoGet
    "I would, but my back is too sore."
  else
    return false
}
```

Note: It is important to check in an `order_response` property if any objects to be acted upon are present (or otherwise available), since this check is not necessarily done before `SpeakTo` is called.

---

45 For more information on debugging using HugoFix, see APPENDIX D: HUGOFIX AND THE HUGO DEBUGGER.
When something like the following is directed toward a character:

> BOB, GET THE PACKAGE

SpeakTo(bob) will be called with verbroutine = &DoGet and object = package, even if the package object is not physically present.

VIII.g. Perform

The Perform routine is what is called by the engine in order to execute the appropriate verbroutine with the given object(s) and/or indirect object, if either or both are applicable. It is the responsibility of Perform to do the appropriate checking of before routines to determine if execution actually gets to the verbroutine. Perform is called as:

Perform(<verbroutine>, <object>, <xobject>, <queue>, <isxverb>)

The first three arguments represent the match verb (always), object (if given), and indirect object, i.e., the xobject (if given). The <queue> is 0 unless the verbroutine is being called more than once for multiple objects. (As a special case, <queue> is -1 if object or xobject is a number supplied in the input as one or more digits, in order to signal Perform not to do normal before/after routine calling.) The <isxverb> argument is true if the grammar for invoking Perform designates an xverb.

For example, various player commands might (approximately, depending on verbroutine and object names) result in the routine calls:

>i
Perform(&DoInventory, 0, 0, 0)

>get key
Perform(&DoGet, key_object, 0, 0)

> put the key on the table
Perform(&DoGet, key_object, 0, 0)

> turn the dial to 127
Perform(&DoTurn, dial, 127, -1)

---

46 The <isxverb> argument is new in v3.1.
VIII. JUNCTION ROUTINES

>get key and banana
Perform(&DoGet, key_object, 0, 1)
Perform(&DoGet, banana, 0, 2)

(If no Perform routine exists, the engine performs a default calling of player.before, location.before, xobject.before, object.before, and finally verbroutine if none of those returns true.)

Using HugoFix’s parser monitoring (“$pm”) at runtime will trace calls to Perform.47

47 For more information on debugging using HugoFix, see APPENDIX D: HUGOFIX AND THE HUGO DEBUGGER.
IX. THE GAME LOOP

IX.a. Overview Of The Game Loop

This the basic execution pattern that the Hugo Engine follows during program execution. (Also mentioned are the calling of before routines and the verb routine by Perform in hugolib.h. While not necessarily part of the game loop—since they may or may not be included in a program—they are mentioned here because they are relevant to any Hugo program that uses the standard Hugo Library.)

Init: The Init routine is called only when the program is first run, or when a restart command is issued.

Main: At the start of the game loop, the engine calls the Main routine. The routine should—as in the provided sample programs—take care of advancing the turn counter, executing the runevents command, and calling such library routines as RunScripts and PrintStatusLine.

Input: Keyboard input is received.

Parsing: The input line is checked for validity, synonyms and other special words are checked, and the user Parse routine (if any) is called.

Grammar matching:

The engine attempts to match the input line with a valid verb and syntax in the grammar table. If no match is found, the engine loops back to Input.
Otherwise, a successful grammar match results in at least the `verbroutine` global being set, as well as potentially `object` and `xobject`.

**Before routines (as called by `Perform` in `hugolib.h`):**

If any objects were specified in the input line, their `before` properties are checked in the following order, for each object:

- `player.before`
- `location.before`
- `xobject.before` (if applicable)
- `object.before` (if applicable)

If any of these property routines returns true, the engine skips the `verbroutine`. (The `react_before` property for relevant objects is checked at this time as well.)

**Verb routine (as called by `Perform` in `hugolib.h`):**

If no before property routine returns true, the verb routine is run.

If an action is successfully completed, the verb routine should return true. Returning false negates any remaining commands in the input line.

`Perform` does not run any after property routines for `object` or `xobject`; that is up to the verb routine. It does run both `player.after` and `location.after` if the `verbroutine` returns true. (The `react_after` property for relevant objects is checked at this time as well.)

(Control returns from the library `Perform` routine to the engine)

When finished, the engine loops back to `Main`, calling the `Main` routine only if the last verb matched was not an xverb.

**Note:** Setting the global `endflag` at any point to a non-zero value will terminate the game loop and run the `EndGame` junction routine.
IX.b. What Should I Be Able To Do Now?

By this point, you’ve been introduced to the basic facilities through which the Hugo Engine communicates with a running Hugo game: the junction routines `EndGame`, `FindObject`, `Parse`, `ParseError`, `Perform`, and `SpeakTo`. Becoming familiar with their implementation and use (and even inner workings) is an important step toward mastering an understanding of the Hugo game loop, including determining how a player input line is parsed, what objects are available or in scope, and how a command is either dispatched to a verbroutine or directed to another character. You should be able to create your own verb routines (and grammar) to handle actions not provided by default in the library. You should now understand how to create an `order_response` property for characters to respond to actions passed to them by `SpeakTo`.

It should be apparent how a game can implement custom versions of things like end-of-game behavior, parser messages, etc. without editing the library itself by using the compiler’s `replace` directive with library routines such as `EndGame` and `ParseError`. Most often, a programmer will copy the selected routine out of `hugolib.h` (or wherever it comes from) and paste it into the game’s source, changing (for instance):

```
routine EndGame ...
```

to

```
replace EndGame ...
```

and customize the `EndGame` routine’s messages, behavior, or whatever the desired modifications may involve.

For instance, to change the default parser error message

```
You don’t need to use the word "<unknown word>".
```

to something along the lines of

```
[This game does not recognize "<unknown word>".]
```

first copy the `ParseError` routine from `hugolib.h` to the game’s source, and change, in the copied `ParseError`,

```
routine ParseError(errornumber, object)
```
IX. THE GAME LOOP

to

    replace ParseError(errornumber, object)

and modify the case for the error message in question from

case 1
    print CThe(player); \ 
    MatchPlural(player, "doesn't, "don't"); \ 
    need to use the word \\
    parse$; \\
"\".

to

case 1
    print "[This game does not recognize \"
    parse$; \\
"\]."

You should also by now have an understanding of how to override the
game loop using before and after routines in order to provide for custom
responses and/or behavior not directly provided by the library. Normally, for
example, an object having the static attribute is automatically treated as
untakeable by the library. But what if you created a heavy boulder and wanted
to have the response

    The boulder is far too heavy to lift!

in place of the library’s default “You can't take that.” message? You
would simply interrupt the DoGet routine before it even executes via a before
property on the boulder object:

    before
    { 
    object DoGet
        { 
            "The boulder is far too heavy to lift!"
        }
    }
X. USING THE OBJECT LIBRARY

The Hugo Object Library (*objlib.h*), included by default by *hugolib.h* as part of the standard Hugo Library, provides a number of useful classes for common elements of many games. These classes can be used as-is to create objects or as base classes for more complex and/or game-specific classes.

X.a. Rooms and Directions

Most games will make use of rooms, directions, and possibly characters. A room in this context is an object which specifically functions as a location in the game world, and as such contains other objects as children in branches beneath it in the object tree. Despite being called “rooms”, these generic locations aren’t explicitly indoors or outdoors; most games won’t make a distinction except in the textual description (the *long_desc*) of the location.

A room is defined like this:

```
room living_room "living room"
{
    long_desc
        "The living room is about fifteen feet square, with a bay window on one wall looking out over the garden. The kitchen is to the south, or you can walk into the back hallway to the east."
}
```

Since a room is not placed within another object in the object tree (using the *in* directive), it automatically has a parent of 0 or nothing. By inheriting from the *room* class, the *living_room* object acquires the characteristics defined in the object library, including being static and light.

48 This also means that in order to create a dark location—i.e., one that has no intrinsic lighting—it is necessary to put an explicit “not light” in the object’s definition. In that case, in order for the player to see anything in the location, light will have to be provided either by an object in the location (such as a lamp) or by something portable that can be brought into the location (like a flashlight).
Additionally, as with other classes in the object library, the type property of an object can be checked to see which class it was derived from. In this case, living_room.type would equal room. (Of course, living_room or an object subsequently derived from living_room could set its type property to something other than room.)

Travel between rooms is managed by default using the eight cardinal compass directions (north, northeast, east, southeast, south, southwest, west, northwest) as well as up, down, in, and out. These are represented in object form as n_obj, ne_obj, e_obj, se_obj, s_obj, sw_obj, w_obj, nw_obj, u_obj, d_obj, in_obj, and out_obj (each derived from the direction class). Each of these objects is defined in the object library as a child of the compass parent object, and each defines an appropriate dir_to property reflecting the direction of travel it describes. For instance, n_obj.dir_to equals n_to, in_obj.dir_to equals in_to, etc. It is the dir_to property of a direction that is used to map out travel from one location to another.

The living_room object’s description claims that the kitchen is to the south and the back hallway is to the east, but neither connection is known to the game until those directional links are added to the object definition (and, of course, assuming that the kitchen and back_hallway objects also exist).

```plaintext
room living_room "living room"
{
    long_desc
    "The living room is about fifteen feet square, with a bay window on one wall looking out over the garden. The kitchen is to the south, or you can walk into the back hallway to the east."
    s_to kitchen
    e_to back_hallway
}
```

The player will now be able to go either south or east from the kitchen. Keep in mind, however, that it is possible to make travel from one location to another one-way. In order to allow the player to travel back to the living kitchen in the same direction, you would need to add

```plaintext
n_to living_room
to the kitchen object and
w_to living_room
```
to the back_hallway object.

X.b. Characters

The basic character class takes care of defining the basic elements that the library expects character objects to have. These include obvious attributes such as living, as well as useful properties such as capacity and holding for carrying objects. Also importantly, the character class defines its pronouns property as:

pronouns "he", "him", "his", "himself"

The accompanying female_character class (which is identical to the character class but with the female attribute) defines:

pronouns "she", "her", "her", "herself"

The order of pronouns is subject, object, possessive, reflexive, so that the library can refer to the pronouns property to print appropriate messages such as:

print capital object.pronoun; " is in the room."  
He is in the room.

print "Bob gave "; object.pronoun #2; " the box. "  
Bob gave him the box.

print capital object.pronoun; " opened ";  
object.pronoun #3; " box. "  
He opened his box.

print capital object.pronoun; " looked at ";  
object.pronoun #4; " in the mirror. "  
He looked at himself in the mirror.

A player_character class is also provided that will usually be the basis for the player character (PC). A game’s PC can be defined easily as:

player_character you "you"  
{}
The PC is by default named in the second person (as opposed to the first-person “I” or the third-person “he”, “she”, “it”, or “them”). To change to another form, it will be necessary to redefine the PC’s pronouns property accordingly, as well as to change the global variable player_person⁴⁹ (which defaults to 2) to 1 or 3, as appropriate, and optionally to give a plural PC the plural attribute (in the rare case where that may be desired).

X.c. Character responses

One thing that will likely be important for NPCs (non-player characters) is enabling them to respond to questions and otherwise interact with the player. This is traditionally accomplished by implementing NPC responses to the verbroutines DoAsk, DoTell, DoShow, and DoGive.

>ASK GUSTAV ABOUT APPLE
"I must admit I rather prefer them to bananas," Gustav tells you.

>GIVE BANANA TO GUSTAV
"No, thank you," Gustav says. "I would rather have an apple."

The grammar for asking an NPC about something looks something like this:

verb "ask"
  * living about xobject   DoAsk

The object is the NPC being asked, the xobject is whatever is being asked about, and the verbroutine is DoAsk. The response is handled in the NPC’s after property routine:

after
{
  object DoAsk
  {
    select xobject
    case apple
      ""I must admit I rather prefer them to bananas,"" Gustav tells you.
  }

⁴⁹ The library uses the player_person global to properly format messages to the player.
case else
    return false ! important
}
}

Note that it’s necessary to return false if the routine fails to find an appropriate response.

DoTell responses are handled similarly to DoAsk, since the NPC is the object and whatever is being told about is the xobject:

verb "tell"
    * living about xobject    DoTell

DoGive and DoShow, however, are handled differently, since the word ordering is different:

verb "give"
    * object to living    DoGive

verb "show"
    * object to living    DoShow

For these, the after property routine will look something like:

after
{
    object DoAsk
    {
        ...
    }
    xobject DoGive
    {
        select object
        case banana
            "No thank you," Gustav says.  "I would rather have an apple.""
        case else
            return false
        }
    xobject DoShow
    {
        select object
        ...
    }
X.d. Scenery and Components

It has become more and more expected of interactive fiction that objects mentioned in the textual description of a location should be implemented in a manipulable fashion. With this goal in mind, something like the following would be less than desirable:

PRISON CELL
The entire place is probably just shy of fifty square feet. The bars on the doors and single small window ensure that you won't be going anywhere anytime soon.

>EXAMINE WINDOW
You don't need to use the word "window".

Depending on the game (and, arguably, the player) that response may be somewhat jarring in light of the window just mentioned in the room description. It may be gotten around by adding an embellishment like this:

```
scenery prison_window "prison window"
{
    in prison_cell
    article "a"
    adjectives "single", "small", "prison", "cell"
    noun "window"
}
```

The most important characteristic of a scenery object created using the scenery class is that it will not be listed by the library as part of the room’s contents (in this case, the contents of prison_cell). The scenery class is otherwise relatively unadorned: looking at a scenery object will produce a generic message about seeing nothing special, attempting to take a scenery object will generate a generic “You can’t take that”-type response, etc. The scenery object can be fleshed out with a long_desc property and before/after handling for desired verbroutines.

---

50 The scenery class has the static attribute, which makes scenery objects untakeable. This is largely the point of scenery objects.
Components are similar to scenery objects in two important respects in that they’re not intended to be taken and they’re not specifically listed in any itemization of contents. Consider a case where a game might contain a machine (for fun, a nefarious machine) and a lever. The intention might be that the lever can be manipulated separately from the nefarious machine itself so that “>PULL LEVER” elicits a different response than simply “>PULL MACHINE”. At the same time, however, something like the following is probably undesirable:

A nefarious machine whirs and buzzes in the corner. There is also a lever here.

What is needed is a way to implement the lever as a separate though inseparable part of the nefarious machine object. The component class provides for this.

```hugo
component lever "lever"
{
    part_of nefarious_machine
    article "a"
    noun "lever"
}
```

The part_of property specifies the primary object (the nefarious machine) of which this object (the lever) is a component; it is not necessary to place the component object in the primary object; in fact, doing so will probably lead to all manner of extra complications especially if the primary object isn’t a container or platform, isn’t open, etc. A component object will automatically be available to the player whenever the primary object is.

### X.e. Doors

Doors are fairly common objects, and a given game—particularly one with a significant number of indoor locations—will likely make frequent use of them. The unfortunate thing is that they can be somewhat finicky and repetitive to code, ensuring that they respond to opening, closing, locking (if applicable), providing an appropriate open or closed description, and behaving appropriately from either side. The object library’s door class provides a simple implementation that will largely suffice for most basic doors.

Here’s how to put a simple door between the kitchen and living_room locations created above:

```hugo
door kitchen_door "kitchen door"
{
```
between kitchen, living_room
article "the"
adjective "kitchen"
noun "door"
}

The between property takes care of making the room available in both locations as well as determining where the player travels to when leaving either location. In order to incorporate the door into the kitchen and living_room locations, it's only necessary to change the two room objects to specify:

n_to
{
    return kitchen_door.door_to
}
for the kitchen object and

s_to
{
    return kitchen_door.door_to
}
for the living_room object. Notice that the use of kitchen_door.door_to is the same for both; the door class's door_to property returns the appropriate location from the between property depending on where the player is when the door_to property is checked. The door_to property will also automatically result in an attempt to open a closed door (by calling the DoOpen verb routine), resulting in an additional turn by calling the Main routine.

X.f. Vehicles

Less frequently used but somewhat more complex than doors are vehicles. Anything from a car to a UFO to a wild zebra may make an appearance in a game, and often it is necessary that the player be able to use that object—whatever it may be—as a means of moving around the game's geography. The object library's vehicle class provides a generic class that can be used to implement any of these (just for starters), allowing behavior like the following:

>GET ON THE HORSE
You get on the wild mustang.

>RIDE WEST
Dusty Trail
This trail leads southwest out of town toward the river valley and the old prospector's camp.

Note: Before using vehicle objects it is necessary to set the compiler flag USE_VEHICLES.

Create a vehicle from the vehicle class like this:

```hugo
vehicle mustang "wild mustang"
{
    article "a"
    adjectives "wild", "untamed"
    nouns "mustang", "horse"
    vehicle_verb "ride"
    preposition "on", "off"
}
```

The vehicle_verb property provides one or more synonyms for the verb used to “drive” this particular vehicle object. In the case of a horse, it is appropriately “ride”. The preposition property defaults in the vehicle class itself defaults to “in” and “out”, but in the case of a horse should be changed to the more suitable “on” and “off”.

It is also necessary to provide grammar to relate the words in the vehicle_verb list to the object library’s DoMoveInVehicle routine. Grammar he following is recommended:

```hugo
verb "<verb1>"[, "<verb2>",...]
* object    DoMoveinVehicle
```

So, for our horse “vehicle”, something like the following might suffice:

```hugo
verb "ride"
* object    DoMoveinVehicle
```

It is possible to easily maintain some control over whether a vehicle is currently capable of moving via the vehicle_move property. This property, which is true by default, can return false (after printing an appropriate failure message) if the vehicle is currently not capable of being driven (or ridden or sailed or whatever the appropriate action may be).
To prevent the player from riding the mustang until the horse has been fed, implement a `vehicle_move` property similar to this:

```plaintext
vehicle_move
{
    if self is not fed ! assuming a 'fed' attribute
    {
        "This horse isn't going anywhere until you feed it."
        return false
    }
    else
    return true
}
```

And finally, it is also necessary to give the vehicle some idea about where it is able to move. Every location that a vehicle may travel to must contain the vehicle in a `vehicle_path` property. For instance, a location to which both the mustang and a wagon object may move would need:

```plaintext
vehicle_path mustang, wagon
```

X.g. **Plural and Identical Objects**

Sometimes it is desirable to have a player be able to (or required to) refer to multiple objects as a group, or to be able to refer to only a certain number of such objects out of a larger group even if all the objects are identical. The object library’s `plural_class` and `identical_class` make these sorts of things possible.

**Note:** Before using plural or identical objects it is necessary to set the compiler flag `USE_PLURAL_OBJECTS` and call `InitPluralObjects` (usually in the `Init` routine).

The `plural_class` is used in situations where two or more similar objects may be grouped together and referred to as a unit. For instance:

```plaintext
There are a fudge sundae and a butterscotch sundae here.

>GET BUTTERSCOTCH SUNDAE
Taken.

>GET FUDGE SUNDAE
```
All’s well and good. But it would also maybe be nice to be able to take both at the same time.

>GET SUNDAES
  fudge_sundae: Taken.
  butterscotch_sundae: Taken.

That’s where the plural_class comes in.

plural_class sundaes "sundaes"
{
    plural_of fudge_sundae, butterscotch_sundae
    noun "sundaes"
    single_noun "sundae"
}

object fudge_sundae "fudge sundae"
{
    article "a"
    adjective "fudge"
    noun "sundae"
    plural_is sundaes
}

object butterscotch_sundae "butterscotch_sundae"
{
    article "a"
    adjective "butterscotch"
    noun "sundae"
    plural_is sundaes
}51

The plural_of property on the plural class enumerates the objects which it encompasses; each object encompassed by the plural class then points back to the plural class in its plural_is property.

The plural_verbs property governs which verbs may be used on the plural object. The plural_class class itself provides a default plural_verbs which allows basic verb routines like DoLook, DoDrop, DoGet, and DoPutIn to be used. Other actions will result in a response on the order of “You’ll have to

51 One could prevent duplication of properties and other parts of the object definitions by creating a common sundae class and deriving both fudge_sundae and butterscotch_sundae from it, changing only the adjective property.
do that one at a time”. To change the possible actions for a given plural object, provide a custom plural_verbs replacement that returns true only if the verbroutine global variable is a valid verbroutine for the object.

Now, consider the following:

There are five bananas here.

>GET TWO BANANAS
banana: Taken.
banana: Taken.

>INVENTORY
You are carrying two bananas.

>LOOK
There are three bananas here.

Something like that can be done easily by creating an identical object from the identical_class in the object library. The identical_class is similar to the plural_class except for a couple details of implementation and behavior.

```
identical_class bananas "bananas"
{
    plural_of banana1, banana2, banana3, banana4, banana5
    noun "bananas"
    single_noun "banana"
}
```

```
object banana1 "banana"
{
    noun "banana"
    identical_to bananas
}
```

```
banana1 banana2 "banana"52
{}
```

```
banana1 banana3 "banana"
{}
```

...  

52 Using banana1 as a class to build subsequent banana objects from is a simple way of copying objects (and saves typing and/or copying-and-pasting).
The identical object bananas will allow a player to use all the facilities of the identical_class in order to manipulate one or more otherwise indistinguishable banana objects.\textsuperscript{53}

X.h. Attachables

Ropes and other similar objects—anything, really, which ties onto something else or, even worse, ties \textit{between} two or more objects—are notoriously difficult to code. Safe advice on how to code a rope used to be: code a block of wood instead. The object library provides an attachable class which has successfully been used for everything from ropes to blankets to three-ended chains and darts.\textsuperscript{54}

\textbf{Note:} Before using attachable objects it is necessary to set the compiler flag USE.Attachables.

The attachable class’s attachable_to property contains a list of all items to which the object may be attached. The attached_to property contains a list of all the objects to which the attachable object currently is attached. When defined, it must be given an appropriate number of elements. For instance, something that is attachable to only one object would have

\begin{verbatim}
attached_to 0
\end{verbatim}

while, for instance, a rope that can be tied between two other objects must have:

\begin{verbatim}
attached_to 0, 0
\end{verbatim}

The 0 value (the nothing object) is just an empty placeholder for the attached_to property. If the attachable’s initial state is to be attached to a given object, that object can be used instead. For example, a harness that is already attached to a wagon, but which can also be attached to six horses (objects) at the same time, might be initialized as follows:

\begin{verbatim}
attached_to wagon, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0
\end{verbatim}

with room for seven elements.

\textsuperscript{53} The author encourages the implementation of bananas in any game. More bananas mean more monkeys, and monkeys are always fun.

\textsuperscript{54} See \texttt{sample.hug} for examples of the last two.
The `attach_take` and `attach_drop` properties are less frequently used. If `attach_take` is true, an attempt to take (via calling the `DoTake` verb routine) the attachable is made before attaching (or detaching) it. If `attach_drop` is true, the object is automatically dropped after it is attached.

The `attach_verbs` and `detach_verbs` properties contain lists of all valid verbs to attach or detach the object. The `DoAttachObject` and `DoDetachObject` verb routines can be used by all basic attachables, with new grammar specified for the object (corresponding exactly to the verb lists in `attach_verbs` and `detach_verbs`) as in:

```
verb "<verb1>"[", "<verb2>"],...
  *                       DoVague
  * object                DoAttachObject
  * object "to" xobject   DoAttachObject
...
```

For instance:

```
verb "tie", "fasten"
  *                       DoVague
  * object                DoAttachObject
  * object "to" xobject   DoAttachObject
```

`DoAttachObject` expects a second object (the `xobject`) to be given as the target for the object to be attached to; the routine itself contains appropriate error-handling if only one object is supplied.

To attach and detach an attachable from an object, use the `AttachObject` and `DetachObject` routines:

```
AttachObject(attachable_object, to_object)
```

and

```
DetachObject(attachable_object, from_object)
```

Either routine returns true on success or false on failure.

To check if a particular object is kept immovable by an attachable, call `ObjectisAttached(this_object)`; it returns the object number of the attachable keeping `this_object` from moving, or false if there is no such impediment and `this_object` is free to move. Also, any routine that moves the player or player’s parent—such as `MovePlayer` or `DoMoveinVehicle`—should call `MoveAllAttachables` to reconcile the location of attached objects (since they are not necessarily connected via the object tree).
Objects with the mobile attribute set may be dragged. Non-attachables may have an attach_immobile property, which governs whether they may be pulled, dragged, etc. by returning false when freely moveable or true if something is keeping it from moving. In the second case, attach_immobile is also responsible for printing any explanatory message.
X. USING THE OBJECT LIBRARY

X.i. What Should I Be Able To Do Now?

By now you should feel comfortable experimenting with the classes in the object library. You should be able to look at the various implementations of scenery, components, characters, doors, vehicles, identical/plural objects, and attachables in existing code (such as in sample.hug) and not only understand what the various properties of the objects are for, but also how to modify them to achieve a desired effect.

You should, for instance, be able to implement the following:

1. Two rooms, such as a garden and a shed;
2. A door leading into the shed;
3. Various static scenery objects in each location;
4. A dozen identical roses;
5. A rideable bicycle vehicle kept from going anywhere by a locked attachable bicycle lock; and even
6. A gardener character who is capable of answering questions about the things in the shed and the garden.
XI. ADVANCED FEATURES

XI.a. The Display Object

The display object is a special object with which the Hugo Engine interacts to allow the program to be knowledgeable about as well as set certain characteristics of the display. The engine provides access to the following read-only properties (although the names themselves are defined in `hugolib.h`):

- `screenwidth` - width of the display, in characters
- `screenheight` - height of the display, in characters
- `linelength` - width of the current text window
- `windowlines` - height of the current text window
- `cursor_column` - horizontal and vertical position of
- `cursor_row` - the cursor in the current text window
- `hasgraphics` - returns true if graphic display is available
- `hasvideo` - returns true if video playback is available
- `pointer_x` - horizontal mouse position (in characters)
- `pointer_y` - vertical mouse position (in characters)

Note: In this usage, “display” refers to the virtual screen usable by the Hugo Engine. Depending on the mode of the engine, this may refer to the full-screen (as for terminal-based ports) or a subsection thereof (i.e., for the engine running in a window).

Additionally, the following display object properties are also writable by a program:

- `title_caption` - sets the window title for the game (where supported)
XI. ADVANCED FEATURES

needs_repaint - set to true when the GUI display changes (such as when window size is changed); may then be reset to false by the program

The Hugo Library also defines the normal read/writable:

statusline_height - of the last-printed status line

In order for the engine to properly identify the display object, it selects the object (if any) with the textual name “(display)”, i.e., an object that is defined as

object display
{
    ...
}

with no explicit textual name. This is how the Hugo Library defines the display object, so that the various display object properties are readable as display.screenheight, display.cursor_column, etc.

XI.b. Windows

It is possible to create an enclosing window within the full-screen display for text output. Cursor position, line-wrapping, etc. are trimmed to the boundaries of the current window. Cursor positioning and window boundaries are always calculated in fixed-width character dimensions. Various syntaxes for the window statement are:

window 0 Restores full-screen output

window n Creates a window of n lines, bordering
{...} on the top edge and sides of the full-screen

window l, t, r, b Creates a window with the left-top
{...} corner (l, t) and the right-bottom corner (r, b), where these coordinates
are character coordinates on the full-screen

window Redraws the last-defined window
{...}
Each usage except “window 0” is followed by a block of code during which, normally, text is output to the window. The window (i.e., its boundaries) exists for the duration of the “{...}” block. After it finishes, the top of the main text window is redefined as being immediately below the lowest-drawn window. To clear the record of any window and restore the main text window to the full-screen, use “window 0”.

A windowing library file exists called window.h which defines a window_class and the associated properties so a window object can be created via:

```c
window_class <window name> "title"
{
    win_position  <screen column>, <screen row>
    win_size      <columns>, <rows>
    win_textcolor <text color>
    win_backcolor <background color>
    win_titlecolor <title text>
    win_titleback <title background>
}
```

The window_class also incorporates the property routines win_init, win_clear, and win_end.

Note: It may be important to keep in mind that measures such as display.screenwidth may change during execution, particularly in a graphical user interface windowing environment which allows resizing of the Hugo program window. For this reason, it is wise to resample display.<property> whenever a window is to be drawn instead of basing the coordinates on, for example, a set of boundaries calculated during program initialization.

XI.c. Reading And Writing Files

There may be times when it will be useful to store data in a file for later recovery. The most basic way of doing this involves

```c
x = save
```

and
x = restore

where save and restore return a true value if successful, or a false value if for some reason they fail. The user is prompted for a filename, and, in either case, the entire set of game data—including object locations, variable values, arrays, attributes, etc.—is saved or restored, as appropriate.

Other times, it may be desirable to save only certain values. For example, a particular game may allow a player to create certain player characteristics or other “remembered data” that can be restored in the same game or in different games. To accomplish this, use the writefile and readfile operations.

The structure

```
writefile <filename>
{
  ...
}
```

will, at the start of the writefile block, open <filename> for writing and position <filename> to the start of the (empty) file. (If the file exists, it will be cleared/erased.) At the conclusion of the block, the file will be closed again.

Within a writefile block, write individual values using

```
writeval <value1>[, <value2>, ...]
```

where one or more values can be specified.

To read the file, use the structure

```
readfile <filename>
{
  ...
}
```

which will contain the assignment

```
x = readval
```

for each value to be read, where x can be any storage type such as a variable, property, etc.

For example:

```
local count, test
```
count = 10
writefile "testfile"
{
    writeval count, "telephone", 10
    test = FILE_CHECK
    writeval test
}
if test ~= FILE_CHECK ! an error has occurred
{
    print "An error has occurred."
}

will write the variable count, the dictionary entry “telephone”, and the value 10 to “testfile”. Then,

local a, b, c, test

readfile "testfile"
{
    a = readval
    b = readval
    c = readval
    test = readval
}
if test ~= FILE_CHECK ! an error has occurred
{
    print "Error reading file."
}

If the readfile block executes successfully, a will be equal to the former value count, b will be “telephone”, and c will be 10.

The constant FILE_CHECK, defined in hugolib.h, is useful because writefile and readfile provide no explicit error return to indicate failure. FILE_CHECK is a unique two-byte sequence that can be used to test for success. In the writefile block, if the block is exited prematurely due to an error, test will never be set to FILE_CHECK. The if statement following the block tests for this. In the readfile block, test will only be set to FILE_CHECK if the sequence of readval functions finds the expected number of values in “testfile”. If there are too many or too few values in “testfile”, or if an error forces an early exit from the readfile block, test will equal a value other than FILE_CHECK.
XI.d. **Mouse Input**

If the player clicks somewhere on the screen with the mouse pointer (or
taps on the screen on a handheld device, or whatever the comparable action is
for the platform in question), a Hugo program may read that action. Specifically,
a `pause` statement, which normally stores the ASCII value of a keypress in
`word[0]`, will instead store the value `MOUSE_CLICK` (defined in `hugolib.h` to
be 1) if the mouse is clicked while the engine is waiting for that keypress.

A mouse click (or equivalent action) has no effect during player input—
i.e., when the program is waiting for a typed command—unless the individual
port provides some behavior such as bringing up a menu, entering a double-
clicked word into the input line, etc. The running Hugo program cannot itself
monitor mouse input during typed input.

As mentioned above, the display object provides the read-only properties
`pointer_x` and `pointer_y`, which give the horizontal and vertical position of
the mouse (in characters) respectively.
XII. RESOURCES

XII.a. Creating And Using Resources

The engine allows a Hugo program to access external media data (called resources) compiled into a specially formatted file called a resourcefile. Resourcefiles contain sounds, music, images, and video files used by the program. A resourcefile is created using:

```resource "<resourcefile>"
{
  "<resource1>"
  "<resource2>"
  ...
}
```

The `<resourcefile>` name must be 8 or fewer alphanumeric characters which will automatically be converted to all-uppercase. (The reason for this is to maximize portability across different platforms and filenaming systems—unfortunately not everyone adheres to the same conventions, so this restriction is intended to reduce filenaming to the lowest common denominator.)

Currently Hugo supports as resources: JPEG graphic files, RIFF/WAV audio samples, MOD/S3M/XM music modules, MIDI and MP3 songs, and MPEG and AVI movies.\(^{55}\)

For example, here is an imaginary example resourcefile compiled on a Windows platform:

```resource "GAMERES1"
{
  "c:\hugo\graphics\logo.jpg"
  "h:\data\scenic panorama.jpg"
  "h:\data\background.jpg"
```

\(^{55}\) Versions of Hugo prior to v3.0 may not support all resource types. See APPENDIX F: HUGO VERSIONS for more information.
It doesn’t matter that the nomenclature within a resource definition is non-portable. In the above “GAMERES1”, for example, the filenaming is specific to Windows, since that’s where the original files will be found. The resources, however, are accessed only by their filenames as entries in the resourcefile index. Therefore, after “GAMERES1” is created, the three pictures are referred to as “logo”, “scenic panorama” and “background” within the resourcefile “GAMERES1”. (Note that any drive/path or extension specification is removed and not included in the index. As a result, two resources with the same name but different paths/extensions cannot be written into the same resourcefile.)

Because of the relative non-portability of resourcefiles (plus the additional time it may take on slower machines to index and consolidate potentially hundreds of kilobytes of data), it is recommended that resources be compiled from separate source files than the rest of a Hugo game.

The library extension resource.h provides useful routines for managing resources in a Hugo program. It also defines the following potential values for the system_status global, which may be tested after a resource operation. If system_status is non-zero (where zero signifies normal status), it will contain one of the following values:

-1 STAT_UNAVAILABLE
101 STAT_NOFILE
102 STAT_NORESOURCE
103 STAT_LOADERROR

XII.b. Pictures

A picture is displayed as a resource in a resourcefile using:

    picture "<resourcefile">", "<picture>"

For example,

    picture "gameres1", "logo"

---

56 The result codes are defined in resource.h.
(It is also possible to enter the path of a picture directly, such as

```
picture "c:\hugo\graphics\logo.jpg"
```

but since this path/filename is obviously operating-system-specific, it should be used for testing only. If the named picture is not found in the given resourcefile, the engine will similarly try to load the picture as an independent file from the current search path(s.)

The picture will be displayed in the currently defined text window. If the picture is smaller than the current window, it will be centered. If larger, it will be shrunk to fit. If the particular version of the Hugo Engine being used is not graphics-enabled, picture will have no effect. If the picture is not found or a recoverable error occurs during loading, normal engine execution continues uninterrupted.

`resource.h` provides a couple of useful routines for managing graphics:

```
LoadPicture("resourcefile", "picture")
LoadPicture("picture")

PictureinText("file", "pic", width, height, preserve)
PictureinText("picture", width, height, preserve)
```

`LoadPicture` is essentially a simple wrapper for the `picture` statement, providing the additional service of checking `display.hasgraphics` to ensure that graphics display is available. `PictureinText` is slightly more complex. It allows a picture to be displayed in the normal flow of text in the main window. The `<width>` and `<height>` arguments give the fixed-width character dimensions of the display area. (Because displays differ in their character dimensions, it is recommended to calculate these based on `display.screenwidth` and `display.screenheight` instead of passing absolute values.) The `<preserve>` parameter, if given, specifies the number of lines (i.e., one or more) at the top of the screen that are protected from scrolling off.

(Either `LoadPicture` or `PictureinText` can be called with only a picture, i.e., with no resourcefile named. In this case, `resource.h` will attempt to find the resource in the last used resourcefile, stored in the `last_resource_file` global. Wherever possible, however, it is recommended to always specify the resourcefile name.)

**XII.c. Sound And Music**

Sounds and music are played as follows:
XII. RESOURCES

sound [repeat] <resourcefile>, <resource>[], <vol>
music [repeat] <resourcefile>, <resource>[], <vol>

The repeat keyword is optional; if supplied, it forces the engine to repeatedly play the sound/music resource until further notice (i.e., until it is stopped or a new sound/music resource is played). The <vol> argument is optional. If given, it gives a volume percentage (0-100) for playback. Currently playing sound or music can be stopped using:

sound 0
music 0

resource.h provides a pair of wrapper functions to manage playing of audio resources:

PlaySound(resourcefile, sample, loop, force)
PlayMusic(resourcefile, song, loop, force)

In either case, if <loop> is true, it has the same effect as using the repeat token after sound or music. If <force> is true, the sample or song is restarted even if that same sample or song is already playing (otherwise the PlaySound or PlayMusic call will have essentially no effect). To stop a sample or song from playing via the library interface, use:

PlaySound(SOUND_STOP)
PlayMusic(MUSIC_STOP)

(where SOUND_STOP and MUSIC_STOP are constants defined in resource.h).

XII.d. Video

Video is displayed similarly to static graphic images (that is, it is displayed in the currently window) and controlled similarly to music and sound. The syntax for playing video looks like:

video [repeat] <resfile>, <res>[], <vol>, <bkground>

The video resource res is played from resourcefile resfile, at the volume vol. If the optional repeat keyword is used, the video plays in a loop, starting over at the beginning when it hits the end. Normally the engine waits for the video to finish playing. If the bkground parameter is given and is non-
false, the video plays in the background and the program continues to run, the player may type input, etc. In combination with the repeat token, this is useful for creating background/scenic animations.
APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF KEYWORDS AND COMMANDS

and

Description: Logical AND.

Syntax: \( x = <\text{value1}> \text{ and } <\text{value2}> \)

Result: \( x \) will be true if \(<\text{value1}> \text{ and } <\text{value2}> \) are both non-zero, false if one or both is zero.

anything

Description: Object specifier in grammar syntax line, indicating that any nameable object in the object tree is valid.

array

Description: When used as a data type modifier, specifies that the following value is to be treated as an array address.

Example: \(<\text{var1}> = \text{array } <\text{var2}>[<\text{n}>] \)

The variable \(<\text{var2}> \) will be treated as an array address.

break

Description: Terminates the immediate enclosing loop.

Example: while \(<\text{expression1}> \)
{ while \(<\text{expression2}> \)
{  
    if <expression3>
    break
    ...
}  
  ...
}

The break statement, if encountered, will terminate the innermost loop.

call

Description: Calls a routine indirectly, i.e., when the routine address has been stored in a variable, object property, etc.

Syntax: call <value>[(<arg1>, <arg2>,...)]

or

x = call <value>(...)

where <value> is a valid data type holding the routine address.

Value: When used as a function, returns the value returned by the specified routine.

capital

Description: Print statement modifier, indicating that the next word should be printed with the first letter capitalized.

Syntax: print capital <address>

where <address> is any dictionary word, such as, for example, an object.name property.
APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF KEYWORDS AND COMMANDS

**case**

**Description:** Specifies a conditional case in a `select` structure.

**Syntax:**
```
select <val>
    case <case1>[, <case2>,...]
    ...
    case <case3>[, <case4>,...]
    ...
```

where `<val>` is value such as a variable, routine return value, object property, array element, etc., and each `<case>` is a single value for comparison (not an expression).

**child**

**Syntax:**
```
x = child(<parent>)
```

**Return value:** The object number of the immediate child object of `<parent>`, or 0 if `<parent>` has no children.

**children**

**Syntax:**
```
x = children(<parent>)
```

**Return value:** The number of child objects possessed by `<parent>`.

**cls**

**Description:** Clears the current text window repositions the output coordinates at the bottom left of the text window.

**Syntax:**
```
cls
```

**color (colour)**

**Description:** Sets the display colors for text output.

**Syntax:**
```
color <foreground>[, <background>]
```
where <background> is optional

**Parameters:**
Standard color values for <foreground> and <background> with constants defined in `hugolib.h` (see page 59) are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Value</th>
<th>Color</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Black</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Cyan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Magenta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Brown</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>White</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Dark gray</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Light blue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Light green</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Light cyan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Light red</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Light magenta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Light yellow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Bright white</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**dict**

**Description:** Dynamically creates a new dictionary entry at runtime.

**Syntax:**

\[
x = \text{dict}(<array>, <maxlen>)
\]

\[
x = \text{dict}(\text{parse$}, <maxlen>)
\]

where <array> or parse$ holds the string to be written into the dictionary, and <maxlen> represents the maximum number of characters to be written. Returns the new dictionary address.

**Note:** Space should be reserved for any dictionary entries to be created at runtime using the `$MAXDICTEXTEND` setting during compilation.
do

Description: Marks the starting point of a do-while loop.

Syntax:
```
do
{
    ...
}
while <expr>
```

The loop will continue to run as long as `<expr>` holds true.

elder

Syntax:
```
x = elder(<object>)
```

Return value: The object number of the object preceding `<object>` on the same branch in the object tree. The reverse of sibling.

eldest

Same as child.

else

Description: In an if-elseif-else conditional block, indicates the default operation if no previous condition has been met.

Syntax:
```
if <condition>
    ...
else
    ...
```

elseif

Description: In an if-elseif-else conditional block, indicates a condition that will be checked only if no preceding condition has been met.
Syntax:
if <condition1>
    ...
elseif <condition2>
    ...
elseif <condition3>
    ...

false
Description: A predefined constant value: 0.

for
Description: Loop construction.
Syntax:
for (<initial>; <test>; <mod>)
{   ...
}
for <var> in <object>
{   ...
}

For the first form, where <initial> is the initial assignment expression (e.g. a = 1), <test> is the test expression (e.g. a < 10), and <mod> is the modifying expression (e.g. a = a + 1). The loop will execute as long as <test> holds true.

The second form loops through all the children of <object> (if any), setting <var> to each child object in sequence.

held
Description: Object specifier in grammar syntax line, indicating that any single object possessed by the player object is valid.
APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF KEYWORDS AND COMMANDS

**hex**

**Description:** Print statement modifier signifying that the following value is not a dictionary address, but should be printed as a hexadecimal number.

**Syntax:**

```
print hex <var>
```

where, for example, `<var>` is equal to 26, will print “1A”.

**if**

**Description:** A conditional expression.

**Syntax:**

```
if <condition>
    ...
```

where `<condition>` is an expression or value, will run the following statement block only if `<condition>` is true.

**in**

**Description:** When used in an object definition, places the object in the object tree as a possession of the specified parent. When used in an expression, returns true if the object is in the specified parent.

**Syntax:**

```
in <parent>
```

or, for example:

```
if <object> [not] in <parent>
{
    ...
}
```
input

Description: Receive input from keyboard, storing the dictionary addresses of the individual words in the word array. Unrecognized words are given a value of 0.

Syntax: input

is

Description: Attribute assignment/testing.

Syntax: <object> is [not] <attribute>

Usage: When used as an assignment on its own, will set (or clear, if not is used) the specified attribute for the given object. May also be used in an expression.

Return value: When used in an expression, returns true if <object> has the specified attribute set (or cleared, if not is used). Otherwise, it returns false.

jump

Description: Jumps to a specified label.

Syntax: jump <label>

where a unique <label> exists on a separate line somewhere in the program, in the form:

: <label>

local

Description: Defines one or more variables local to the current routine.

Syntax: local <var1>[, <var2>, <var3>,...]}
APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF KEYWORDS AND COMMANDS

locate

Description: Sets the cursor position within the current text window.

Syntax: locate(<row>, <column>)

Note: The maximum horizontal/vertical cursor position is constrained by the boundaries of the current text window. The cursor position is calculated in fixed-width character coordinates.

move

Description: Moves an object with all its possessions to a new parent.

Syntax: move <object> to <new parent>

multi

Description: Object specifier in grammar syntax line, indicating that multiple available objects are valid.

multiheld

Description: Object specifier in grammar syntax line, indicating that multiple objects possessed by the player object are valid.

multinotheld

Description: Object specifier in grammar syntax line, indicating that multiple objects explicitly not held by the player object are valid.

music

Description: Load and play a music resource (if audio output is available).
music 0

where <file> is a compiled Hugo resource file, and <song> is a music module in MOD, S3M, or XM format. The optional <vol> argument, if given, ranges from 0 to 100 and gives a percentage of volume for playback. If the repeat token is used, the song continues to loop until either a new song is played, or the current song is stopped (using "music 0").

nearby

Description: Used in an object definition to place the object in the specified position in the object tree.

Syntax: nearby <object>

Gives the current object the same parent as <object>.

nearby

Gives the current object the same parent as the last-defined object.

newline

Description: Print statement modifier, indicating that a line feed and carriage return should be issued if the current output position is not already at the start of a blank line.

Syntax: print newline

not

Description: Logical not.
APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF KEYWORDS AND COMMANDS

Syntax:  
\[ x = \text{not } <\text{value}> \]

\[ <\text{object}> \text{ is not } <\text{attribute}> \]

Result:  
In the first example, \(x\) will be true if \(<\text{value}>\) is false, or false if \(<\text{value}>\) is true.

In the second, the specified attribute will be cleared for \(<\text{object}>\) when used alone as an assignment. As part of an expression, it will return true only if \(<\text{object}>\) does not have \(<\text{attribute}>\) set.

\textit{notheld}

Description:  
Object specifier in grammar syntax line, indicating that a single object explicitly not held by the player object is valid.

\textit{number}

Description:  
When used in a grammar syntax line, indicates that a single positive integer number is valid.

When used as a \texttt{print} statement modifier, indicates that the following value is not a dictionary address, but should be printed as a positive integer number.

Syntax:  
(for usage as a \texttt{print} statement modifier)

\texttt{print number <val>}

where, for example, \(<\text{val}>\) is equal to 100, will print “100” instead of the word beginning at the address 100 in the dictionary table.

\textit{object}

Description:  
Global variable holding the object number of the direct object, if any, specified in the input line.
When used in a grammar syntax line, indicates that a single available object is valid.

**or**

**Description:** Logical OR.

**Syntax:**

\[ x = \text{<value1> or <value2>} \]

**Result:**

\( x \) will be true if either \(<\text{value1}>\) or \(<\text{value2}>\) is non-false, or false if both are false.

**parent**

(Usage 1)

**Syntax:**

\[ x = \text{parent(<object>)} \]

**Return value:** The object number of \(<\text{object}>\)’s parent object.

(Usage 2)

**Description:** When used in a grammar syntax line, indicates that the domain for validating the availability of the specified direct object should be set to the parent object specified in the input line.

**parse$**

**Description:** Read-only engine variable that contains either the offending portion of an invalid input line or any section of the input line enclosed in quotes.

**pause**

**Description:** Pauses until a key is pressed. The value of the key is stored in word[0].
APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF KEYWORDS AND COMMANDS

**picture**

**Description:** Load and display an image resource in the currently defined window (if graphics are available).

**Syntax:**

\[
\text{picture } "<\text{resourcefile}>", "<\text{picture}>"
\]

\[
\text{picture } "<\text{picturefile}>"
\]

where, while \(<\text{resourcefile}>\) is optional, it is very highly recommended (otherwise, \(<\text{picturefile}>\) will likely not be named in a cross-platform portable format).

**playback**

**Description:** Plays back recorded commands from a file in place of keyboard input (by prompting the user).

**Syntax:**

\[
x = \text{playback}
\]

**Return value:** True if successful, false if not.

**print**

**Description:** Print text output.

**Syntax:**

\[
\text{print } <\text{output}>
\]

where \(<\text{output}>\) can consist of both test strings enclosed in quotation marks ("..."), and values representing dictionary addresses, such as object names. Separate components of \(<\text{output}>\) are separated by a semicolon (';'). Each component may also be preceded by a modifier such as capital, hex, or number.

**printchar**

**Description:** Prints a character or series of characters at the current cursor position. No newline is printed.
Syntax: printchar <val1>[, <val2>, ...]

quit

Description: Terminates the game loop.

Syntax: quit

random

Description: Engine function which generates a random number.

Syntax: x = random(<val>)

Return value: Where <val> is a positive integer number, will return a random number between 1 and <val>, inclusively.

readfile

Description: A structure that allows values to be read from a file written using writeFile.

Syntax: readFile <filename> {
   ... 
} 

The file is opened and positioned to the start at the beginning of the readFile block, and closed at the end.

readval

Description: Reads a value in a readFile block.

Syntax: x = readval

Value: The value read, or 0 in the case of an error. Use the FILE_CHECK constant defined in hugolib.h to
APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF KEYWORDS AND COMMANDS

determine if a readfile block has been executed successfully.

recordoff

Description: Ends recording commands to a file.

Syntax: \[ x = \text{recordoff} \]

Value: True if successful, false if not.

recordon

Description: Begins recording commands to a file (by prompting the user).

Syntax: \[ x = \text{recordon} \]

Value: True if successful, false if not.

remove

Description: Removes an object from the object tree.

Syntax: \[ \text{remove} <\text{object}> \]

(The same as: move <object> to 0)

restart

Description: Reloads the initial game data from the .HEX file and calls the Init routine.

Syntax: \[ x = \text{restart} \]

Note: The restart statement does not technically restart the engine; the game loop continues uninterrupted after Init is called, only with the game data restored to its initial state.
Value: True if successful, false if not.

**restore**

**Description:** Restores a saved game’s state data from a previously saved file (by prompting the user).

**Syntax:**

```
x = restore
```

**Value:** True if successful, false if not.

**return**

**Description:** Returns from a called routine.

**Syntax:**

```
return [<expression>]
```

**Return value:** Returns `<expression>` if provided, otherwise returns false.

**run**

**Description:** Runs an object property routine if one exists.

**Syntax:**

```
run <object>.<property>
```

**Return value:** None; any value returned by the property routine is discarded.

**runevents**

**Description:** Calls all events which are either global or currently within the event scope of the player object.

**Syntax:**

```
runevents
```

**save**

**Description:** Saves the current game state to a file (by prompting the user).
Syntax: \[ x = \text{save} \]
Value: True if successful, false if not.

**scriptoff**

Description: Turns transcription off.
Syntax: \[ x = \text{scriptoff} \]
Value: True if successful, false if not.

**scripton**

Description: Turns transcription (i.e., recording output to a file or to a printer) on.
Syntax: \[ x = \text{scripton} \]
Value: True if successful, false if not.

**select**

Description: Specifies the value for comparison in a select-case conditional structure.
Syntax: \[
\text{select } \text{<val>}
\text{ case } \text{<case1>}[, \text{<case2>}, \ldots]
\ldots
\text{ case } \text{<case3>}[, \text{<case4>}, \ldots]
\ldots
\]

where \text{<val>} is value such as a variable, routine return value, object property, array element, etc., and each \text{<case>} is a single value for comparison (not an expression).
serial$

Description: Read-only engine variable that contains the serial number as written by the compiler.

Sibling

Syntax: $x = sibling(<object>)$

Return value: The number of the object next to $<object>$ on the same branch of the object tree.

Sound

Description: Load and play an audio sample resource (if waveform audio output is available).

Syntax: 

\[
\text{sound [repeat]} \ "file"'', \ "sample"[, vol] \\
\text{sound 0}
\]

where $<file>$ is a compiled Hugo resource file, and $<sample>$ is a waveform sample in RIFF/WAV format. The optional $<vol>$ argument, if given, ranges from 0 to 100 and gives a percentage of volume for playback. If the repeat token is used, the sample continues to loop until either a new sample is played, or the current sample is stopped (using “sound 0”).

String

Description: When used in a grammar syntax line, indicates that a string array enclosed in quotation marks is valid. When used as a function, stores a dictionary entry in a string array.

Syntax: 

\[
\text{x = string(<array>, <dict>, <maxlen>)} \\
\text{x = string(<array>, parse$, <maxlen>)}
\]
where <array> is an array address, stores the either the dictionary entry given by <dict> or the contents of parse$ as a series of characters, to a maximum of <maxlen> characters. Returns the length of the string stored in <array>.

**system**

**Description:** Built-in function to call low-level system functions.

**Syntax:**

```
system(<function>)
```

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUNC.</th>
<th>LABEL</th>
<th>DESCRIPTION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>READ_KEY</td>
<td>Read keypress</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>NORMALIZE_RANDOM</td>
<td>Make random values predictable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>INIT_RANDOM</td>
<td>Restore “random” random values</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>PAUSE_SECOND</td>
<td>Pause for one second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>PAUSE_100TH_SECOND</td>
<td>Pause for 1/100th of a second</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>GAME_RESET</td>
<td>Returns true after restore or undo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51</td>
<td>SYSTEM_TIME</td>
<td>Stores system time in parse$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>MINIMAL_INTERFACE</td>
<td>Returns true for minimal ports</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*(Labels are defined as constants in system.h.)*

If <function> is unavailable, the engine may set `system_status` to -1 (STAT_UNAVAILABLE).

**text**

**Description:** Sends text to the array table, beginning at address <val>.

**Syntax:**

```
<val> text to <val>
```

Restores normal printing.

**to**

**Description:** In a `print` statement, prints blank spaces in the current background color to the specified position.

**Syntax:**

```
<val> print to <val>
```
where `<val>` is a positive integer less than or equal to the maximum column position

**true**

**Description:** Predefined constant: 1.

**undo**

**Description:** Attempts to recover the state of the game data before the last player command.

**Syntax:**

```
x = undo
```

**Value:** True if successful, false if not.

**verb**

**Description:** Begins definition of a regular verb. Upon returning true from the verb routine, `Main` is called.

**Syntax:**

```
verb "<word1>"[, "<word2>"],...
```

**while**

**Description:** Component of `while` or `do-while` loop construct.

**Syntax:**

```
while <expr>
{
   ...
}
```

or

```
do
{
   ...
}
while <expr>
```
APPENDIX A: SUMMARY OF KEYWORDS AND COMMANDS

where the loop will run as long as <expr> holds true.

window

Description: Switches output to the status window.

Syntax: window a[, b, c, d]

{...}

or

window

{...}

or

window 0

If only a single value <a> is given, a window of <a> lines from the top of the screen is created. If more values are given, a window from top-left (a, b) to bottom-right (c, d) is created. If no values are given, the last-defined window is recreated. The new boundaries apply for the length of the following “{...}” code block.

“window 0” restores full-screen display. There is no following code block.

writefile

Description: A structure that writes values to a file that may be read using readfile.

Syntax: writefile <filename>

{ 

... 

}

The file is opened and positioned to the start at the beginning of the writefile block, and closed at the end.
writeval

Description: Writes one or more values in a writefile block.

Syntax: `writefile value1[, value2, ...]`

xobject

Description: Global variable holding the object number of the indirect object, if any, specified in the input line.

When used in a grammar syntax line, indicates that a single available object is valid.

xverb

Description: Begins definition of non-action verb. Upon returning from the verb routine, Main is not called.

Syntax: `xverb "<word1>"[, "<word2>", ...]`

younger

Same as sibling.

youngest

Syntax: `x = youngest(<parent>)`

Return value: The number of the object most recently added to parent `<parent>`.
## Attributes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attribute</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>clothing</td>
<td>for objects that can be worn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>container</td>
<td>if an object can hold other objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enterable</td>
<td>if an object is enterable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>female</td>
<td>if a character is female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hidden</td>
<td>if an object is not to be listed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>known</td>
<td>if an object is known to the player</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>light</td>
<td>if an object is or provides light</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>living</td>
<td>if an object is a character</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lockable</td>
<td>if an object can be locked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>locked</td>
<td>if an object is locked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mobile</td>
<td>if an object can be rolled, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moved</td>
<td>if an object has been moved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>open</td>
<td>if an object is open</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>openable</td>
<td>if an object can be opened</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>platform</td>
<td>if other objects can be placed on it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td>for plural objects (i.e., some hats)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quiet</td>
<td>if container or platform is quiet (i.e., the initial listing of contents is suppressed)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>readable</td>
<td>if an object can be read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>special</td>
<td>for miscellaneous use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>static</td>
<td>if an object cannot be taken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>switchable</td>
<td>if an object can be turned on or off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>switchedon</td>
<td>if an object is on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transparent</td>
<td>if an object is not opaque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unfriendly</td>
<td>if a character is unfriendly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visited</td>
<td>if a room has been visited</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>worn</td>
<td>if an object is being worn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** `container` and `platform` are generally mutually exclusive.
For system use:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>already_listed</td>
<td>if object has been pre-listed (i.e., before, for example, a WhatsIn listing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>workflag</td>
<td>for system use</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GLOBALS**

The first 12 globals are pre-defined by the compiler:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>object</td>
<td>direct object of a verb action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>xobject</td>
<td>indirect object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self</td>
<td>self-referential object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words</td>
<td>total number of words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>player</td>
<td>the player object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actor</td>
<td>player, or another char. (for scripts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>location</td>
<td>location of the player object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verbroutine</td>
<td>the verb routine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>endflag</td>
<td>if not false (0), run EndGame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prompt</td>
<td>for the player input line</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>objects</td>
<td>the total number of objects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>system_status</td>
<td>after certain operations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Game setup global variables:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAX_SCORE</td>
<td>total possible score</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAX_RANK</td>
<td>up to ( x ) levels of player ranking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>player_person</td>
<td>first (1), second (2), or third (3)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Formatting/output global variables:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FORMAT</td>
<td>specifies text-printing format</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEFAULT_FONT</td>
<td>initially 0; could be set to, e.g., PROP_ON</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STATUSTYPE</td>
<td>0=none, 1=score/turns, 2=time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TEXTCOLOR</td>
<td>normal text color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BGCOLOR</td>
<td>normal background color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL_TEXTCOLOR</td>
<td>statusline text color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SL_BGCOLOR</td>
<td>statusline background color</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INDENT_SIZE</td>
<td>for paragraph indenting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AFTER_PERIOD</td>
<td>string of spaces following a full-stop</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Runtime global variables:

- counter: elapsed turns (or time, as desired)
- event_flag: set when something happens (see DoWait)
- general: for general use
- light_source: light source in location
- number_scripts: number of active character scripts
- obstacle: if something is stopping the player
- score: accumulated score
- speaking: if the player is talking to a character
- verbosity: for room descriptions
- it_obj: to reference objects via pronouns
- her_obj
- him_obj
- them_obj

The following are generally for system use, but may be accessed if necessary:

- customerror_flag: true once CustomError is called
- last_object: set by Perform to value of object
- list_nest: used by ListObjects
- need_newline: true when newline should be printed
- old_location: whenever location changes
- override_indent: true if no indent should be printed

ARRAYS

- _temp_array[256]: used by string manipulation functions
- menuitem[11]: required by the Menu function
- oldword[MAX_WORDS]: for “again” command
- parse_rank[]: for library parser state
- ranking[]: in tandem with scoring
- replace_pronoun[]: for it_obj, him_obj, etc.
- scriptdata[]: for object scripts
- setscript[]: the actual scripts

CONSTANTS

- BANNER: should be printed in every game header
MAX_SCRIPTS that may be active at one time
MAX_WORDS in a parsed input line

Color constants:

BLACK DARK_GRAY
BLUE LIGHT_BLUE
GREEN LIGHT_GREEN
CYAN LIGHT_CYAN
RED LIGHT_RED
MAGENTA LIGHT_MAGENTA
BROWN YELLOW
WHITE BRIGHT_WHITE

DEF_FOREGROUND DEF_BACKGROUND
DEF_SL_FOREGROUND DEF_SL_BACKGROUND
MATCH_FOREGROUND

Printing format mask constants (for setting the FORMAT global):

LIST_F print itemized lists, not sentences
NORECURSE_F do not recurse object contents
NOINDENT_F do not indent listings
DESCFORM_F alternate room description formatting
GROUPPLURALS_F list plurals together where possible

Font style mask constants (for use with the Font routine):

BOLD_ON BOLD_OFF boldface
ITALIC_ON ITALIC_OFF italics
UNDERLINE_ON UNDERLINE_OFF underline
PROP_ON PROP_OFF proportional printing

Additional constants:

UP_ARROW LEFT_ARROW for reading keystrokes
DOWN_ARROW ENTER_KEY
RIGHT_ARROW ESCAPE_KEY
MOUSE_CLICK

AND_WORD ("and")
ARE_WORD ("are")
HERE_WORD ("here")
IN_WORD ("in")
IS_WORD ("is")
ON_WORD ("on")
FILE_CHECK for verifying writefile and readfile operations

MENU_TEXTCOLOR normal menu text color
MENU_BGCOLOR normal menu background color
MENU_SELECTCOLOR menu highlight color
MENU_SELECTBGCOLOR menu highlight background color

PROPERTIES

The first 6 properties are pre-defined by the compiler:

name basic object name
before pre-verb routines
after post-verb routines
noun (nouns) noun(s) for referring to object
adjective (adjectives) adjective(s) describing object
article “a”, “an”, “the”, “some”, etc.

preposition (prep) “in”, “inside”, “outside of”, etc.\textsuperscript{57}
capacity contains a value representing the capacity of a container or platform
exclude_from_all returns true if the object should be excluded from actions such as “>GET ALL”
found_in in case of multiple virtual (not “physical”) parents, found_in may hold one or more object numbers; in this case, an “in <object>” specifier should probably not be included in the object definition, since found_in values are unrelated to “<object> in <parent>” relationships

\textsuperscript{57} Used generally for room objects in order to give a grammatically correct description if necessary; also for containers and platforms.
holding contains a value representing the current encumbrance of a container or platform.

in_scope contains a list of actors or objects to which the object is accessible beyond the use of the object tree or the found_in property; generally contains either the player object (or, less commonly, another character) and is set using PutInScope or cleared using RemoveFromScope.

initial_desc routine; same as above, but if object has not been moved and an initial_desc exists, it is called in place of short_desc.

list_contents a routine that overrides the normal contents listing for a room or object; normal listing is only carried out if it returns false.

long_desc routine; detailed description of an object.

misc miscellaneous use.

parse_rank when there is ambiguity between similarly named objects, the parser will choose the one with a higher parse_rank over one with a lower (or non-existent) value; used when FindObject(<object>, 0) is called.

pronoun “he”, “him”, “his” or equivalent, so that an object is properly referred to.

reach for enterable objects such as chairs, vehicles, etc., if the accessibility of objects outside the object in question is limited, reach contains a list of the objects which may be accessed.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>react_before</td>
<td>to allow reaction by an object that is not directly involved in the action</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>react_after</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>short_desc</td>
<td>routine; basic “X is here” description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>size</td>
<td>for holding/inventory purposes, contains a value representing the size of an individual object</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>type</td>
<td>to identify the type of object, used primarily by class definitions in <code>objlib.h</code></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For room objects only:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>n_to</td>
<td>If a player can move to another location to the north, then n_to holds the new room object; if the new object is to the south, s_to holds the new object, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ne_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>se_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>s_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sw_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>w_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nw_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>u_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>out_to</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cant_go</td>
<td>routine; message instead of the default “You can’t go that way.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For non-room objects only:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Field</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>contains_desc</td>
<td>a routine that prints the introduction to a list of child objects, instead of the default “Inside &lt;object&gt; are ...” or “&lt;Character&gt; has ...”; contains_desc should always</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

185
conclude with a semicolon (';') instead of a new line

desc_detail

a routine that prints a parenthetical detail following an object listing, such as: “(which is open)”; the leading space is expected, as are the parentheses, and the print statement should conclude with a semicolon (‘;’)

door_to

for handling “>ENTER <object>“, holds the object number of the object to which an object enters (where the latter behaves as a door or portal)

ignore_response

for characters, a routine that runs if the character ignores a player’s question, request, etc., instead of the default “X ignores you.”

inv_desc

a routine that prints a special description when the object is listed as part of the player’s inventory; inv_desc should conclude with a semicolon (‘;’)

key_object

if lockable, contains the object number of the key

order_response

also for characters, a routine that processes an imperative command addressed to the character by the player; it should return false if no response is provided

when_open

routines; special short descriptions for openable objects, where if one exists it is called in place of short_desc (when the object is open or not open, as appropriate) if an initial_desc does not exist, or if the object has been moved
Note: It is recommended for property routines that print a description—such as `short_desc`, `initial_desc`, etc.—that the routine not simply return `true` without printing anything as a means of “hiding” the object; such a method may throw text formatting into disarray. The proper means of omitting an object from a list is to set the `hidden` attribute.

For the display object only:

*Read-only:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>cursor_column</code></td>
<td>horizontal and vertical position of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>cursor_row</code></td>
<td>the cursor in the current text window</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>hasgraphics</code></td>
<td>true if graphics display is available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>hasvideo</code></td>
<td>true if video playback is available</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>linelength</code></td>
<td>width of the current text window</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>pointer_x</code></td>
<td>fixed-width column of last mouse click</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>pointer_y</code></td>
<td>fixed-width row of last mouse click</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>screenwidth</code></td>
<td>width of the display, in characters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>screenheight</code></td>
<td>height of the display, in characters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>windowlines</code></td>
<td>height of the current text window</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Read/writable:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Property</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><code>needs_repaint</code></td>
<td>true if the operating system has requested a repaint (for ports which support it)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>statusline_height</code></td>
<td>the number of lines used to print the statusline</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><code>title_caption</code></td>
<td>dictionary entry giving the full proper name of the program (optional)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

While `screenwidth` through `title_caption` are technically defined by `hugolib.h` as constants, they are used as property numbers to reference data on the display object.
VERB ROUTINES

The library file `verblib.h` (included by `hugolib.h`) contains a fairly extensive set of basic actions, each of which takes the form `Do<verb>`, so that the action for taking an object is `DoGet`, the action for basic player movement is `DoGo`, etc. Each is called by the engine when a grammar syntax line specifying the particular verb routine is matched. The globals `object` and `xobject` are set up by the engine, and the routine is called with no parameters.

Here is a list of the provided verb routines for action verbs:

- DoAsk
- DoAskQuestion
- DoClose
- DoDrink
- DoDrop
- DoEat
- DoEmpty
- DoEnter
- DoExit
- DoGet
- DoGive
- DoGo
- DoHello
- DoHit
- DoInventory
- DoListen
- DoLock
- DoLook
- DoLookAround
- DoLookIn
- DoLookThrough
- DoLookUnder
- DoMove
- DoOpen
- DoPutIn
- DoPutOnGround
- DoShow
- DoSit
- DoSwitchOff
- DoSwitchOn
- DoTakeOff
- DoTalk
- DoTell
- DoUnlock
- DoVague
- DoWait
- DoWaitforChar
- DoWaitUntil
- DoWear

Here are the non-action verb routines:

- DoBrief
- DoRecordOnOff
- DoRestart
- DoRestore
- DoSave
- DoScriptOnOff
- DoScore
- DoSuperbrief
- DoUndo
- DoVerbose
- DoQuit

Output messages for these verb routines are handled by the routine `VMessage` in `verblib.h`.

A set of verb stub routines is also available in `verbstub.h`, including the actions:

- DoBurn
- DoClimb
- DoClimbOut
- DoCut
- DoDig
- DoFollow
- DoHelp
- DoHelpChar
- DoJump
- DoKiss
- DoNo
- DoPull
- DoPush
- DoSearch
- DoSleep
- DoSmell
- DoSorry
- DoSwim
- DoThrowAt
- DoTie
- DoTouch
- DoUntie
- DoUse
- DoWake
- DoWakeCharacter
- DoWave
- DoWaveHands
- DoYell
- DoYes

The default response for each of these stub routines is a more colorful variation of “Try something else.” Any more meaningful response must be incorporated into before property routines. To use these verbs, set the `VERBSTUBS` flag before compiling `hugolib.h`. 
UTILITY ROUTINES, ETC.

First, the junction routines:

EndGame called by the engine via:
EndGame(end_type)

If end_type = 1, the game is won; if 2, the game is lost. (Since endflag may be any value, a value of, for example, 0 will still call EndGame, but with no additional effects via the default PrintEndGame routine.) The global endflag is cleared upon calling. Returning false from EndGame terminates the Hugo Engine.

Also calls: PrintEndGame and PrintScore

FindObject called by the engine via:
FindObject(object, location)

Returns true (1) if the specified object is available in the specified location, or false (0) if it is not. Returns 2 if the object is visible but not physically accessible.

The location argument is 0 during object disambiguation performed by the engine.

Also calls: ObjectIsKnown, ExcludeFromAll

Parse called by the engine via:
Parse()

Performs all library-side parsing of the player input. Returning true forces the engine to reparse the modified input line.

Also calls: PreParse, AssignPronoun and SetObjWord
ParseError called by the engine via:
ParseError(errornumber, object)

Prints the parsing message/error given by errornumber, where an additional object value may also be provided. Returning false signals the engine to print the engine’s default error message. Return 2 to force the existing line to be reparsed as is.

May also call: CustomError

Perform called by the engine via:
Perform(verbroutine, object, xobject, queue, isxverb)

Runs the requested verbroutine, setting up the object and xobject globals if necessary. The queue argument is true if more than one call to Perform is being made for multiple objects, and the isxverb argument is true for verbroutine calls associated with xverb grammar.

SpeakTo called by the engine via:
SpeakTo(character)

Handles character responses to directed actions. Globals object, xobject, and verbroutine are set up as in a normal verb routine call.

Also calls: AssignPronoun

And the routines for grammatically-correct printing:

Art calling form:
Art(object)
Prints the indefinite article form of the object name, e.g. “an apple”

The calling form:
The(object)

Prints the definite article form of the object name, e.g. “the apple”

CArt calling form:
CArt(object)

Prints the capitalized indefinite article form of the object name, e.g. “An apple”

CThe calling form:
CThe(object)

Prints the capitalized definite article form of the object name, e.g. “The apple”

IsorAre calling form:
IsorAre(object[, formal])
where the parameter formal is optional

Depending on whether or not the specified object is plural or singular, prints “’re” or “’s”, respectively (or “are” or “is” if a non-false formal parameter is passed).

MatchPlural calling form:
MatchPlural(object, w1, w2)

Prints the dictionary entry given by w1 if the supplied object is not plural, or w2 if it is.
MatchSubject  calling form:
MatchSubject(object)

Matches a verb to the given subject object. If the object is plural, nothing is printed; if the object is singular, an “s” is printed.

Note: None of the above printing routines prints a carriage return, and all return 0 (the empty string). Therefore, either of the following uses are valid:

CThe(apple)
print " is here."

or

print CThe(apple); " is here."

Other library routines:

Acquire  calling form:
Acquire(parent, object)

Checks to see if parent.capacity is greater than or equal to parent.holding plus object.size. If so, it moves the object to the specified parent, and returns true. If the object cannot be moved, Acquire returns false.

Also calls: CalculateHolding

AnyVerb  calling form:
AnyVerb(value)

Returns value if the current verb routine is not an xverb; otherwise it returns false.

AssignPronoun  calling form:
AssignPronoun(object)
Sets the appropriate global `it_obj`, `them_obj`, `him_obj`, or `her_obj` to the specified object.

**CalculateHolding** calling form:
`CalculateHolding(object)`

Properly recalculates `object.holding` based on the sizes of all child objects.

**CenterTitle** calling form:
`CenterTitle(text[, lines])`

Clears the screen and centers the text given by the specified dictionary entry in the top window. The default height of the title (i.e., one line) can be overridden with a second argument giving the number of lines.

**CheckReach** calling form:
`CheckReach(object)`

Checks to see if the specified object is within reach of the player object. Returns true if accessible; returns false and prints an appropriate message if not accessible.

**Contains** calling form:
`Contains(parent, object)`

Returns `object` if the specified object is present as a possession of the specified parent, even as a grandchild\(^{58}\), otherwise returns false.

\(^{58}\text{A \textquoteleft{}grandchild\textquoteright{} of an object is a child of a child of a given parent object, or a child object thereof, recursively searched.}\)
CustomError
calling form:
CustomError(errornumber, object)

Replace if custom error messages are desired. Is called by ParseError whenever errornumber is greater than or equal to 100, specifying a user-provided and user-called parser error. Should return false if no user message is found.

DarkWarning
calling form:
DarkWarning

Is called by MovePlayer whenever the player object is moved into a location without a light source. The default library routine simply prints a message; for a more sinister response or action, such as the demise of the player, replace the default with a new DarkWarning routine.

DeleteWord
calling form:
DeleteWord(wordnumber[, number])

Deletes number words—or only one word if no second argument is given—starting with word[wordnumber]. Returns the number of words deleted.

DescribePlace
calling form:
DescribePlace(location[, long])

Prints the location name and, when appropriate, a location description (i.e., its long_desc). Including a non-false long parameter will always force a location description.

ExcludeFromAll
calling form:
ExcludeFromAll(object)
Returns true if, based on the current circumstances (verbroutine, etc.), the supplied object should be excluded from actions using “all”—such as multi, multiheld, and multinotheld grammar tokens.

**FindLight**

**calling form:**
FindLight(location)

Checks to see if a light source is available in location; if so, it sets the global light_source to the object number of the source and returns that value.

Also calls: ObjectIsLight

**Font**

**calling form:**
Font(bitmask)

Sets the current font attributes as specified by bitmask, where bitmask is one or more font-style constants (see library constants, above) combined with ‘|’ or ‘+’.

**GetInput**

**calling form:**
GetInput([prompt string])

Receives input from the keyboard, storing individual words in the word array; unknown words—i.e., those that are not in the dictionary—are assigned the empty string, 0 or “”. If an argument is passed, it is assumed to be a dictionary address for the prompt string. If no argument is passed, no prompt is printed.

**HoursMinutes**

**calling form:**
HoursMinutes(counter[, military])
Prints the time in \texttt{hh:mm} format given that \texttt{counter} represents the time in minutes from 12:00 a.m. If the optional \texttt{military} value is given as a true value, the time is printed in 24-hour format.

**Indent**

Calling form:

\texttt{Indent}

If the \texttt{NOINDENT_F} bit is not set in the \texttt{FORMAT} mask, \texttt{Indent} prints \texttt{INDENT\_SIZE} spaces without printing a newline.

**InList**

Calling form:

\texttt{InList(object, property, value)}

If the \texttt{value} is in the list of values held in \texttt{object\_property}, returns the element number of the (first) property element equal to \texttt{value}; otherwise returns 0.

**InsertWord**

Calling form:

\texttt{InsertWord(wordnumber[, number])}

Makes space for either the number of words given by the \texttt{number} argument—or one word if no second \texttt{argument} is given—if possible, at \texttt{word[wordnumber]}, shifting upward all words from that point to the end of the input line. Returns the number of words inserted.

**IsPossibleXObject**

Calling form:

\texttt{IsPossibleXObject(object)}

Returns true if the object is potentially the xobject in the current command. Does not, however, guarantee that the object is an xobject, but is instead a quick and inexpensive utility routine for parsing.
**ListObjects**

**calling form:**

\[\text{ListObjects(object)}\]

Lists all the possessions of the specified object in the appropriate form (according to the global FORMAT). Possessions of possessions are listed recursively if FORMAT does not contain the NORECURSE\_F bit. Format masks are combined, as in:

\[\text{FORMAT} = \text{LIST}\_F \mid \text{NORECURSE}\_F \mid \ldots\]

**Also calls:** WhatsIn

---

**Menu**

**calling form:**

\[\text{Menu(number, [width[, selection]])}\]

Prints a menu, given that the possible number of choices (up to 10) are contained in the menuitem array, with menuitem[0] is the title of the menu. A width (in characters) argument and a starting selection number are optional. Returns the number of the item selected, or 0 if none is chosen.

**Also calls:** CenterTitle

---

**Message**

**calling form:**

\[\text{Message(&routine, num, a, b)}\]

Used by most routines in hugolib.h for text output, so that the bulk of the library text is centralized in one location. Message number num for the specified routine is printed; a and b are optional parameters that may represent objects, dictionary entries, or any other value.

(Similar routines are provided in VMessage in verblib.h and OMessage in objlib.h.)
MovePlayer  
calling form:  
MovePlayer(loc[, silent[, none]])
MovePlayer(dir[, silent[, none]])

Moves the player to the new location, properly  
setting all relevant variables and attributes. If  
silent is passed as a true value, no room  
description is printed following the move.

A direction object (i.e., n_obj, d_obj) may be  
specified instead of a location; in that case,  
MovePlayer moves in that direction from present  
location.

If none is true, before and after routines are  
not run.

MovePlayer can be checked in a location’s  
before or after property as “location  
MovePlayer” to catch a player’s exit from or  
entrance to a location. In a before property,  
“object MovePlayer” can be used to check the  
target location.

Returns the object number of the new location.

MovePlayer does not check to see if a move is  
valid; that must be done before calling the routine.

May also call: DarkWarning

NumberWord  
calling form:  
NumberWord(number[, true])

Prints a number in non-numerical word format,  
where <number> is between -32768 to 32767.  
Always returns 0 (the empty string). If a second  
true argument is supplied, the word is capitalized.
APPENDIX B: THE HUGO LIBRARY

ObjectIs calling form:
ObjectIs(object)

Lists certain attributes, such as providing light or being worn, of the given object in parenthetical form.

ObjectisKnown calling form:
ObjectisKnown(object)

Returns true if the object is known to the player.

ObjectisLight calling form:
ObjectisLight(object)

Returns true if the object or one of its visible possessions is providing light. If so, it also sets the global light_source the object number of the source.

ObjWord calling form:
ObjWord(word, object)

Returns either adjective or noun (i.e., the property number) if the given is either an adjective or noun of the specified object.

PreParse calling form:
PreParse

Provided so that, if needed, this routine may be replaced instead of the more extensive library Parse routine. The default PreParse routine defined in the library is empty.

PrintEndGame calling form:
PrintEndGame(end_type)
Depending on whether `end_type` is 1 or 2, prints, respectively:

“*** YOU’VE WON THE GAME! ***”

or

“*** YOU ARE DEAD ***”.

If `end_type` is some other value, nothing is printed.

### PrintScore

**calling form:**

`PrintScore(end_of_game)`

Prints the score in the appropriate form, depending on whether or not `end_of_game` is true.

### PrintStatusLine

**calling form:**

`PrintStatusLine`

Prints the statusline in the appropriate format, according to the global `STATUSTYPE`.

### PropertyList

**calling form:**

`PropertyList(object, property)`

Lists the objects held in `object.property` (if any), returning the number of objects listed.

### PutInScope

**calling form:**

`PutInScope(object, actor)`

Makes the given object accessible to the specified actor, regardless of their respective locations, and providing that the `in_scope` property of the
object has at least one empty slot—i.e., one that equals 0. Returns true if successful.

RemoveFromScope calling form:
RemoveFromScope(object, actor)

Removes the given object from the scope of the specified actor. Returns true if successful, or false if the object was never in scope of the actor to begin with.

SetObjWord calling form:
SetObjWord(position, object)

Inserts the specified object in the word array in the format:

“adjective1 adjective2 ... noun”

ShortDescribe calling form:
ShortDescribe(object)

Prints the short description (short_desc) of the given object, first checking to see if it should run initial_desc, when_open, or when_closed, as appropriate. Then, if no short_desc property exists, it prints a default “X is here.”

Also calls: WhatsIn

SpecialDesc calling form:
SpecialDesc(object)

Checks each child object of the specified object, running any appropriate initial_desc or inv_desc property routines (depending on the calling situation). Sets the global variable
list_count to the number of remaining (i.e., non-listed) objects.

VerbWord calling form:
VerbWord

Returns the dictionary word used as the verb in a typed command.

WhatsIn calling form:
WhatsIn(parent)

Lists the possessions of the specified parent, according the form given by the global FORMAT. Returns the number of objects listed.

Also calls: SpecialDesc, ListObjects

YesorNo calling form:
YesorNo

Checks to see if the just-received input is “yes”, “y”, “no”, or “n”. If none of the above, it prompts for a yes or no answer. Once a valid answer is received, it returns true (if yes) or false (if no).

AUXILIARY MATH ROUTINES:

abs calling form:
abs(a)

Returns an absolute value given a supplied value.

higher calling form:
higher(a, b)

Returns the higher number of two supplied values.
lower  calling form:
    lower(a, b)

Returns the lower number of two supplied values.

mod  calling form:
    mod(a, b)

Returns the remainder of one number divided by a second number.

pow  calling form:
    pow(a, b)

Returns one number to the power of another number. (The return value is undefined if the result is outside the boundary of -32768 to 32767.)

STRING ARRAY ROUTINES:

StringCompare  calling form:
    StringCompare(array1, array2)

Returns 1 if array1 is lexically greater than array2, -1 if array1 is lexically less than array2, and 0 if the strings are identical.

StringCopy  calling form:
    StringCopy(new, old[, len])

Copies the contents of the array at the address given by old to the array at new, to a maximum of len characters if len is given, or the length of old if it isn’t.
StringDictCompare calling form:
StringDictCompare(array, dictentry)

Performs a StringCompare-like comparison of a string array given by array and the dictionary entry dictentry, returning 1, -1, or 0 if array is lexically greater than, less than, or equal to dictentry, respectively.

StringEqual calling form:
StringEqual(array1, array2)

Returns true only if array1 and array2 are identical.

StringLength calling form:
StringLength(array)

Returns the length of the string stored as array.

StringPrint calling form:
StringPrint(array[, start, end])

Prints the string stored as array, beginning with start and ending with end if given.

FUSE/DAEMON ROUTINES:

Activate calling form:
Activate(object[, setting])

Activates the specified fuse or daemon object. The setting value is only specified for fuses, where it represents the initial value of the timer property.

Deactivate calling form:
Deactivate(object)

Deactivates the specified fuse or daemon object.
CHARACTER SCRIPT ROUTINES:

CancelScript  calling form:
            CancelScript(character)

Immediately cancels the character script associated with the object character. Returns true if successful, i.e., if a script for character is found.

PauseScript  calling form:
            PauseScript(character)

Temporarily pauses the character script associated with the given character. Returns true if successful.

ResumeScript  calling form:
            ResumeScript(character)

Resumes execution of a paused script for the given character. Returns true if successful.

SkipScript  calling form:
            SkipScript(character)

Skips execution of the script for a given character during the next call to RunScripts only.

Script  calling form:
            Script(character, steps)

Initializes space for the requested number of steps in the setscript array, sets up the data for the script in the scriptdata array, and returns the location of the script in setscript. Returns -1 if MAX_SCRIPTS is exceeded.
RunScripts calling form:

RunScripts

Runs all active scripts, calling them in the form:

CharRoutine(character, object)

CHARACTER ACTION ROUTINES:

As a starting point, the library also provides a limited number of routines for character scripts to use. They are:

&CharWait, 0

&CharMove, direction_object (requires objlib.h)

&CharGet, object

&CharDrop, object

and

&LoopScript, 0

CONDITIONAL-compilation:

A number of compiler flags may be set to exclude certain portions of hugolib.h from compilation if these functions or objects are not required.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FLAG</th>
<th>EXCLUDES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NO_AUX_MATH</td>
<td>Auxiliary math routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO_FUSES</td>
<td>Fuses and daemons</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO_MENUS</td>
<td>Use of the Menu function</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO_OBJLIB</td>
<td>The contents of objlib.h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO_RECORDING</td>
<td>Command recording functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO_SCRIPTS</td>
<td>Character scripting routines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO_STRING_ARRAYS</td>
<td>String array functions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO_VERBS</td>
<td>All action verbs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NO_XVERBS</td>
<td>All non-action verbs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX C: LIMIT SETTINGS

The default settings for the complete set of limits may be obtained by invoking the compiler via:

**hc $list**

The following limits are static and non-modifiable, since they reflect the internal configuration of the Hugo Engine:

- **MAXATTRIBUTES**: The maximum number of definable attributes, not counting aliases
- **MAXGLOBALS**: The maximum number of definable global variables
- **MAXLOCALS**: The maximum number of local variables allowed in a routine, including arguments passed to the routine

The following are the modifiable settings, which may be set using:

**$<setting>=<new limit>**

either in the compiler’s invocation line or in the source code.

- **MAXALIASES**: The maximum number of aliases that may be defined for attributes and/or properties
- **MAXARRAYS**: The maximum number of arrays that may be defined (not the total array space, which is automatically reserved)
- **MAXCONSTANTS**: The maximum number of constants that may be defined
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Symbol</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MAXDICT</td>
<td>The maximum number of entries that the compiler can enter into the dictionary table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAXDICTEXTEND</td>
<td>The total number of bytes (not the total number of entries) available for dynamic dictionary extension during runtime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAXEVENTS</td>
<td>The maximum number of global or object-linked events</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAXFLAGS</td>
<td>The maximum number of compiler flags that may be set at one time to control conditional compilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAXLABELS</td>
<td>The maximum number of labels that may be defined during compilation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAXOBJECTS</td>
<td>The maximum number of objects and/or classes that may be created</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAXPROPERTIES</td>
<td>The maximum number of properties that may be defined</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MAXROUTINES</td>
<td>The maximum number of standalone routines (not property routines) that may be defined</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The HugoFix Debugging Library

The HugoFix Debugging Library is a suite of routines that can be used via typed commands in a running Hugo game without the use of any special debugger program. To use HugoFix, set the compiler flag `DEBUG` before including `hugolib.h` or any other standard Hugo library files\(^{59}\). Then, from the player input line, type:

```
>$?
```

to get a list of all HugoFix debugging commands.

`$?` – Display help menu

**Monitoring:**

`$fd` – Fuse/daemon monitoring on/off
Fuse/daemon monitoring prints verbose information about all starting or stopping fuses or daemons, as well as the value of the `tick` property for any running fuses.

`$fi` – `FindObject` monitoring on/off
FindObject monitoring traces calls to the library’s `FindObject` routine and their results. This can be extremely useful for debugging things like scope and disambiguation problems.

`$on` – Toggle object numbers
Toggling object numbers on causes an object’s numerical value to be displayed after the object name whenever the library functions `The`, `CThe`,

---

\(^{59}\) The HugoFix library should only be included during development. As always, when compiling a version for public release, the `DEBUG` flag should be omitted both to keep the filesize of the final Hugo executable down as well as to ensure that debugging functionality is not included in release builds.
Art, and CArt are called. Can be turned used in conjunction with any other HugoFix function that outputs object names.

$pm – Parser monitoring on/off
Parser monitoring provides information during calls to Parse, ParseError, and Perform (or SpeakTo, as applicable) to trace the breakdown, parsing, and execution of a given player input line.

$sc – Script monitor on/off
Script monitoring prints verbose information about all starting, stopping, or otherwise running scripts each turn.

Object manipulation:

$at <obj.> is [not] <attr. #> – Set or clear object attribute
The object will have attribute number <attr. #> set or cleared. (It’s useful to have generated debugging information by passing the -i switch to the compiler in order to get attribute numbers and other useful information.)

$mo <obj.> to <obj.> – Move object to new parent
Essentially the same as the Hugo statement: move <object> to <parent>. The object will become the youngest child of the parent object.

$mp <obj.> – Move player object to new parent
Essentially the same as the Hugo Library function call: MovePlayer(<obj.>). The function may fail (and print an appropriate error message) if the specified parent object is not a valid location (i.e., room or room-equivalent object).

Object testing:

$fo [obj. ] – Find object (or player, if no object given)
Prints the name of the parent object of a given object (or the player object).

$nna <obj. > #> – Print name of object number
Prints the name of the object specified by object number.

$nu <obj. > – Print number of named object
Prints the object number of a given object.
Parser testing:

$ca - Check articles for all objects
Useful for preventing forgotten articles in order to avoid something like “You get apple” when it should be “You get the apple”, etc.

$pc [$all] [obj.] - Check parser conflicts (for object)
Attempts to determine what objects might be confused with <obj> by the parser. May take quite a while if $all is specified for a large number of objects.

$pr - parse_rank monitoring
Monitors how various objects’ parse_rank property values are evaluated during parsing. Particularly useful with $fi and $pm.

Other utilities:

$ac <obj.> [timer] - Activate fuse (with timer) or daemon
Generally <obj.> is an object number, since fuses and daemons are normally not otherwise referred to.

$de <obj.> - Deactivate fuse or daemon
Generally <obj.> is an object number, since fuses and daemons are normally not otherwise referred to.

$di [obj.] - Audit directions (for room object)
Attempts to print out all the possible exits from a given location, or from the present location if none is given.

$kn [<obj. #>] - Make all object(s) known
Sets the known attribute for for an object (or for all objects in the game if no single object is specified.

$nr - Normalize random numbers
Sets random number generation to predictable values which can be replicated on subsequent playthroughs. Handy for testing things that may be affected by use of the built-in random function.

$ot [obj. | $loc] - Print object tree (beginning with object)
Prints all the children (beneath a particular object, if given) in tree format.
$rr - Restore "random" random numbers
Resets random number generation to produce unpredictable values.

$uk [<obj. #>] - Make object unknown
Again for testing involving the known attribute. (See $kn, above)

$wo <number> - Print dictionary word entry <number>
Where <number> is a value representing a dictionary table address.

$wn <word> - Value/dictionary address of (lowercase) word
Where <word> is a dictionary entry.

$au - Run HugoFixAudit
Runs a number of tests to ensure the validity of certain data, including necessary related properties on individual objects and proper usage of object library classes.

The Hugo Debugger

The Hugo Debugger is a valuable part of the Hugo design system. It allows a programmer to monitor all aspects of program execution, including watching expressions, modifying values, moving objects, etc.—all things expected of a modern source-level debugger.\(^6\)

In order to be used with the debugger, a Hugo program must be compiled using the -d switch in order to create an .HDX debuggable file with additional data such as names for objects, variables, properties, etc.

Note: .HDX files can be run by the engine, but .HEX files cannot be run by the debugger because of the additional data required.

The Unix or MS-DOS convention for running the debugger is:

```
hd <filename>
```

from the command line. In Windows, one may just double-click the debugger’s icon to launch it. In either case, the debugger will begin on the debugging screen. Switch back-and-forth from the actual game screen by pressing Tab. At

\(^6\) The Hugo Debugger is not technically a source-level debugger, however. During its development, its author has referred to it as a source(ish) level debugger—what the debugger does, in effect, is to "decompile" compiled code into the tokens and symbols that comprise each line of code. The result is a very close approximation of the original source code.
this point, it is probably best to select “Shortcut Keys” from the Help menu, since the actual keystrokes for running the debugger may vary from system to system. (It is possible to operate the debugger entirely through menus, but this soon becomes tedious for operations like stepping line-by-line.)

The file `hdhelp.hlp` should be in the same directory as the debugger program—this is the online help file for the debugger, containing information on such things as:

**Printing**

**Windows and Views, including:**

- **Code Window**
  
  Showing the current program exactly as executed, in (almost) source-level format

- **Watch Window**
  
  Allowing any variable expression to be watched/evaluated at any time during execution

- **Calls**
  
  Giving the sequence of nested routine calls at any given point

- **Breakpoints**
  
  Listing all active breakpoints

- **Local Variables**
  
  Listing all local variables, as values, objects, dictionary entries, etc.

- **Property/Attribute Aliases**

- **Auxiliary Window**

- **Output**

**Running a program, including:**

- **Finish Routine**
  
  While stepping, continues execution without stepping to the end of the current routine

- **Stepping Through Code**
  
  Allows line-by-line execution
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feature</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skipping Over Code</td>
<td>Allows the next statement to be passed over without executing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stepping Backward</td>
<td>Allows retracing of code execution, possibly after values are changed, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Searching Code</td>
<td>Searches the record of executed code for any given string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Watch Expressions</td>
<td>Allows watching multiple variable values or expressions, and to set a breakpoint should a desired value/expression evaluate non-false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting or Modifying Values</td>
<td>Any variable, property, array value, or object attribute can be set or reset to a valid value at any point during execution</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Breakpoints</td>
<td>A code address, routine, or property routine can be given—control is then passed to the debugger on encountering a breakpoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object Tree</td>
<td>At any point, the entire object tree (or just a branch of it) may be displayed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moving Objects</td>
<td>It is possible to dynamically move objects around the object tree, independent of the program itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Runtime Warnings</td>
<td>Optional runtime warnings instruct the debugger to alert the user to common causes of problem code which, while syntactically valid and therefore acceptable to the compiler, is in context probably not what was intended.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setup</td>
<td>Allowing changes (where applicable) in color scheme, printer, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note: This section on precompiled headers, while still accurate, becomes less and less vital as computer (and therefore compilation) speeds increase. As of this writing, on a relatively fast computer, a game that takes 6 seconds to compile will compile in 4 using a precompiled version of the library. A game that takes 2 seconds to compile normally will compile in 1. (In other words, the savings are somewhat negligible.)

It is possible to precompile files that would normally be included using the \#include directive into a precompiled header file that may be linked using \#link, as in:

\#link "<filename.hlb>"

instead of:

\#include "<filename.h>"

The advantage of doing this is primarily one of faster compilation speed; files that are used over and over again without alteration (such as the Hugo Library) may be precompiled so that they are not recompiled every time.

The \#link directive must come after any grammar, but before any new definitions of attributes, properties, globals, objects, synonyms, etc. Grammar is illegal in a precompiled header.

To create a precompiled header, use the -h directive when invoking the Hugo Compiler. The file hugolib.hug serves as a good example: it is a small wrapper which compiles the standard Hugo Library. Compile it via

hc -h hugolib.hug

in order to generate hugolib.hlb. Next, change the use of

\#include "hugolib.h"
in a Hugo program to

```c
#link "hugolib.hlb"
```

Change the definition for the main routine from

```c
routine main
{
...
```

```c
to

```c
replace main
{
...
```

since `hugolib.hug` contains a temporary main routine. The program will now compile (marginally faster) by linking the precompiled library instead of including each uncompiled library file.

Note that any conditional compilation flags set in the Hugo program will have no effect on the compiled code in `hugolib.hlb`, since the routines included in or excluded from `hugolib.hlb` are determined by the flags set in `hugolib.hug`. It is recommended that a Hugo user using precompiled headers compile a version of `hugolib.hug` that includes `hugofix.h` and/or `verbstub.h` as desired.

It is generally not possible to include multiple precompiled headers compiled in separate passes via subsequent `#link` s in the same source file. Because of the absolute references assigned to data such as dictionary addresses, attribute numbers, etc., such an attempt will produce an “incompatible precompiled headers” error.

However, for games that are composed of separate sections that can be combined into distinct files, it may make sense to precompile one `.hug` file containing all the common elements that will be used by the separate sections—such as the player object, etc.—and which `#includes` or `#links` the library in it. Then, this new `.hlib` file can be `#linked` in each of the separate sections during development and testing. Of course, each of the separate sections will have to be `#included` in a single master file for building the full release version.

Finally, it is advisable that precompiled headers be used only in building `.HEX` files during the design/testing stage in order to facilitate faster development. The reason is that the linker does not selectively include routine calls: the entire `.hlib` file is loaded during the link phase. As a result, Hugo files produced using precompiled headers—especially if existing routines in the `.hlib` file are replaced in the source—tend to be larger and therefore less economical in their memory usage. For this reason, it is recommended that `#include` be used
for building release versions instead of linking the corresponding precompiled header.
APPENDIX F: HUGO VERSIONS

As of this writing, the latest version of Hugo is 3.1. Most if not all of the actively developed ports are available in v3.1 distributions.

The general rule of thumb is that sequential releases of the Hugo Engine are backward compatible, so that the Hugo Engine in v3.1 is able to run games compiled with v3.0, v2.5, and earlier versions. Earlier versions of the engine, however, are unable to run games compiled with later versions of the compiler. For example, a game compiled with v3.1 cannot be run by the v3.0 engine. (The exceptions to this are v2.5.01 through v2.5.04, which are able to run v3.0-compiled games as a result of the transitional development period for Hugo v3.0. Post-v2.5.04, the official baseline for Hugo releases became v3.0.)

Version 3.1 is syntactically fully compatible with v3.0, the Hugo version which introduced features such as video playback, context menus, and mouse input. 3.1’s most notable changes are internal, relating to data storage and code organization, and as such will have little effect on the user. Note however that v2.5 versions of the engine are unable to run v3.1 games.

Here is a quick breakdown of Hugo versions:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VERSION</th>
<th>SUMMARY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.5.0x</td>
<td>Basic Hugo Engine implementation; v3.0-specific language features such as the video and addcontext keywords unsupported by the v2.5 compiler. Baseline runtime implementation for almost all ports.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>Introduction of additional multimedia and user interface functionality. Additional multimedia including sound, music, and video playback fully supported on Windows, Macintosh, and BeOS.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>Syntactically identical to v3.0; internal format changes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX G: ADDITIONAL RESOURCES

(Please note that while these links were up-to-date as of this writing, the ephemeral nature of the Internet may result in changes, relocations, old sites closing and new sites appearing.)

The Interactive Fiction Archive is the world’s number-one repository of publicly available information and tools relating to interactive fiction work and play. It can be found at http://www.ifarchive.org, with a mirror at http://mirror.ifarchive.org.

Two newsgroups serve as the hubs of the interactive fiction community: rec.arts.int-fiction, where the focus is on writing games, and rec.games.int-fiction, which talks about playing them.

The Developers Laboratory at the Future Boy! Forum (http://www.generalcoffee.com/futureboy) provides a place for Hugo programming discussion.

The Hugonomicon by Cena Mayo at http://hugonomicon.sf.net provides additional resources for Hugo use and development.

Gilles Duschesne has made available an excellent introduction to Hugo programming in the form of a tutorial available from http://www.ifarchive.org/if-archive/programming/hugo/examples/ScavHuntFull.zip.

A host of general IF-related materials are available at Brass Lantern (http://www.brasslantern.org) and PARSIFAL (http://www.firthworks.com/roger/parsifal/index.html).

Graham Nelson’s Inform (http://www.inform-fiction.org) and TADS, the Text Adventure Design System by Mike Roberts (http://www.tads.org), are two other interactive-fiction programming languages.
BOOK 2

TECHNICAL SYSTEM SPECIFICATION

OR

UNDER THE HOOD OF HUGO AND THE .HEX FILE FORMAT
I. INTRODUCTION

Most Hugo programmers will likely never need to bother with the detailed information in this technical guide, but anyone porting Hugo to a new platform, writing an interface or tool for the language, or just interested in taking a closer look at how the Hugo Compiler generates a compiled program (and how the Hugo Engine interprets it) might find a technical specification useful, even if only to verify the occasional behavior or detail. What this look under the hood attempts to do is to outline the configuration of data and code storage used by Hugo, as well as giving an extensive overview of how the various aspects of the language are compiled and interpreted.

This technical specification of the language internals is not a complete programming guide; familiarity with the language and a handy copy of the Hugo Programming Manual will be helpful, as will access to the Hugo source code (written in ANSI C and available at the time of this writing at ftp://ftp.ifarchive.org/if-archive/programming/hugo/source).

The standard Hugo source distribution is hugov31_source.tar.gz. Operating-system-specific sources (i.e., implementations of non-portable functions) are typically hugov31_OSname_source.zip.

Please note that while this document does address differences between the current version of Hugo and previous versions, it is by no means complete in that respect. For example, a current-version implementation of the Hugo Engine that conforms to this specification is not guaranteed to run programs compiled with all previous versions of Hugo. For further elaboration on such differences, please see the Hugo source itself.

I.a. How Hugo Works

The Hugo system is composed of two parts: the compiler and the engine (the interpreter). (The debugger is actually a modified build of the engine, with an additional command layer to facilitate debugging examination and manipulation of the runtime state.)

The compiler is responsible for reading source files and writing executable code; it does this by first tokenizing a given line of code—breaking it down into a series of byte values representing its contents—and then determining how the
line(s) should be written (i.e., identified, optimized, and encoded) in order to fit properly into the current construct. The compiler is also responsible for organizing and writing tables representing object data, property data, the dictionary, etc.

The engine in turn reads the file produced by the compiler (called a .HEX file, after the default extension), and follows the compiled instructions to execute low-level functions such as object movement, property assignment, text output, and expression evaluation. These low-level operations are, for the most part, transparent to the programmer.
## II. ORGANIZATION OF THE .HEX FILE

### II.a. Memory Map

If all the separate segments of a .HEX file were stacked contiguously on top of each other, the resulting pile would look something like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DATA STORAGE:</th>
<th>MAXIMUM SIZE:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Link data for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>.HLB files)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Text bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Dictionary</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Special words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Array space</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Event table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Property table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Object table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Grammar and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Executable code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Header</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+-----------------+------------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Bottom: $000000)

MAXIMUM SIZE: 17792K bytes

---

61 Previously to version 3.1, the size of the grammar and executable code segment was limited to 256K, and the maximum size was 17024K.
Each new segment begins on a boundary divisible by 16; an end-of-segment is padded with zeroes until the next boundary. For each segment, data is generally stored in sequential chunks, following two or more bytes giving information about the size of the table.

**Dictionary table:** the first two bytes give the total number of entries. The third byte is always 0, so that dictionary entry 0 is an empty string ("""). Following the dictionary table, a number of bytes may optionally be written for runtime dictionary expansion (where $\$\text{MAXDICTEXTEND} is specified at compile-time).

**Special words:** the first two bytes give the total number of special words.

**Array space:** the first 480 bytes give the global variable defaults (2 bytes each). For each array entry, the first two bytes give the array length.

**Event table:** the first two bytes give the total number of events.

**Property table:** the first two bytes give the total number ($n$) of properties. The following $n\times 2$ bytes give the property defaults.

**Object table:** the first two bytes give the total number of objects.

### II.b. The Header

The header is reserved a total of 64 bytes at the start of the compiled .HEX file, immediately preceding the grammar table. It contains the bulk of information regarding table offsets, junction routine addresses, etc.: essentially, it is a map to where to find things in the file.

Compile with the -u switch to display a map of memory usage in the .HEX file that reflects the offsets and addresses encoded in the header.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Byte</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$00</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Version of Hugo Compiler used(^{62})</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$01</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>ID string (compiler-generated)(^{63})</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{62}\) The version format was changed between v2.0 and v2.1. Version 2.0 programs contained the value 2; version 2.1 programs contain the value 21, version 2.2 programs contain 22, etc.

\(^{63}\) Pre-v2.3 allowed the programmer to specify an ID string, an unnecessary convention now—the ID string used to be used to create the default savefile name. The ID string is now auto-generated by the compiler and is compared by the engine to the ID of a saved game to see if they match. Precompiled headers have the ID string "$$".
II ORGANIZATION OF THE .HEX FILE

03  8  Serial number
0B  2  Address of start of executable code
0D  2  Object table offset 64
0F  2  Property table offset
11  2  Event table offset
13  2  Array space offset
15  2  Dictionary offset
17  2  Special words table offset
19  2  Init routine indexed address
1B  2  Main routine indexed address
1D  2  Parse routine indexed address
1F  2  ParseError routine indexed address
21  2  FindObject routine indexed address
23  2  EndGame routine indexed address
25  2  SpeakTo routine indexed address
27  2  Perform routine indexed address 65
29  2  Text bank offset

In .HDX (debuggable) Hugo executables only:

3A  1  Debuggable flag, set to 1
3B  3  Absolute start of debugging information
3E  2  Debug workspace (in array table)

A note on data storage: whenever 16-bit words (i.e., two bytes representing a single value) are written or read, it is in low-byte/high-byte order, with the first byte being the remainder of x/256 (or the modulus x%256), and the second byte being the integer value x/256. 66

64 Table offsets are equal to the offset of the beginning of the table from the start of data, divided by 16.
65 Pre-v2.5 had no Perform junction routine; verb routines were called directly by the engine.
66 For another example, see APPENDIX A: CODE PATTERNS. Several of the conditional statements — if, elseif, etc. — use two bytes to give the absolute skip distance to the next statement if the conditional test fails. The pair is coded in low-byte/high-byte order.
III. TOKENS AND DATA TYPES

The first two places to start inspecting how the Hugo compiler writes a .HEX file are: (1) what byte values are written to represent each individual token (i.e. keywords, built-in functions, etc.), and (2) how different data types and values are formatted.

III.a. Tokens

00 (not used) 10 # 20 for
01 ( 11 ~ 21 return
02 ) 12 >= 22 break
03 . 13 <= 23 and
04 : 14 ~= 24 or
05 = 15 & 25 jump
06 - 16 > 26 run
07 + 17 < 27 is
08 * 18 if 28 not
09 / 19 , 29 true
0A | 1A else 2A false
0B ; 1B elseif 2B local
0C { 1C while 2C verb
0D } 1D do 2D xverb
0E [ 1E select 2E held
0F ] 1F case 2F multi
30 multiheld 40 eldest 50 window
31 newline 41 younger 51 random
32 anything 42 elder 52 word
33 print 43 prop# 53 locate
34 number 44 attr# 54 parse$
35 capital 45 var# 55 children
36 text 46 dictentry# 56 in
37 graphics 47 textdata# 57 pause
38 color 48 routine# 58 runevents
39 remove 49 label# 59 arraydata#
3A move 4A object# 5A call
Some of these, particularly the early tokens, are as simple as punctuation marks that are recognized by the engine as delimiting expressions, arguments, etc. Non-punctuation stand-alone tokens (to, in, is) are used for similar purposes, to give form to a particular construction. Others, such as save, undo, recordon, and others are engine functions that, when read, trigger a specific action.

Note also tokens ending with ‘#’: these primarily represent data types that are not directly enterable as part of a program—the ‘#’ character is separated and read as a discrete word in a parsed line of Hugo source. For example, the occurrence of a variable name in the source will be compiled into var# (token $45) followed by two bytes giving the number of the variable being referenced. (See the following section on Data Types for more details.)

III.b. Data Types

Internally, all data is stored as 16-bit integers (that may be treated as unsigned as appropriate). The valid range is -32768 to 32767.

---

67 v3.0 and later
68 v3.0 and later
Following are the formats for the various data types used by Hugo; to see them in practice, it is recommended to consult the Hugo C source code and the functions `CodeLine()` in `hccode.c`—for writing them in the compiler—and `GetValue()` and `GetVal()` in `heexpr.c`—for reading them via the engine.

**ATTRIBUTE:**

\[<\text{attr\#}> \text{<1 byte>}\]

The single byte represents the number of the attribute, which may range from $00$ to $7F$ (0 to 127).

Attribute $10$, for example, would be written as:

\[
\$44 \ 10
\]

**DICTIONARY ENTRY:**

\[<\text{dictentry\#}> \text{<2 bytes>}\]

The 2 bytes (one 16-bit word) represent the address of the word in the dictionary table. The empty string ("") is $00$.

If the word "apple" was stored at the address $21A0$, it would be written as:

\[
\$46 \ A0 \ 21
\]

**OBJECT:**

\[<\text{object\#}> \text{<2 bytes>}\]

The two bytes (one 16-bit word) give the object number.

Objects $0002$ and $01B0$ would be written as, respectively:

\[
\$4A \ 02 \ 00 \quad \$4A \ B0 \ 01
\]
PROPERTY:

<prop#> <1 byte>

The single byte gives the number of the property being referenced.

Property $21 would be written as:

$43  21

ROUTINE:

<routine#> <2 bytes>

The two bytes (one 16-bit word) give the indexed address of the routine. All blocks of executable code begin on an address divisible by 16\(^69\); this allows 1024K of memory to be addressable via the range 0 to 65536. (Code is padded with empty ($00) values to the next address divisible by the address scale.)

For example, a routine beginning at $004004 would be divided by 16 and encoded as the indexed address $0401, in the form:

$48  01  04

This goes for routines, events, property routines, and even conditional code blocks following if, while, etc.

VALUE (i.e., INTEGER CONSTANT):

<value#> <2 bytes>

A value may range from -32768 to 32767; negative numbers follow signed-value 16-bit convention by being \(x + 65536\) where \(x\) is a negative number.

For example, the values 10 ($0A), 16384 ($4000), and -2 would be written as:

$4B  0A  00
$4B  00  40

\(^{69}\) Prior to version 3.1, this scaling factor was 4.
$4B$  FE  FF     ($FFFFE = 65534 = -2 + 65536$)

VARIABLE:

<var#>  <1 byte>

A program may have up to 240 global variables (numbered 0 to 239), and 16 local variables for the current routine (numbered 240 to 255). Since 240 + 16 = 256, the number of the variable being specified will fit into a single byte.

In the compiler, the first global variable (i.e. variable 0) is predefined as “object”. It would be written as a sequence of two bytes:

$45$  00

A routine’s second argument or local would be numbered 241 (since 240 ($F0$) is the first local variable), and would be written as:

$45$  F1
The engine is responsible for all the low-level parsing of an input line (i.e., player command). Upon receiving an input, the engine parses the line into separate words, storing them in the word array. The word array—i.e., that which is referenced in a Hugo program via \texttt{word[n]}—is an internal structure coded using the \texttt{word} token instead of \texttt{array#}. A static, read-only parser string called \texttt{parse$} is used for storage of important data, such as a parser-error-causing word/phrase that cannot otherwise be communicated as an existing dictionary entry.

The first parsing pass also does the following:

1. Allows integer numbers for -32768 to 32767.

2. Time given in “\texttt{hh:mm}” (hours:minutes) format is converted to an integer number representing the total minutes since midnight, i.e., through the formula: \texttt{hh * 60 + mm}. The original “\texttt{hh:mm}” is stored in \texttt{parse$}.

3. Up to one word (or set of words) in quotation marks is allowed; if found, it is stored in \texttt{parse$}.

4. Special words are processed, i.e., removals and user-defined punctuation are removed, compounds are combined, and synonyms are replaced.\textsuperscript{70}

If a user-defined \texttt{Parse} routine exists (i.e., if bytes $1D$-1E in the header are not $0000$), it is called next. If the routine returns true, the engine parsing routine is called a second time to reconcile any changes to the word set.

If at any point the parser is unable to continue, either because an unknown word—one not found in the dictionary table—is found, or because there is a problem later, in grammar matching (described below), a parser error is

\textsuperscript{70} See XI.b Special Words
generated, and parsing is stopped. (The unknown or otherwise problem-causing word is stored in parse$.)

The engine has a set of standard parser errors that may be overridden by a user-provided ParseError (i.e., if bytes $1F-20 in the header are not $0000). If there is no ParseError routine, or if ParseError returns false, the default parser error message is printed.
The grammar table starts immediately following the header (at $40, or 64 bytes into the .HEX file). It is used for matching against the player's input line to determine the verbroutine to be called, and if applicable, the object(s) and xobject (i.e., the indirect object).

**Note:** If the input line begins with an object instead of a verb—i.e., if it is directed toward a character, as in “Bob, get the object”, then grammar is matched against the phrase immediately following the initial object.)

The grammar table is comprised of a series of verb or xverb (i.e., non-action verb) blocks, each beginning with either verb ($2C) or xverb ($2D). A $FF value instead of either verb or xverb indicates the end of the grammar table. A grammar table that looks like

```
000040: FF
```

has no entries.

Following the verb type indicator is a single byte giving the number of words (i.e., synonyms) for this particular verb. Following that are the dictionary addresses of the individual words.

Think of the simple grammar definition:

```
verb "get", "take"
    * object       DoGet
```

If this were the first verb defined, the start of the grammar table would look like:

```
000040: 2C 02 x2 x1 y2 y1
```

where $x1x2$ is the dictionary address of “get”, and $y1y2$ is the dictionary address of “take”.

With v2.5 was introduced a separate—although rarely used—variation to the verb header. A verb or xverb definition can contain something like
verb get_object

where get_object is an object or some other value. In this case, the verb word is get_object.noun instead of an explicitly defined word. The grammar table in this case would look like

000040: 2C 01 FF FF 4A x2 x1

where $FFFF is the signal that instead of a dictionary word address, the engine must read the following discrete value, where $4A is the object# token, and $x1x2 is the object number of get_object. This extension is provided so that grammar may be dynamically coded and changed at runtime.

Following the verb header giving the number of verb words and the dictionary address of each is one or more grammar lines, each beginning with a '*' signifying the matched verb word. (For an elaboration of valid grammar syntax specification, please see the Hugo Manual.)

Grammar lines are encoded immediately following the verb header, so that in the first example given above,

verb "get", "take"
  * object       DoGet

becomes:

000040: 2C 02 x2 x1 y2 y1
000046: 08 66 48 r2 r1
00004B: FF

where $r1r2 is the indexed routine address of DoGet.

The $FF byte marks the end of the current verb definition. Immediately following this is either another verb or xverb token, or a second $FF to indicate the end of the verb table.
VI. EXECUTABLE CODE

VI.a. A Simple Program

The following is a simple Hugo program:

```hugo
routine main
{
    print "Hello, Sailor!"
    pause
    return
}
```

It will print “Hello, Sailor!”, wait for a keypress, and exit. When compiled, the grammar table and executable code look like this:

```plaintext
000040: FF 00 00 00 33 6B 0E 00 5C 79 80 80 83 40 34 67
000050: 75 7D 80 83 86 35 4C 57 21 4C 0D 21 4C 00 00 00
```

Here is what those 32 bytes represent:

```plaintext
000040: FF

The grammar table is empty; no grammar has been defined. The first entry in the grammar table is $FF, signifying end-of-table.

000041: 00 00 00

Padding to the next address boundary.

000044: 33

A print token.

000045: 5B 0E 00 5C 79 80 80 83 40 34 67 75 7D 80 83 86 35

Hello, Sailor!
```
A stringdata# ($5B) token of 14 characters ($000E), followed by the encoded string “Hello, Sailor!” (Since this is a print statement, the text is written directly into the code instead of in the text bank.)

000056:  4C

An eol# token, to signal end-of-line for the current print statement.
000057:  57

A pause token.
000058:  21 4C

A return token, followed by eol#. (If there is a value being returned, that expression comes between $21 and $4C. Since in this case the expression is blank—since there is no value being explicitly returned—the $4C comes immediately.)
00005A:  0D 21 4C

The closing brace symbol $0D marks the end of the routine. All routines are automatically followed by a default $21 and $4C—the equivalent of “return false”.

VI.b. Expressions

Expressions are encoded as the tokenized representation of the expression. Consider the following code excerpts, assuming that global initializations have included:

    global glob
    array arr[10]

and, within the current routine:

    local loc

(Assume also that glob and loc are the first global variable and first local variable defined.)
1. \( \text{loc} = 10 \)

This is coded using the pattern

\[
<\text{var#}> \ <1\ \text{byte}> \ = \ <\text{value#}> \ <2\ \text{bytes}> \ <\text{eol#}>
\]

so that the resulting code looks like:

\[
45 \ F0 \ 05 \ 4B \ 0A \ 00 \ 4C \\
\text{loc} \quad = \quad 10
\]

The variable number $F0$ specifies the first local variable (i.e., local variable 0, where the variable number of local variable \( n \) is \( 240+n \)).

2. \( \text{glob} = 5 \times (2 + 1) \)

Again, this is coded as a variable assignment:

\[
<\text{var#}> \ <1\ \text{byte}> \ = \ <\text{expression}> \ <\text{eol#}>
\]

\[
45 \ 0C \ 05 \ 4B \ 05 \ 00 \ 08 \ 01 \ 4B \ 02 \ 00 \ 07 \ 4B \ 01 \ 00 \ 02 \ 4C \\
\text{glob} \ = \quad 5 \quad \times \quad ( \quad 2 \quad + \quad 1 \quad )
\]

Since the compiler always defines a number of global variables itself, the first-defined global is never 0. If there are 12 pre-defined globals, the first user-defined global has variable number $0C$.

3. \( \text{arr}[\text{loc}] = \text{word}[2] \)

The pattern for this array element assignment is:

\[
<\text{arraydata#}> \ [ \ <\text{expr}> \ ] \ = \ <\text{word}> \ [ \ <\text{expr}> \ ] \ <\text{eol#}>
\]

\[
59 \ F0 \ 00 \ 0E \ 45 \ F0 \ 0F \ 05 \ 52 \ 0E \ 4B \ 02 \ 00 \ 0F \ 4C \\
\text{arr} \quad [ \ \text{loc} \quad ] \ = \ \text{word} \ [ \ 2 \quad ]
\]

(Note that \text{word}[n] is not handled the same as \text{array}[n].)

4. \( \text{array}[1] = \text{random(obj.prop #2)} \)

(Assuming that \text{obj} and \text{prop} are the first-defined object and property, respectively.)
<arraydata#> [ <expr> ] = random ( <expr> ) <eol#>

59 F0 00 0E 4B 01 00 0F 05 51
arr [ 1 ] = random

01 4A 00 00 03 43 06 10 4B 02 00 02 4C
( obj . prop # 2 )

5. glob += (loc++ * arr[7])

45 0C 07 05 01 45 F0 07 07 08
glob += ( loc ++ *

59 F0 00 0E 4B 07 00 0F 02 4C
arr [ 7 ]

6. if loc = glob + 11

(See APPENDIX A: CODE PATTERNS for details on how if statements and other conditionals are coded.)

18 21 00 45 F0 05 45 0C 07 4B 0B 00 4C
if loc = glob + 11

2 bytes give the skip distance (i.e., $0021$ bytes) to the next-executed instruction if the current expression evaluates false.
VII. ENCODING TEXT

Text is written uncompressed into the .HEX file (since there is not really any need for nor any great memory savings from whatever minor compression might be practical). All text, however—including text in print statements, dictionary entries, and the text bank—is encoded by adding $14$ (decimal 20) to each 8-bit ASCII value in order to prevent casual browsing of game data.

Text in print statements is written directly into the code in the form:

\[
\text{<stringdata#> <2 bytes> ...encoded string...}
\]

where the length of the string is given by the first two bytes following <stringdata#>.

Text in dictionary entries is encoded in the dictionary table. A dictionary entry with a given address (\textit{addr}) appears in the dictionary at \textit{addr}+2 (since the first two bytes in the dictionary table are reserved for the number of entries) as:

\[
\text{<1 byte> ...encoded dictionary entry...}
\]

where the maximum allowable length of a dictionary entry is 255 characters.

Text written to the text bank is encoded at a given address in the text bank as:

\[
\text{<2 bytes> ...encoded text...}
\]

where the length of the encoded text is given by the first two bytes. (Note that an address in the text bank requires 3 bytes in the game code, however, since the length of the text bank can exceed 64K.)
VIII. THE OBJECT TABLE

VIII.a. Objects

The object table begins with two bytes giving the total number of objects. The objects then follow in sequential order. Each object requires 24 bytes:

**Bytes**
- 0 - 15 Attributes (128 bits in total, 1 bit/attribute)
- 16 - 17 Parent
- 18 - 19 Sibling
- 20 - 21 Child
- 22 - 23 Property table position

The offset of any given object \( n \) from the start of the object table can therefore be found using:

\[
\text{offset} = n \times 24 + 2
\]

If a parent has no parent, sibling, and/or child, the appropriate two-byte word is set to $0000.

The property table position represents the offset of the beginning of the given object’s property data from the start of the property table, as described below.

VIII.b. Attributes

The 16 bytes of the attribute array contain 8 bits each, giving a total of 128 possible attributes.\(^{72}\) Essentially, if the bits are thought of sequentially in that the

\(^{71}\) Pre-v2.1 objects had only 32 possible attributes, and the object size was only 12 bytes, with only 4 bytes given to the attribute array.

\(^{72}\) In v2.1 and later; there were only 32 attributes in earlier versions
first byte represents attributes 0 to 7, the second byte represents attributes 8 to 15, the third 16 to 23, and the fourth and final byte 24 to 31.
IX. THE PROPERTY TABLE

The property table begins with two bytes giving the total number of properties. This is followed by a list of default property values, each of one 16-bit (2 byte) word each. After this, the properties themselves begin, starting with object 0.

The property values are entered sequentially, with no explicit identification of what object a particular value belongs to. It is the object’s object-table entry that gives the location of a given object’s property data in the property table.

Each property requires at least 2 bytes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Byte</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Property number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Number of data words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 -</td>
<td>Data in 16-bit word form (2 bytes each)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Property routines are given a “length” of 255 ($FF), which indicates that one word of data follows, representing the (indexed) address of the routine.

At the end of each object in the property table comes the property number 255 ($FF)—not to be confused with the “length” 255, which denotes a routine address. “Property” number 255 is an exception to the two-byte minimum; it does not have any attached length byte or data words. Each object has a place in the object table, even if it has no properties per se. A propertyless object simply has the value 255 at its position in the property table.

(Property data being written for an .HLB linkable file is slightly altered. For example, property routines are marked by $FE instead of $FF. See XIII.b The Linker.)

IX.a. Before, After, and Other Complex Properties

Consider the following complex property for an unspecified object:

```plaintext
after
{
```
object DoGet
{
    "You pick up the object."
}
object
{
    "You can't do that with the object."
}

(A simple explanation of the above is that <object>.after is called following a call to a verbroutine with which <object> was involved. If <object> was the object of the verbroutine (i.e., the object global), and the verbroutine global was DoGet, the first block runs. The second block will run if no previous block has run. For a full description of complex properties, see the Hugo Manual.)

First of all, the entry in the property table for <object>.after will point to the first line of code in the property routine. Arbitrarily, let’s assume this is $000044: the earliest possible code address following a blank grammar table.

```
000040: FF 00 00 00 45 00 48 1A 00 25 15 00 47 00 00 00
000050: 0D 00 00 00 45 00 25 18 00 47 00 16 00 0D 00 00
000060: 0D 21 29
```

That can be compared to the original source code as:

```
000044: 45 00 48 1A 00
```

The initial “object DoGet” block header, assuming that the engine-defined global object is global variable number 0, and that the address of DoGet is $000068 (represented as an indexed address as $001A).

```
000049: 25 15 00
```

Following the jump token ($25) is the indexed address to jump to if “object DoGet” isn’t matched. In this case, it is $0015, which translates to the absolute address $000054 (i.e., the address of the next header).

```
00004C: 47 00 00 00
```

The <textdata#> label is followed by three bytes giving the address in the text bank of the printed string “You pick up the object.”
$0D$ signals the end of this block of executable code, followed by zeroes padding to the next address boundary.

This block header is simply “object”.

As above, following the jump token ($25$) is the indexed address to jump to if the block header isn’t matched. In this case, it is $0018$, which translates to $000060$ (i.e., the closing $0D$ of the after routine).

The second line of text is printed here, followed by $0D$ to signal the end of this block of code and zero-padding to the next address boundary.

A $0D$ signals the end of the after routine. Property routines are followed by an automatic $21$, $29$, and $4C$ (i.e., “return true”).
X. THE EVENT TABLE

The event table begins with two bytes giving the total number of events. Each event requires 2 bytes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bytes</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 - 1</td>
<td>Associated object (0 for a global event)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 - 3</td>
<td>Address of event routine</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
XI. THE DICTIONARY AND SPECIAL WORDS

XI.a. Dictionary

The dictionary begins with two bytes giving the total number of entries. Each dictionary entry is composed of 1 or more bytes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Byte</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Length of entry (number of characters)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 -</td>
<td>Entry as an encrypted string</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

XI.b. Special Words

The special words table begins with two bytes giving the total number of entries. Each entry requires 5 bytes:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Byte</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0</td>
<td>Type (0 = synonym, 1 = removal, 2 = compound, 3 = user-defined punctuation)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 2</td>
<td>First dictionary address</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - 4</td>
<td>Second address (for synonyms and compounds)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A resourcefile is used to store multiple images, sounds, music tracks, etc. in one manageable file format. The format of a Hugo resourcefile is fairly straightforward.

Every resourcefile starts with a header of 6 bytes:

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>‘r’</td>
<td>[Note: old 24-bit resourcefiles used ‘R’]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01</td>
<td>Version number (i.e., 31 for version 3.1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>02 – 03</td>
<td>Number of resources</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>04 – 05</td>
<td>Length of index, in bytes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Following the header is the index itself. Each resource entry in the index looks like:

<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>00</td>
<td>Length of entry name (i.e., n bytes)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01 – n</td>
<td>Entry name</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 bytes</td>
<td>Offset in resourcefile from end of index</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 bytes</td>
<td>Length of resource, in bytes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Older resourcefiles (designated by ‘R’ in the header) had a limit of 17 MB on resourcefile size (or of any contained resource) and used the following for offset and length:

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 bytes</td>
<td>Offset in resourcefile from end of index</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 bytes</td>
<td>Length of resource, in bytes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are still supported by the Hugo Engine, but the compiler now writes 32-bit resourcefiles.

Resources are then appended sequentially immediately following the index.
XIII. THE HUGO COMPILER AND HOW IT WORKS

For reference, here is a simplified map of the compiler’s function calls, along with the source files in which they are located. The leftmost functions are all called from `main()` in `hc.c`:

```
+----------------+
| ParseCommand() | - Parse command line, including filenames, switches, and other settings
|   hcmisc.c     |
+----------------+
   |
+----------------+
|  OpenFiles()   | - Open initial source file, objectfile, listing, and temporary files
|   hcfile.c     |
+----------------+
   |
+----------------+  +-------------------------------------------------------------+
|    Pass1()     |  | GetLine()            - hcfile.c                                |
|    hcpass.c    |--| CompilerDirective() - hccomp.c [1.1]                      |
| (Definitions) |  | CompilerMem()       - hccomp.c                               |
|                |  | AddDirectory()      - hcmisc.c                               |
|                |  | Def...()            - hcdef.c [1.2]                         |
|                |  | PrinttoAll()        - hcmisc.c                               |
|                |  | (LinkerPass1()      - hclink.c) [1.3]                      |
+----------------+  +-------------------------------------------------------------+
   |
+----------------+  +-------------------------------------------------------------+
|     Pass2()    |  | GetWords()          - hcfile.c                               |
|     hcpass.c   |--| Build...()          - hcbuild.c [2.1]                        |
| (Build)       |  | (LinkerPass2())     - hclink.c) [2.2]                      |
+----------------+  +-------------------------------------------------------------+
```

In Pass 1, the initial source file and any included files are read into one contiguous temporary file (called allfile in the source). Any compiler directives (i.e., lines beginning with ‘#’, ‘$’ or ‘@’) are processed here [1.1], as are definitions of objects, attributes, properties, global variables, constants, and routines [1.2]. Once a line of source has been parsed and split into discrete words, it is written to allfile using PrinttoAll().

Pass 2 is where the bulk of compilation takes place. Lines of pre-parsed source are read from allfile. After Pass 1, all symbols (except local variables) are known. Individual constructs such as verbs, objects, routines, and events are processed via Build...() functions (i.e., BuildVerb(), BuildObject(), etc.) [2.1].

At any point in Pass2(), the tokenized line currently being processed is held in the global word[] array, with the number of tokens in the current line in words.

Sections of executable code, such as routines, events, or property routines, are generated by calling BuildCode() [2.3], which in turn calls appropriate Code...() functions as necessary (i.e., CodeDo(), CodeIf(), CodeWhile(), etc.), or simply CodeLine() for any line that doesn’t require special treatment [2.4]. Compiled byte-code is emitted to the objectfile via WriteCode() [2.5].

(In a departure from the normal order of defining symbols, synonyms, compounds words, removals, and user-defined punctuation are defined in Pass2(). Local variables are defined in BuildCode().)

By Pass 3, all executable code has been written to the objectfile, structures exist in memory representing to-be-constructed tables, and the text bank (long sections of printed text) exists in a temporary file. First, ResolveAddr() (from hcmisc.c) patches all references that were unknown at the time they were compiled. Pass3() then writes the object table, the property table, the event table, the array table, synonyms/removals/compounds/user-defined punctuation, the dictionary, and the text bank.
If a debuggable executable (called an .HDX file) is being generated, the last thing \texttt{Pass3()} does is to write the symbolic names of all objects, properties, attributes, aliases, globals, routines, events, and arrays to the end of the file.

\textbf{XIII.a. Compile-Time Symbol Data}

Here are the various structures, arrays, and variables used by the compiler to keep track of symbols at compile-time:

\textbf{Objects:}

- \texttt{objctr} \quad \text{total number of objects}
- \texttt{object[n]} \quad \text{symbolic name of object } n
- \texttt{object\_hash[n]} \quad \text{hash value of symbol name}
- \texttt{objattr[n][s]} \quad \text{attribute set } s \ (32 \text{ attributes/set})
- \texttt{oprop[n]} \quad \text{location in propdata[]}\text{ array}
- \texttt{objpropaddr[n]} \quad \text{location in property table}
- \texttt{parent[n]} \quad \text{physical parent}
- \texttt{sibling[n]} \quad \text{physical sibling}
- \texttt{child[n]} \quad \text{physical child}
- \texttt{oreplace[n]} \quad \text{number of times replaced using the replace directive}

\textbf{Attributes:}

- \texttt{attrctr} \quad \text{total number of attributes}
- \texttt{attribute[n]} \quad \text{symbolic name of attribute } n
- \texttt{attribute\_hash[n]} \quad \text{hash value of symbol name}

\textbf{Properties:}

- \texttt{propctr} \quad \text{total number of properties}
- \texttt{property[n]} \quad \text{symbolic name of property } n
- \texttt{property\_hash[n]} \quad \text{hash value of symbol name}
- \texttt{propset[p]} \quad \text{true if property } p \text{ has been defined for current object}
- \texttt{propadd[p]} \quad \text{ADDITIVE\_FLAG bit is true if property } p \text{ is additive; COMPLEX\_FLAG bit is true if property } p \text{ is a complex property}
- \texttt{propdata[a][b]} \quad \text{array of all property data}
- \texttt{propheap} \quad \text{size of property table}
Labels:
labelctr total number of labels
label[n] symbolic name of label n
label_hash[n] hash value of symbol name
laddr[n] indexed address of label

Routines:
routinectr total number of routines
routine[n] symbolic name of routine n
routine_hash[n] hash value of symbol name
raddr[n] indexed address of routine
rreplace[n] number of times replaced using the replace directive

Events (although not really symbols):
eventctr total number of events
eventin[n] object to which event n is attached
eventaddr[n] indexed address of event code

Aliases:
aliasctr total number of aliases
alias[n] symbolic name of alias n
alias_hash[n] hash value of symbol name
aliasof[n] attribute or property aliased (either the attribute number, or the property number plus MAXATTRIBUTES)

Global variables:
globalctr total number of global variables
global[n] symbolic name of global n
global_hash[n] hash value of symbol name
globaldef[n] initial value of global at startup

Local variables:
localctr total number of locals defined in the current code block
local[n] symbolic name of local n
local_hash[n] hash value of symbol name
unused[n] true until local n is used
**Constants:**

- `constctr`: total number of constants
- `constant[n]`: symbolic name of constant \( n \)
- `constant_hash[n]`: hash value of symbol name
- `constantval[n]`: defined value of constant

**Array:**

- `arrayctr`: total number of arrays
- `array[n]`: symbolic name of array \( n \)
- `array_hash[n]`: hash value of symbol name
- `arrayaddr[n]`: location in array table
- `arraylen[n]`: length of array \( n \)
- `arraysize`: current size of array table

**Dictionary:**

- `dictcount`: total number of dictionary entries
- `dicttable`: current size of dictionary
- `lexentry[n]`: dictionary entry \( n \)
- `lexaddr[n]`: location of entry \( n \) in dictionary table
- `lexnext[n]`: location of word following \( n \) in the `lexentry[]` array
- `lexstart[c]`: location of first word beginning with character \( c \) in `lexentry[]`
- `lexlast[c]`: location of last word beginning with character \( c \) in `lexentry[]`

**Special words:**

- `syncount`: total number of synonyms, compounds, removals, and user-defined punctuation
- `syndata[n]`: synstruct structure of \( n \)

The use of \(..._{\text{hash}}[n]\) is a rough form of hash-table coding. The compiler, in `FindHash()` in `hcdef.c`, produces an almost unique value for a given symbol based on the characters in it. Only if \(..._{\text{hash}}[n]\) matches an expected value does a more expensive `strcmp()` string comparison have to be performed to validate the “match” (or reject it).
XIII.b. The Linker

The compiler has to be able to both create a linkable file (called an .HLB file, as it is usually a precompiled version of the library) and read it back when a \#link directive is encountered.

In the first case, the compiler writes an .HLB file whenever the -h switch is set at invocation. In order to do that, it does the following things:

1. Property routines, normally marked by a “length” of 255, are changed to a “length” of 254.

2. All addresses are appended to the end of the file instead of being resolved in Pass3(). (Labels, being local and therefore not visible outside the .HLB file, are an exception; they are resolved as usual.)

3. Additional data (such as symbolic names) of objects and properties are written in Pass3(). Immediately following the object table, the compiler, in Pass3(), writes all the relevant data for attributes, aliases, globals, constants, routines.

4. The value “$$" is written into the ID string in the header.

Reading back (i.e., linking) an .HLB file is done in two steps: LinkerPass1() [1.3], called from Pass1(), and LinkerPass2() [2.2], called from Pass2(). (The linker routines are found in the source file hclink.c.)

LinkerPass1() simply skims the .HLB file for symbols and defines them accordingly, along with any relevant data. It also reads the .HLB file’s text bank and writes it to the current file’s temporary file containing the current text bank. Note that since linking must be done before any other definitions, there is no need to calculate offsets here for things like object numbers, addresses in the text bank, etc.

LinkerPass2() is responsible for reading the actual executable code. It does this mainly with a simple read/write (in blocks of 16K or smaller). It then reads the resolve table appended to the end of the .HLB file and writes it to the current resolve table so that Pass3() can properly resolve the offset code addresses at the end of compilation. (Since the actual start of executable code will vary depending on the length of the grammar table, it is not known at the .HLB file’s compile-time what a given address may ultimately be. It is only known that, for example, routine R is called from position P in the source. Both R and P must be adjusted for the offset.)

In Pass3(), ResolveAddr() is now able to resolve addresses from the linked file. Additionally, those properties with a “length” of 254 are adjusted so
that their values—which are really addresses of property routines—are adjusted as per the offset; the “length” of these properties is then written as 255.
Here is a simple map of the main engine loop and the associated functions:

```
+--------------------------+                         +--------------------------+
| RunGame()                | RunRoutine("init" routine) |             | RunRoutine("main" routine) | MAIN EXECUTION |
| herun.c                  | herun.c                    |             | herun.c                    | LOOP [1.1]     |
+--------------------------+                         +--------------------------+
/\ \                        /\                                    \\
|                             |                         |                         | Player input [1.2] |
|                             |                         |                         | \                        |
|                             |                         |                         | \                        |
|                             |                         |                         | \                        |
|                             |                         |                         | Print() [2.1]            |
|                             |                         |                         | heparse.c               |
|                             |                         |                         | +-------------------------+
|                             |                         |                         | [2.2]                    |
|                             |                         |                         | MatchCommand() <- MatchWord() - heparse.c |
|                             |                         |                         | heparse.c               |
|                             |                         | [2.3]                    |
|                             |                         | MatchObject() - heparse.c |
|                             |                         | +-------------------------+
|                             |                         | If input is not valid |
|                             |                         | If input is valid |
|                             |                         | \                        |
|                             |                         | \                        |
|                             |                         | \                        |
|                             |                         | RunRoutine(performaddr) [3.1] |
|                             |                         | +-------------------------+
/\ \                        /\                                    \\
\                             \                                    \\
```

XIV. THE HUGO ENGINE AND HOW IT WORKS
The functions in **herun.c** comprise most of the core game loop and calling points. RunGame() manages the game loop itself [1.1], which can be thought of as being:

**Main routine ➔ Player input ➔ Parsing ➔ Action (if valid)**

**Player input** [1.2] is the point at which the engine requests a new input line (usually from the keyboard, but possibly from another source such as a file during command playback).

The **Parsing** section [2.1] refers to the in-engine breakdown and analysis of the input line. The input line is matched against the grammar table in MatchCommand() [2.2]—using MatchWord() and MatchObject() [2.3] to identify either individual words as specified in the grammar, or groups of words that may represent an object name.

If a match is made, the appropriate globals (object, xobject, verbroutine) are set, and Perform() is called [3.1] (or, if Perform() has not been defined, the built-in substitute). (Note that if the command is directed to an object—i.e., another character—SpeakTo() is called instead of Perform().)

RunRoutine() is the method by which any function calls are executed. At any point in RunRoutine() (or in functions called by it), the value mem[codeptr] is the byte value (i.e., the token number) of the current instruction. The value of codeptr advances as execution progresses.

Whenever it is necessary for the engine to evaluate an expression, the expression evaluator subsystem in **heexpr.c** is invoked [4.1]. Here, the eval[] array is initialized with the expression to be evaluated by calling SetupExpr() (which will in turn call GetValue() to sequentially retrieve the elements of the expression). The expression currently in eval[] is solved by calling EvalExpr().
XIV.a.  Runtime Symbol Data

**Code execution:**
- `mem[]`: loaded .HEX file image
- `defseg`: current memory segment
- `codeseg`: code segment (i.e., 0)
- `codeptr`: current code position
- `stack_depth`: current calling depth

**Display:**
- `pbuffer[]`: print buffer for line-wrapping
- `currentpos`: current position (pixel or character)
- `currentline`: current row (line)
- `full`: counter for `PromptMore()` page-ending
- `fcolor, bgcolor, icolor, default_bgcolor`: colors for foreground, background, input, and default background
- `currentfont`: current font bitmask
- `textto`: if non-zero, text is printed to this array
- `SCREENWIDTH, SCREENHEIGHT`: maximum possible screen dimensions
- `inwindow`: true if in a window
- `physical_windowwidth, physical_windowheight, physical_windowleft, physical_windowtop, physical_windowright, physical_windowbottom`: “physical” window dimensions, in pixels or characters
- `charwidth, lineheight`: for font output management
- `FIXEDCHARWIDTH, FIXEDLINEHEIGHT, current_text_x, current_text_y`:

**Parsing:**
- `words`: number of parsed words in input
- `word[]`: breakdown of input into words
- `wd[]`: breakdown of input into dictionary entries
Arguments and expressions:
var[]
global and local variables
passlocal[]
locals passed to a routine
arguments_passed
number of arguments passed
ret
return value (from a routine)
incdec
amount a value is being incremented or decremented

Undo management:
undostack[]
for saving undo information
undoptr
number of operations undoable
undoturn
number of operations for this turn
undoinvalid
when undo is invalid
undorecord
true when recording undo info

XIV.b. Non-Portable Functionality

The Hugo Engine requires a number of non-portable functions which provide the interface layer between the engine and the operating system on which it is running. These functions are:

hugo_blockalloc
Large-block malloc()
hugo_blockfree
Large-block free()
hugo_splitpath
For splitting/combining filename/path
hugo_makepath
elements as per OS naming conventions
hugo_getfilename
Asks the user for a filename
hugo_overwrite
Verifies overwrite of a filename
hugo_closefiles
fcloseall() or equivalent
hugo_getkey
getch() or equivalent
hugo_getline
Keyboard line input
hugo_waitforkey
Cycles while waiting for a keypress
hugo_iskeywaiting
Reports if a keypress is waiting
hugo_timewait
Waits for $1/n$ seconds
hugo_init_screen
Performs necessary display setup
hugo_hasgraphics
Returns graphics availability
hugo_setgametitle
Sets title of window/screen
hugo_cleanup_screen Performs necessary screen cleanup
hugo_clearfullscreen Clears entire display area
hugo_clearwindow Clears currently defined window
hugo_settextmode Performs necessary text setup
hugo_settextwindow Defines window in display area
hugo_settextpos Sets cursor/text-output position
hugo_scrollwindowup Scrolls currently defined window
hugo_font Sets font for text output
hugo_settextcolor Sets foreground color for text
hugo_setbackcolor Sets background color for text
hugo_color Returns a valid color reference

hugo_print Outputs formatted text
hugo_charwidth Returns width of a given character
hugo_textwidth Returns width of a given string
hugo_strlen strlen() for embedded codes
hugo_specialchar Translation for special characters
hugo_hasvideo Returns video availability

For elaboration of the intent and implementation of these functions, see heblank.c in the standard source distribution (hugov31_source.tar.gz), or one of the implementations such as hemsvc.c (in hugov31_win32_source.zip, the Windows source package), hegcc.c (in hugov31_unix_source.tar.gz, the gcc/Unix package), etc.

XIV.c. Savefile Format

Hugo saves the game state by (among other things) saving the dynamic memory from start of the object table to the start of the text bank (i.e., including objects, properties, array data, and the dictionary). It does this, however, in a format that only notes if the data has changed from its initial state.

The structure of a Hugo savefile looks like this:

0000 - 0001 ID (assigned by compiler at compile-time)
0002 - 0009 Serial number
000A - 0209 All variables (global and local, 256*2 bytes)

73 v3.0 and later
Object table to text bank (see below)

- **n bytes**
  - Undo data (where \( n = \text{MAXUNDO} \times 2 \times 5 \) bytes)

- **2 bytes**
  - undoptr

- **2 bytes**
  - undoturn

- **1 byte**
  - undoinvalid

- **1 byte**
  - undorecord

In saving from the object table up to the start of the text bank, the engine performs a comparison of the original gamefile against in-memory dynamic data (which may have changed).

If a given byte \( n \) in a savefile is non-zero, it represents that the next \( n \) sequential bytes are identical between the gamefile and the saved data. If \( n \) is 0, the byte \( n+1 \) gives the value from the memory image. (Although it takes 2 bytes to represent a single changed byte, the position within both the gamefile and the memory image only increases by 1.)

The practical implementation of the Hugo savefile format is found in `RunSave()` and `RunRestore()` in `herun.c`.

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XV. DARK SECRETS OF THE HUGO DEBUGGER

The Hugo Debugger is basically a modified build of the Hugo Engine; the two share the same core code for program execution, but the debugger wraps it in a calling framework that allows the user (or the debugger itself) to control—i.e., start, stop, or step through—execution.

The key difference with the debugger build of the engine is in RunRoutine(), which in the debugger looks more like this:

\[
\begin{array}{c|c|c}
\text{RunRoutine()} & \text{Debugger()} & \text{if debugger\_interrupt is non-false) \\
\text{herun.c} & \text{hd.c} & \\
\end{array}
\]

The debugger build contains a global flag called debugger\_interrupt; if this flag is non-false, RunRoutine() is interrupted before executing the next instruction.

The Debugger() function is responsible for switching to and updating the debugger display. Debugger() is also the hub for any debugger functions initiated by the user, such as setting breakpoints, setting watch expressions, changing values, moving objects, etc.

The debugger controls program execution by returning from Debugger() to RunRoutine(). If debugger\_interrupt is true, only the current instruction will execute, then control will pass back to Debugger() (i.e., stepping). In order to resume free execution, Debugger() returns with debugger\_interrupt set to false.

A number of other variables in the debugger influence program execution in addition to debugger\_interrupt:

- \text{debugger\_run} \quad \text{true when engine is running freely}
- \text{debugger\_collapsing} \quad \text{true when collapsing the call}
debugger_step_over    true if stepping over (i.e., same-level stepping)
dinker_skip           true if skipping next instruction
dinker_finish         true if finishing current routine
dinker_step_back      true if stepping backward
step_nest             for stepping over nested calls (i.e., with debugger_step_over)

XV.a. Debugger Expression Evaluation

The debugger must evaluate expressions in several contexts, including when solving watch expressions and when changing an existing value. (In-debugger expression management is contained primarily in hdval.c.)

In order to do this, the debugger includes a minimal version of the compiler’s expression parser. It parses a user-supplied expression in the function ParseExpression(). What ParseExpression() does is to essentially compile that expression, storing the result in the debug workspace in the array table. (Remember that the address of the debug workspace—256 bytes after any user-defined array storage—is found in the header in .HDX files.)

After writing the expression, the debugger can then set codeptr to the start of the debug workspace, then call the engine’s SetupExpr() and EvalExpr() functions as it would to evaluate any other expression.

XV.b. The .HDX File Format

The .HDX file format for Hugo debuggable executables, as well as having some additional information in the header (see II.b The Header) and a 256 byte workspace reserved at the end of the array table, appends symbolic debugging data as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Data Type</th>
<th>Format and Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Object names</td>
<td>For each object: 1 byte giving the length, followed by the name as a string</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of properties</td>
<td>2 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Property names</td>
<td>For each property: 1 byte (length), then the name</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of attributes</td>
<td>2 bytes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attribute names</td>
<td>For each attribute: 1 byte (length), then the name</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
# of aliases  2 bytes
Alias names  For each alias: 1 byte (length),
then the name, then two bytes for
the association

# of routines  2 bytes
Routine names  For each routine: 1 byte (length),
then the name

# of events  2 bytes
Event data  4 bytes for each—2 bytes for the
parent; 2 bytes for the address

# of arrays  2 bytes
Array data  For each array: 1 byte for the name
length, followed by the name,
followed by 2 bytes for the address

(Note that it isn’t necessary to store the total number of objects, since that
is already available at the start of the normal object table.)
APPENDIX A: CODE PATTERNS

What follows is a detailed breakdown of how the set of valid tokens in Hugo is encoded and read within compiled code.

Tokens simply marked `TOKEN` are coded just as the byte value of the token in question; no other formatting or necessary token/value is required to follow. These are typically used for delimitation, signaling the end of a structure or structure component, etc.

`STATEMENTS` are those tokens that are read by the engine as some sort of operation—typically, these are “start of line” tokens, with some exceptions.

`VALUES` return an integer value to the engine within the context of an expression. See III.b Data Types, which describes all the valid types of values.

`INTERNAL` tokens never appear in source code. These are added by the compiler for use by the engine.

A “code block” is any executable statement or statements followed by a terminating $0D (’}’).

Constructions may include expressions or values; the difference between the two is that values are expected to be discrete data types. Note also that `GetVal()` in `heexpr.c` allows a solvable expression bracketed by $01 (‘(’) and $02 (’)’) to be treated as a discrete value.

Source references point to places in the Hugo C source code that may help to clarify how a particular construction is coded/interpreted. While not specifically mentioned, the compiling of many tokens is localized in `CodeLine()` in `hccode.c`, and the execution of many simple statements is localized in `RunRoutine()` in `herun.c`. The reading of values from data types or expressions begins with `GetValue()` in `heexpr.c`, with the basic identification of values in `GetVal()`.

01 ( TOKEN
02 ) TOKEN
03 . TOKEN
04 : reserved (not coded)
APPENDIX A: CODE PATTERNS

05 = TOKEN
06 - TOKEN
07 + TOKEN
08 * TOKEN
09 / TOKEN
0A | TOKEN
0B ; TOKEN
0C { TOKEN
0D } TOKEN

(Signifies the end of a code block)

0E [ TOKEN
0F ] TOKEN
10 # TOKEN
11 ~ TOKEN
12 >= TOKEN
13 <= TOKEN
14 ~= TOKEN
15 & TOKEN
16 > TOKEN
17 < TOKEN
18  if  

18  <skip distance>  <expression>  4C
     <conditional block>
<next statement>

As in:  
if  <expression>
{...}

Where the two bytes of  <skip distance>  are the absolute distance—in low-byte/high-byte order—from the first byte of the pair to the next line of code that will execute if  <expression>  evaluates to false, i.e., the distance to  <next statement>.  If  <expression>  evaluates to a non-false value,  <conditional block>  is run.  Note that $4C indicates end-of-line.

<expression>  is simply a tokenized representation of the expression as it appears in the source line.

Source:  
hccode.c – CodeIf()
herun.c – RunIf()

19 ,  

1A  else  

1A  <skip distance>
     <conditional block>
<next statement>

As in:  else
{...}

Where  <conditional block>  runs only if no immediately preceding  if  or  elseif  condition has been met.  If a previous condition has been met, control passes ahead to  <next statement>, i.e., forward the number of bytes given by the two bytes of  <skip distance>.

Source:  hccode.c – CodeLine()
herun.c – RunIf()

1B elseif STATEMENT

1B <skip distance> <expression> 4C
   <conditional block>
   <next statement>

As in:  elseif <expression>
   {...}

See if.

Source:  hccode.c – CodeIf()
herun.c – RunIf()

1C while STATEMENT

: <starting point>
1C <skip distance> <expression> 4C
   <conditional block>
25 <starting point>
   <next statement>

As in:  while <expression>
   {...}

As long as <expression> evaluates to a non-false value, <conditional block> is run. Note the implicit jump ($25) coded by the compiler to maintain the loop—<starting point> is only an address; only the two-byte address following $25 is written as a jump-back point. See if.

Note that because the <starting point> is written as a two-byte indexed address, it must begin on an address boundary, padded with empty ($00) values, if necessary.

Source:  hccode.c – CodeWhile()
herun.c – RunIf()
1D  do  STATEMENT

1D <skip distance>
  :<starting point>
  <block>
1C <two bytes> <expression> 4C
  <next statement>

As in:
do
 {...}
while <expression>

If, after <block> executes, <expression> evaluates to a non-false value, the engine returns to <starting point> (which must begin on an address boundary). The two bytes following while ($1C) match the syntax of the normal while loop, but are undefined for this usage. Instead, the distance to the next statement is given after the do token ($1D) in the two bytes of <skip distance>.

Source:  hccode.c – CodeDo()
        herun.c – RunDo()

1E  select  STATEMENT

1E

When encountered by the engine, resets the conditional-statement evaluator, i.e., so that the next case conditional is treated as an if instead of an elseif. Note that the variable that follows select in a line of source code is not coded here (but it is needed by the compiler to construct subsequent case statements).

See case.

Source:  hccode.c – CodeSelect()
        herun.c – RunIf()
1F case STATEMENT

Treated identically by the engine to elseif once a select token ($1E) has reset the conditional-statement evaluator to no previous matches.

In other words, what the compiler does is take:

```plaintext
select <expression>
  case <test1>
    <first conditional block>
  case <test2>
    <second conditional block>
  ...
  case else
    <default conditional block>
```

and restructure it into:

```plaintext
1F <skip distance> <expression> 05 <test1> 4C
  <first conditional block>
1F <skip distance> <expression> 05 <test2> 4C
  <second conditional block>
1A <skip distance>
  <default conditional block>
```

Note that $1A is the else token, $05 is the ‘=’ token, and that the two bytes of <skip distance> give the distance to the next case.

Source:  hccode.c – CodeSelect()
         herun.c – RunIf()

20 for STATEMENT

```plaintext
<assignment>:<starting point>
  20 <skip distance> <expression> 4C
    <conditional block>
      <modifying expression>
        25 <starting point>
      <next statement>
```  

As in:  for (<assign>; <expr>; <modifying>)}
The <assignment>, if given in the source code, is coded as a regular executable assignment of some data type. Again, nothing is explicitly coded at <starting point>—it is simply a reference point for the jump ($25) to return to. The for ($20) line operates as a regular conditional test (see if). The <modifying expression> is appended after the conditional block is coded. This, like the <assignment> is simply a regular executable assignment.

Source: 

```c
hccode.c - CodeFor()
herun.c - RunIf()
```

21  return  STATEMENT
   21  <expression>  4C

As in:  return <expression>

Where <expression> is optional, so that a standalone return order can be coded as:

21  4C

22  break  STATEMENT
   22

23  and  TOKEN

24  or  TOKEN

25  jump  STATEMENT
   25  <address>

As in:  jump <label>
Where `<address>` is two bytes giving the indexed address of the next statement to be executed. (The `<label>` is coded as `<address>`.)

```
run STATEMENT
26 <value> 4C
```

Where `<value>` is simply read and forgotten, as in running an `object.property` property routine and throwing away the value.

```
is TOKEN
27 As in: <object> is <attribute> (statement form)
<object> is <attribute> (value form).
```

```
ot TOKEN
28
```

```
true VALUE
29
```

Hard-coded Boolean constant meaning 1.

```
false VALUE
2A
```

Hard-coded Boolean constant meaning 0.

```
local reserved (not coded)
```

```
verb STATEMENT
2C <n> <dict_1> <dict_2>...<dict_n>
```

---

74 Pre-v2.3 omitted the `eol#` marker ($4C)
Occurs in the grammar table and explicitly denotes the beginning of a new verb, where the single byte \(<n>\) gives the number of dictionary words coded immediately following representing synonyms for this verb.

2D  xverb  STATEMENT

2D  \(<n>\)  \(<dict_1>\)  \(<dict_2>\)...\(<dict_n>\)

Coded and handled identically to verb, except that it is flagged differently so the engine knows it is a “non-action”.

2E  held  GRAMMAR TOKEN

2F  multi  GRAMMAR TOKEN

30  multiheld  GRAMMAR TOKEN

31  newline  PRINT TOKEN

Signals a print statement to issue a newline only if one is needed.

32  anything  GRAMMAR TOKEN

33  print  STATEMENT

33  \(<print\ data>\)  4C

33  \(<print\ data>\)  0B  \(<print\ data>\)  ...  4C

Where \(<print\ data>\) is one of the following:

stringdata#
any value, treated as a dictionary entry

parse$
serial$

newline
capital
number
hex

Multiple <print data> sequences are separated by a semicolon (‘;’) token ($0B$).

Source: herun.c – RunPrint()

34 number GRAMMAR TOKEN or PRINT TOKEN

In a print statement, signals that the following value should be printed as a number, not as the corresponding dictionary entry.

In a grammar line, represents any integer number.

35 capital PRINT TOKEN

Signals that the following dictionary entry should have its first letter capitalized.

36 text STATEMENT

36 3B <value> 4C

As in: text to n

Where <value> is either an address in the array table, or constant 0 (to restore text output to the standard display).

---

75 Pre-v2.3 omitted the eol# marker ($4C$).
TECHNICAL SYSTEM SPECIFICATION

37 graphics STATEMENT

(Not implemented.)

38 color STATEMENT

38 <value> 4C
38 <value> 19 <value> 4C
38 <value> 19 <value> 19 <value> 4C

As in:
color foreground
color foreground, background
color foreground, background, inputcolor

Where <value> is a Hugo color value from 0 to 17 giving the foreground text color. If a second value is given, separated by a comma ($19), it represents the background color. If a third value is given, separated by a comma ($19), it represents the input color.

39 remove STATEMENT

39 <value> 4C

As in:
remove <object>

Source: herun.c – RunMove()

3A move STATEMENT

3A <value> 3B <value> 4C

As in:
move <object1> to <object2>

Source: herun.c – RunMove()

3B to TOKEN

Followed by a value, as in:

76 Pre-v2.3 omitted the eol$ marker ($4C).
77 Pre-v2.3 omitted the eol$ marker ($4C).
3B <value>

Typically found in “print to n”, “text to n”, etc., in which case the line will finish with eol#

...3B <value> 4C

3C parent VALUE

3C 01 <expression> 02

As in: parent(...)

Returns the parent object of the object resulting from <expression>.

(Alternate usage is as a grammar token, coded simply as $3C with no following parenthetical expression.)

3D sibling VALUE

3D 01 <expression> 02

As in: sibling(...)

Returns the sibling of the object resulting from <expression>.

3E child VALUE

3E 01 <expression> 02

As in: child(...)

Returns the child object of the object resulting from <expression>.

3F youngest VALUE

3F 01 <expression> 02
As in:  youngest(...)  

Returns the youngest (most recently added) child object of the object resulting from <expression>.

40  eldest  VALUE  
40 01 <expression> 02  
As in:  eldest(...)  

Interpreted identically to “child(...)”.

41  younger  VALUE  
41 01 <expression> 02  
As in:  younger(...)  

Interpreted identically to “sibling(...)”.

42  elder  VALUE  
42 01 <expression> 02  
As in:  elder(...)  

Returns the object number of the object more recently added to the parent of the object resulting from <expression>.

43  prop#  INTERNAL VALUE  
43 <property>  

Where <property> is a single byte giving the property number.
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44 attr# INTERNAL VALUE

44 <attribute>

Where <attribute> is a single byte giving the attribute number.

45 var# INTERNAL VALUE

45 <variable>

Where <variable> is a single byte giving the variable number. 0-239 are global variables, and 240-255 are local to this routine/event/etc.

46 dictentry# INTERNAL VALUE

46 <dictionary entry>

Where <dictionary entry> is two bytes (in low-byte/high-byte order) giving the address of the entry in the dictionary table.

47 text# INTERNAL STATEMENT

47 <text address>

Where <text address> is three bytes (in lowest-to-highest byte order) giving the address of the entry in the text bank.

48 routine# INTERNAL STATEMENT or VALUE

48 <routine address>

Where <routine address> is two bytes giving the indexed address of the specified routine.
49 debugdata# INTERNAL DATA

Is followed by data that is helpful to the engine at runtime—not visible in, for example, the debugger’s code window.

E.g., local variable name:

49 45 <byte> <data>

Where <byte> is a single byte giving the number of following <data> bytes, which give the name of the next local variable as an ASCII string. Read by the debugger; ignored by the engine.

4A object# INTERNAL VALUE

4A <object number>

Where <object number> is two bytes giving the number of the specified object.

4B value# INTERNAL VALUE

4B <number>

Where <number> is two bytes giving the specified constant value.

4C eol# INTERNAL TOKEN

End-of-line marker.

4D system INTERNAL STATEMENT or VALUE

4D 01 <value> 02 4C

As in: system(<value>)

78 Pre-v2.3 omitted the eol# marker ($4C).
Calls the system-level function designated by `<value>`. (See *The Hugo Programming Manual* for further elaboration on the system statement.)

Obsolete usage:79

```
4D <value>
```

Where `<value>` is some Hugo data type giving the number of the system function to call.

Source: `herun.c` - RunSystem()

```
4E notheld   GRAMMAR TOKEN
```

```
4F multinotheld   GRAMMAR TOKEN
```

```
50 window   STATEMENT
```

```c
window n

    50 <value> 4C
```

window left, top, right, bottom

```c
    50 <v1> 19 <v2> 19 <v3> 19 <v4> 4C
```

window

```c
    50 4C
```

window 0

```c
    50 4B 00 00 4C
```

Where `<value>` or `<vn>`, if present, gives a number of lines or screen coordinate. All instances of the `window` statement are followed by a code block except for “window 0”. (See

---

79 Not implemented post-v2.2.
The Hugo Programming Manual for further elaboration on the window statement.)

(Prior to v2.4, the third syntax, i.e., “window” alone, complied as “50 4C” in v2.3 or simply “50” in early versions, followed by a code block, was the only usage. The result was a window beginning at the top of the screen, reaching down to the current cursor row at the termination of the block, and protected then from scrolling of the bottom/main window.)

Source: herun.c – RunWindow()

51 random VALUE

51 01 <expression> 02

As in: random(…)

Returns a random value between 1 and <expression>.

52 word VALUE

52 0E <expression> 0F

As in: word[...] Returns the dictionary address of word[<expression>].

53 locate STATEMENT

53 <value> 4C
53 <value> 19 <value> 4C

As in: locate x
locate x, y

Where <value> is the column position to reposition the cursor to within the currently defined window. If a second value is given, it represents the new row position.
54 parse$  TOKEN

Read-only engine variable representing the engine parser’s internal parse$ string.

Source:  herun.c - RunPrint()
         hemisc.c - Dict(), GetWord()

55 children  VALUE

55 01 <expression> 02

As in:  children(...)

Returns the number of children owned by the object resulting from <expression>.

56 in  TOKEN

As in:  for <object> in <parent>

or

if <object> [not] in <parent>

57 pause  STATEMENT

57

Waits for a keypress. Stores the resulting key value in word[0].

58 runevents  STATEMENT

58

Runs all events in scope.
59  arraydata#  VALUE

array[<expression>] - element <expression> of array <array>

59 <array> 0E <value> 0F

array[] - length of array <array>

59 <array> 0E 0F

array - address of array <array>

59 <array>

Where <array> is two bytes giving the address of the array in the array table.

5A  call  STATEMENT or VALUE

5A <value> 4C

As in: call <routine address>

Where <value> gives the indexed address of the routine to be called.

5B  stringdata#  PRINT TOKEN

5B <n> <char1> <char2> <char3> ... <charn>

Valid only in a print statement. <n> gives the number of characters contained in the print string.

Source: herun.c - RunPrint()

5C  save  VALUE

As in: x = save

---

Pre-v2.3 omitted the eol# marker ($4C) when used as a statement.
Calls the engine’s save-game procedure (which includes filename input); returns a true value on success, or false on failure.

**Source:** *herun.c* – RunSave()

5D   **restore**   VALUE

As in:  

\[
x = \text{restore}
\]

Calls the engine’s restore-game procedure (which includes filename input); returns a true value on success, or false on failure.

**Source:** *herun.c* – RunRestore()

5E   **quit**   STATEMENT

5E

Terminates program execution and exits the engine.

5F   **input**   STATEMENT

5F

Prompts for user input, storing the resulting word(s) in the `word[]` array. Unknown (i.e., non-dictionary) words become 0, or “”; the last unknown word is stored in `parse$`.

**Source:** *herun.c* – RunInput()

60   **serial$**   PRINT TOKEN

Read-only engine variable representing the compiler-determined serial number.

**Source:** *hemisc.c* – GetWord()
61 cls STATEMENT

Clears the currently defined text window.

62 scripton VALUE

As in: x = scripton

Calls the engine’s begin-scripting procedure (which includes filename input); returns a true value on success, or false on failure.

Source: herun.c - RunScript()

63 scriptoff VALUE

As in: x = scriptoff

Calls the engine’s end-scripting procedure; returns a true value on success, or false on failure.

Source: herun.c - RunScript()

64 restart VALUE

As in: x = restart

Attempts to reload the dynamic game data and restart the game loop; returns a true value on success or false on failure.

65 hex PRINT TOKEN

Signals that the following value should be printed as a hexadecimal number, not as the corresponding dictionary entry.
66 object GRAMMAR TOKEN

(Removed as a token after grammar table is compiled so that “object” can refer to the object global variable.)

67 xobject GRAMMAR TOKEN

(Removed as a token after grammar table is compiled so that “xobject” can refer to the xobject global variable.)

68 string VALUE

68 01 <expr1> 19 <expr2> 19 <expr3> 02

As in: x = string(a, "apple", 8)

Calls the engine string-writing function to write the dictionary entry <expr2> into the array table at the array address given by <expr1>, to a maximum of <expr3> characters. <expr1> is any data type or expression; <expr2> is either a value or the parse$ token ($54); <expr3> is optional, and if it is not given, the $02 token comes in place of the second $19.

Source: herun.c – RunString()

69 array VALUE

69 <value>

Forces <value> to be used as an address in the array table, so that “array <value>” can be used as arraydata#.

Source: heexpr.c – GetVal()

6A printchar STATEMENT

6A <value1> 19 <value2> 19 ... 4C

As in: printchar 'A', 'B', ...

287
Outputs a single ASCII character value at the current screen position. Multiple values are separated by $19; the sequence is terminated by $4C.

### 6B undo VALUE

**As in:**

\[ x = \text{undo} \]

Attempts to restore all data changes made since the last typed input; returns a true value on success or false on failure.

**Source:**

`hemisc.c` - `SaveUndo()`, `Undo()`

### 6C dict VALUE

**6C 01 <expr1> 19 <expr2> 02**

**As in:**

\[ x = \text{dict(<array>), <len>)} \]

Calls the engine dictionary-writing function to write the given string into the dictionary, to a maximum of `<len>` characters. If `<expr1>` is `parse$` ($54), then the value of `parse$` is used; otherwise `<expr1>` is an array address in the array table. If the string is already a dictionary entry, its location is returned. Otherwise, it is appended to the end of the table, and the new location is returned.

**Source:**

`hemisc.c` - `Dict()`

### 6D recordon VALUE

**As in:**

\[ x = \text{recordon} \]

Calls the engine’s begin-command-recording procedure (which includes filename input); returns a true value on success, or false on failure.

**Source:**

`hemisc.c` - `RecordCommands()`
APPENDIX A: CODE PATTERNS

6E recordoff VALUE

As in: x = recordoff

Calls the engine’s end-command-recording procedure; returns a true value on success, or false on failure.

Source: hemisc.c - RecordCommands()

6F writefile STATEMENT

6F <value> 4C
...file i/o code block...

As in: writefile <file>
{...}

Opens the file named by the dictionary entry <value>, erasing it if it previously exists, and runs the following code block. Upon any error, jumps to the end of the file i/o code block and closes <file>.

Source: hemisc.c - FileIO()

70 readfile STATEMENT

70 <value> 4C
...file i/o code block...

As in: readfile <file>
{...}

Opens the file named by the dictionary entry <value> and runs the following code block. Upon any error, jumps to the end of the file i/o code block and closes <file>.

71 writeval STATEMENT

71 <value> 19 <value> 19 ... 4C

81 Pre-v2.3 omitted the eol# marker ($4C).
82 Pre-v2.3 omitted the eol# marker ($4C).
Valid only in a writefile block. Writes \( <\text{value}> \) as a 16-bit integer to the currently open file. Multiple values are separated by $19.

72 readval VALUE

As in: \[ x = \text{readval} \]

Valid only in a readfile block. Reads a 16-bit integer from the currently open file.

73 playback VALUE

As in: \[ x = \text{playback} \]

Calls the engines command-playback procedure (including filename input) and attempts to begin command playback from the requested file. If found, player input in RunGame() is overridden by commands in the file until end-of-file. Returns true on success, false on failure.

74 colour STATEMENT

Treated identically to $38: color.

75 picture STATEMENT

75 \(<\text{value1}> \text{ 19 }<\text{value2}> \text{ 4C} >
75 \(<\text{value1}> \text{ 4C} >

Attempts to load and display a JPEG-format picture either as resource \( <\text{value2}> \) in resourcefile \( <\text{value1}> \), or, if \( <\text{value2}> \) is not given, simply as filename \( <\text{value1}> \). (All \( <\text{values}> \) are dictionary entries.) If there is an error, the system_status global variable is set.

76 label# INTERNAL DATA

83 Pre-v2.3 omitted the eol# marker ($4C).
Attempts to load and play a WAV-format sample as resource `<value2>` in resourcefile `<value1>`. (`<value1>` and `<value2>` are dictionary entries.) If `<value3>` is given, the sample output volume is set to `<value3>` (as a percentage of normal output). If `<value1>` is 0, the current sound is stopped. If there is an error, the `system_status` global variable is set.

Attempts to load and play a music resource\(^{84}\) as resource `<value2>` in resourcefile `<value1>`. (`<value1>` and `<value2>` are dictionary entries.) If `<value3>` is given, the music output volume is set to `<value3>` (as a percentage of normal output). If `<value1>` is 0, the current music is stopped. If there is an error, the `system_status` global variable is set.

\(^{84}\) Version 2.5 supports MOD, S3M, and XM-format music modules. Version 3.0 and later additionally support MIDI and MP3 files.
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