Lua 5.1 Reference Manual

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1 - Introduction

Lua is an extension programming language designed to support general procedural programming with data description facilities. It also offers good support for object-oriented programming, functional programming, and data-driven programming. Lua is intended to be used as a powerful, light-weight scripting language for any program that needs one. Lua is implemented as a library, written in *clean* C (that is, in the common subset of ANSI C and C++).

Being an extension language, Lua has no notion of a "main" program: it only works *embedded* in a host client, called the *embedding program* or simply the *host*. This host program can invoke functions to execute a piece of Lua code, can write and read Lua variables, and can register C functions to be called by Lua code. Through the use of C functions, Lua can be augmented to cope with a wide range of different domains, thus creating customized programming languages sharing a syntactical framework. The Lua distribution includes a sample host program called <code>lua</code>, which uses the Lua library to offer a complete, stand-alone Lua interpreter.

Lua is free software, and is provided as usual with no guarantees, as stated in its license. The implementation described in this manual is available at Lua's official web site, www.lua.org.

Like any other reference manual, this document is dry in places. For a discussion of the decisions behind the design of Lua, see the technical papers available at Lua's web site. For a detailed introduction to programming in Lua, see Roberto's book, *Programming in Lua (Second Edition)*.

2 - The Language

This section describes the lexis, the syntax, and the semantics of Lua. In other words, this section describes which tokens are valid, how they can be combined, and what their combinations mean.

The language constructs will be explained using the usual extended BNF notation, in which $\{a\}$ means 0 or more a's, and [a] means an optional a. Non-terminals are shown like non-terminal, keywords are shown like **kword**, and other terminal symbols are shown like '='. The complete syntax of Lua can be found at the end of this manual.

2.1 - Lexical Conventions

Names (also called *identifiers*) in Lua can be any string of letters, digits, and underscores, not beginning with a digit. This coincides with the definition of names in most languages. (The definition of letter depends on the current locale: any character considered alphabetic by the current locale can be used in an identifier.) Identifiers are used to name variables and table fields.

The following *keywords* are reserved and cannot be used as names:

and	break	do	else	elseif	
end	false	for	function	if	
in	local	nil	not	or	while
repeat	return	then	true	until	

Lua is a case-sensitive language: and is a reserved word, but And and AND are two different, valid names. As a convention, names starting with an underscore followed by uppercase letters (such as _VERSION) are reserved for internal global variables used by Lua.

The following strings denote other tokens:

Literal strings can be delimited by matching single or double quotes, and can contain the following C-like escape sequences: '\a' (bell), '\b' (backspace), '\f' (form feed), '\n' (newline), '\r' (carriage return), '\t' (horizontal tab), '\v' (vertical tab), '\\' (backslash), '\"' (quotation mark [double quote]), and '\' (apostrophe [single quote]). Moreover, a backslash followed by a real newline results in a newline in the string. A character in a string may also be specified by its numerical value using the escape sequence \ddd, where \ddd is a sequence of up to three decimal digits. (Note that if a numerical escape is to be followed by a digit, it must be expressed using exactly three digits.) Strings in Lua may contain any 8-bit value, including embedded zeros, which can be specified as '\0'.

To put a double (single) quote, a newline, a backslash, or an embedded zero inside a literal string enclosed by double (single) quotes you must use an escape sequence. Any other character may be directly inserted into the literal. (Some control characters may cause problems for the file system, but Lua has no problem with them.)

Literal strings can also be defined using a long format enclosed by $long\ brackets$. We define an $opening\ long\ bracket\ of\ level\ n$ as an opening square bracket followed by n equal signs followed by another opening square bracket. So, an opening long bracket of level 0 is written as $[\ [\],\ an\ opening\ long\ bracket$ of level 1 is written as $[\]====]$. A long string $long\ bracket$ is defined similarly; for instance, a closing long bracket of level 4 is written as $[\]====]$. A long string starts with an opening long bracket of any level and ends at the first closing long bracket of the same level. Literals in this bracketed form may run for several lines, do not interpret any escape sequences, and ignore long brackets of any other level. They may contain anything except a closing bracket of the proper level.

For convenience, when the opening long bracket is immediately followed by a newline, the newline is not included in the string. As an example, in a system using ASCII (in which 'a' is coded as 97, newline is coded as 10, and '1' is coded as 49), the five literals below denote the same string:

```
a = 'alo\n123"'
a = "alo\n123\""
a = '\97lo\10\04923"'
a = [[alo
123"]]
a = [==[
alo
123"]==]
```

A *numerical constant* may be written with an optional decimal part and an optional decimal exponent. Lua also accepts integer hexadecimal constants, by prefixing them with 0x. Examples of valid numerical constants are

```
3 3.0 3.1416 314.16e-2 0.31416E1 0xff 0x56
```

A *comment* starts with a double hyphen (--) anywhere outside a string. If the text immediately after -- is not an opening long bracket, the comment is a *short comment*, which runs until the end of the line. Otherwise, it is a *long comment*, which runs until the corresponding closing long bracket. Long comments are frequently used to disable code temporarily.

2.2 - Values and Types

Lua is a *dynamically typed language*. This means that variables do not have types; only values do. There are no type definitions in the language. All values carry their own type.

All values in Lua are *first-class values*. This means that all values can be stored in variables, passed as arguments to other functions, and returned as results.

There are eight basic types in Lua: nil, boolean, number, string, function, userdata, thread, and table. Nil is the type of the value nil, whose main property is to be different from any other value; it usually represents the absence of a useful value. Boolean is the type of the values false and true. Both nil and false make a condition false; any other value makes it true. Number represents real (double-precision floating-point) numbers. (It is easy to build Lua interpreters that use other internal representations for numbers, such as single-precision float or long

integers; see file luaconf.h.) *String* represents arrays of characters. Lua is 8-bit clean: strings may contain any 8-bit character, including embedded zeros ('\0') (see §2.1).

Lua can call (and manipulate) functions written in Lua and functions written in C (see §2.5.8).

The type userdata is provided to allow arbitrary C data to be stored in Lua variables. This type corresponds to a block of raw memory and has no pre-defined operations in Lua, except assignment and identity test. However, by using metatables, the programmer can define operations for userdata values (see §2.8). Userdata values cannot be created or modified in Lua, only through the C API. This guarantees the integrity of data owned by the host program.

The type *thread* represents independent threads of execution and it is used to implement coroutines (see §2.11). Do not confuse Lua threads with operating-system threads. Lua supports coroutines on all systems, even those that do not support threads.

The type *table* implements associative arrays, that is, arrays that can be indexed not only with numbers, but with any value (except **nil**). Tables can be *heterogeneous*; that is, they can contain values of all types (except **nil**). Tables are the sole data structuring mechanism in Lua; they may be used to represent ordinary arrays, symbol tables, sets, records, graphs, trees, etc. To represent records, Lua uses the field name as an index. The language supports this representation by providing a . name as syntactic sugar for a ["name"]. There are several convenient ways to create tables in Lua (see §2.5.7).

Like indices, the value of a table field can be of any type (except **nil**). In particular, because functions are first-class values, table fields may contain functions. Thus tables may also carry *methods* (see §2.5.9).

Tables, functions, threads, and (full) userdata values are *objects*: variables do not actually *contain* these values, only *references* to them. Assignment, parameter passing, and function returns always manipulate references to such values; these operations do not imply any kind of copy.

The library function type returns a string describing the type of a given value.

2.2.1 - Coercion

Lua provides automatic conversion between string and number values at run time. Any arithmetic operation applied to a string tries to convert this string to a number, following the usual conversion rules. Conversely, whenever a number is used where a string is expected, the number is converted to a string, in a reasonable format. For complete control over how numbers are converted to strings, use the format function from the string library (see string.format).

2.3 - Variables

Variables are places that store values. There are three kinds of variables in Lua: global variables, local variables, and table fields.

A single name can denote a global variable or a local variable (or a function's formal parameter, which is a particular kind of local variable):

```
var ::= Name
```

Name denotes identifiers, as defined in §2.1.

Any variable is assumed to be global unless explicitly declared as a local (see §2.4.7). Local variables are *lexically scoped*: local variables can be freely accessed by functions defined inside their scope (see §2.6).

Before the first assignment to a variable, its value is **nil**.

Square brackets are used to index a table:

```
var ::= prefixexp `[´ exp `]´
```

The meaning of accesses to global variables and table fields can be changed via metatables. An access to an indexed variable t[i] is equivalent to a call $gettable_event(t,i)$. (See §2.8 for a complete description of the $gettable_event$ function. This function is not defined or callable in Lua. We use it here only for explanatory purposes.)

The syntax var. Name is just syntactic sugar for var ["Name"]:

```
var ::= prefixexp `.´ Name
```

All global variables live as fields in ordinary Lua tables, called *environment tables* or simply *environments* (see §2.9). Each function has its own reference to an environment, so that all global variables in this function will refer to this environment table. When a function is created, it inherits the environment from the function that created it. To get the environment table of a Lua function, you call getfenv. To replace it, you call setfenv. (You can only manipulate the environment of C functions through the debug library; (see §5.9).)

An access to a global variable x is equivalent to env.x, which in turn is equivalent to

```
gettable_event(_env, "x")
```

where _env is the environment of the running function. (See §2.8 for a complete description of the gettable_event function. This function is not defined or callable in Lua. Similarly, the _env variable is not defined in Lua. We use them here only for explanatory purposes.)

2.4 - Statements

Lua supports an almost conventional set of statements, similar to those in Pascal or C. This set includes assignment, control structures, function calls, and variable declarations.

2.4.1 - Chunks

The unit of execution of Lua is called a *chunk*. A chunk is simply a sequence of statements, which are executed sequentially. Each statement can be optionally followed by a semicolon:

```
chunk ::= {stat [`;´]}
```

There are no empty statements and thus ';;' is not legal.

Lua handles a chunk as the body of an anonymous function with a variable number of arguments (see §2.5.9). As such, chunks can define local variables, receive arguments, and return values.

A chunk may be stored in a file or in a string inside the host program. When a chunk is executed, first it is precompiled into instructions for a virtual machine, and then the compiled code is executed by an interpreter for the virtual machine.

Chunks may also be pre-compiled into binary form; see program luac for details. Programs in source and compiled forms are interchangeable; Lua automatically detects the file type and acts accordingly.

2.4.2 - Blocks

A block is a list of statements; syntactically, a block is the same as a chunk:

```
block ::= chunk
```

A block may be explicitly delimited to produce a single statement:

```
stat ::= do block end
```

Explicit blocks are useful to control the scope of variable declarations. Explicit blocks are also sometimes used to add a **return** or **break** statement in the middle of another block (see §2.4.4).

2.4.3 - Assignment

Lua allows multiple assignment. Therefore, the syntax for assignment defines a list of variables on the left side and a list of expressions on the right side. The elements in both lists are separated by commas:

```
stat ::= varlist1 `=´ explist1
varlist1 ::= var {`,´ var}
explist1 ::= exp {`,´ exp}
```

Expressions are discussed in §2.5.

Before the assignment, the list of values is *adjusted* to the length of the list of variables. If there are more values than needed, the excess values are thrown away. If there are fewer values than needed, the list is extended with

as many **nil**'s as needed. If the list of expressions ends with a function call, then all values returned by this call enter in the list of values, before the adjustment (except when the call is enclosed in parentheses; see §2.5).

The assignment statement first evaluates all its expressions and only then are the assignments performed. Thus the code

```
i = 3
i, a[i] = i+1, 20
```

sets a [3] to 20, without affecting a [4] because the i in a [i] is evaluated (to 3) before it is assigned 4. Similarly, the line

```
x, y = y, x
```

exchanges the values of x and y.

The meaning of assignments to global variables and table fields can be changed via metatables. An assignment to an indexed variable t[i] = val is equivalent to $settable_event(t, i, val)$. (See §2.8 for a complete description of the $settable_event$ function. This function is not defined or callable in Lua. We use it here only for explanatory purposes.)

An assignment to a global variable x = val is equivalent to the assignment $_{env.x} = val$, which in turn is equivalent to

```
settable_event(_env, "x", val)
```

where <u>env</u> is the environment of the running function. (The <u>env</u> variable is not defined in Lua. We use it here only for explanatory purposes.)

2.4.4 - Control Structures

The control structures **if**, **while**, and **repeat** have the usual meaning and familiar syntax:

```
stat ::= while exp do block end
stat ::= repeat block until exp
stat ::= if exp then block {elseif exp then block} [else block] end
```

Lua also has a **for** statement, in two flavors (see §2.4.5).

The condition expression of a control structure may return any value. Both **false** and **nil** are considered false. All values different from **nil** and **false** are considered true (in particular, the number 0 and the empty string are also true).

In the **repeat–until** loop, the inner block does not end at the **until** keyword, but only after the condition. So, the condition can refer to local variables declared inside the loop block.

The **return** statement is used to return values from a function or a chunk (which is just a function). Functions and chunks may return more than one value, so the syntax for the **return** statement is

```
stat ::= return [explist1]
```

The **break** statement is used to terminate the execution of a **while**, **repeat**, or **for** loop, skipping to the next statement after the loop:

```
stat ::= break
```

A **break** ends the innermost enclosing loop.

The **return** and **break** statements can only be written as the *last* statement of a block. If it is really necessary to **return** or **break** in the middle of a block, then an explicit inner block can be used, as in the idioms do return end and do break end, because now **return** and **break** are the last statements in their (inner) blocks.

2.4.5 - For Statement

The **for** statement has two forms: one numeric and one generic.

The numeric **for** loop repeats a block of code while a control variable runs through an arithmetic progression. It has the following syntax:

```
stat ::= for Name `=´ exp `,´ exp [`,´ exp] do block end
```

The *block* is repeated for *name* starting at the value of the first *exp*, until it passes the second *exp* by steps of the third *exp*. More precisely, a **for** statement like

```
for v = e1, e2, e3 do block end
```

is equivalent to the code:

```
do
  local var, limit, step = tonumber(e1), tonumber(e2), tonumber(e3)
  if not (var and limit and step) then error() end
  while (step > 0 and var <= limit) or (step <= 0 and var >= limit) do
   local v = var
   block
   var = var + step
  end
end
```

Note the following:

- All three control expressions are evaluated only once, before the loop starts. They must all result in numbers
- *var*, *limit*, and *step* are invisible variables. The names are here for explanatory purposes only.
- If the third expression (the step) is absent, then a step of 1 is used.
- You can use **break** to exit a **for** loop.
- The loop variable v is local to the loop; you cannot use its value after the **for** ends or is broken. If you need this value, assign it to another variable before breaking or exiting the loop.

The generic **for** statement works over functions, called *iterators*. On each iteration, the iterator function is called to produce a new value, stopping when this new value is **nil**. The generic **for** loop has the following syntax:

```
stat ::= for namelist in explist1 do block end
namelist ::= Name {`,´ Name}
```

A for statement like

```
for var_1, ..., var_n in explist do block end
```

is equivalent to the code:

```
do
  local f, s, var = explist
  while true do
    local var_1, ..., var_n = f(s, var)
    var = var_1
    if var == nil then break end
    block
  end
end
```

Note the following:

- *explist* is evaluated only once. Its results are an *iterator* function, a *state*, and an initial value for the first *iterator variable*.
- f, s, and var are invisible variables. The names are here for explanatory purposes only.
- You can use **break** to exit a **for** loop.
- The loop variables *var_i* are local to the loop; you cannot use their values after the **for** ends. If you need these values, then assign them to other variables before breaking or exiting the loop.

2.4.6 - Function Calls as Statements

To allow possible side-effects, function calls can be executed as statements:

```
stat ::= functioncall
```

In this case, all returned values are thrown away. Function calls are explained in §2.5.8.

2.4.7 - Local Declarations

Local variables may be declared anywhere inside a block. The declaration may include an initial assignment:

```
stat ::= local namelist [`=´ explist1]
```

If present, an initial assignment has the same semantics of a multiple assignment (see §2.4.3). Otherwise, all variables are initialized with **nil**.

A chunk is also a block (see §2.4.1), and so local variables can be declared in a chunk outside any explicit block. The scope of such local variables extends until the end of the chunk.

The visibility rules for local variables are explained in §2.6.

2.5 - Expressions

The basic expressions in Lua are the following:

```
exp ::= prefixexp
exp ::= nil | false | true
exp ::= Number
exp ::= String
exp ::= function
exp ::= tableconstructor
exp ::= `...´
exp ::= exp binop exp
exp ::= unop exp
prefixexp ::= var | functioncall | `(´ exp `)´
```

Numbers and literal strings are explained in §2.1; variables are explained in §2.3; function definitions are explained in §2.5.9; function calls are explained in §2.5.8; table constructors are explained in §2.5.7. Vararg expressions, denoted by three dots (' . . . '), can only be used when directly inside a vararg function; they are explained in §2.5.9.

Binary operators comprise arithmetic operators (see §2.5.1), relational operators (see §2.5.2), logical operators (see §2.5.3), and the concatenation operator (see §2.5.4). Unary operators comprise the unary minus (see §2.5.1), the unary **not** (see §2.5.3), and the unary *length operator* (see §2.5.5).

Both function calls and vararg expressions may result in multiple values. If the expression is used as a statement (see §2.4.6) (only possible for function calls), then its return list is adjusted to zero elements, thus discarding all returned values. If the expression is used as the last (or the only) element of a list of expressions, then no adjustment is made (unless the call is enclosed in parentheses). In all other contexts, Lua adjusts the result list to one element, discarding all values except the first one.

Here are some examples:

```
f()
                   -- adjusted to 0 results
g(f(), x)
                  -- f() is adjusted to 1 result
                  -- g gets x plus all results from f()
g(x, f())
                  -- f() is adjusted to 1 result (c gets nil)
a,b,c = f(), x
a,b = \dots
                  -- a gets the first vararg parameter, b gets
                   -- the second (both a and b may get nil if there
                   -- is no corresponding vararg parameter)
                  -- f() is adjusted to 2 results
a,b,c = x, f()
                  -- f() is adjusted to 3 results
a,b,c = f()
                  -- returns all results from f()
return f()
return ...
                 -- returns all received vararg parameters
return x,y,f()
                 -- returns x, y, and all results from f()
{f()}
                  -- creates a list with all results from f()
                  -- creates a list with all vararg parameters
{...}
{f(), nil}
                  -- f() is adjusted to 1 result
```

An expression enclosed in parentheses always results in only one value. Thus, (f(x, y, z)) is always a single value, even if f returns several values. (The value of (f(x, y, z)) is the first value returned by f or **nil** if f does not return any values.)

2.5.1 - Arithmetic Operators

Lua supports the usual arithmetic operators: the binary + (addition), - (subtraction), * (multiplication), / (division), % (modulo), and ^ (exponentiation); and unary - (negation). If the operands are numbers, or strings that can be converted to numbers (see §2.2.1), then all operations have the usual meaning. Exponentiation works for any exponent. For instance, $x^{(-0.5)}$ computes the inverse of the square root of x. Modulo is defined as

```
a % b == a - math.floor(a/b)*b
```

That is, it is the remainder of a division that rounds the quotient towards minus infinity.

2.5.2 - Relational Operators

The relational operators in Lua are

```
== ~= < > <= >=
```

These operators always result in **false** or **true**.

Equality (==) first compares the type of its operands. If the types are different, then the result is **false**. Otherwise, the values of the operands are compared. Numbers and strings are compared in the usual way. Objects (tables, userdata, threads, and functions) are compared by *reference*: two objects are considered equal only if they are the *same* object. Every time you create a new object (a table, userdata, thread, or function), this new object is different from any previously existing object.

You can change the way that Lua compares tables and userdata by using the "eq" metamethod (see §2.8).

The conversion rules of §2.2.1 *do not* apply to equality comparisons. Thus, "0"==0 evaluates to **false**, and t[0] and t[0] denote different entries in a table.

The operator \sim is exactly the negation of equality (==).

The order operators work as follows. If both arguments are numbers, then they are compared as such. Otherwise, if both arguments are strings, then their values are compared according to the current locale. Otherwise, Lua tries to call the "lt" or the "le" metamethod (see §2.8).

2.5.3 - Logical Operators

The logical operators in Lua are **and**, **or**, and **not**. Like the control structures (see §2.4.4), all logical operators consider both **false** and **nil** as false and anything else as true.

The negation operator **not** always returns **false** or **true**. The conjunction operator **and** returns its first argument if this value is **false** or **nil**; otherwise, **and** returns its second argument. The disjunction operator **or** returns its first argument if this value is different from **nil** and **false**; otherwise, **or** returns its second argument. Both **and** and **or** use short-cut evaluation; that is, the second operand is evaluated only if necessary. Here are some examples:

```
10 or 20
                    --> 10
10 or error()
                     --> 10
nil or "a"
                     --> "a"
nil and 10
                    --> nil
false and error()
                    --> false
false and nil
                     --> false
false or nil
                     --> nil
10 and 20
                    --> 20
```

(In this manual, --> indicates the result of the preceding expression.)

2.5.4 - Concatenation

The string concatenation operator in Lua is denoted by two dots (' . . '). If both operands are strings or numbers, then they are converted to strings according to the rules mentioned in §2.2.1. Otherwise, the "concat" metamethod is called (see §2.8).

2.5.5 - The Length Operator

The length operator is denoted by the unary operator #. The length of a string is its number of bytes (that is, the

usual meaning of string length when each character is one byte).

The length of a table t is defined to be any integer index n such that t[n] is not nil and t[n+1] is nil; moreover, if t[1] is nil, n may be zero. For a regular array, with non-nil values from 1 to a given n, its length is exactly that n, the index of its last value. If the array has "holes" (that is, nil values between other non-nil values), then #t may be any of the indices that directly precedes a nil value (that is, it may consider any such nil value as the end of the array).

2.5.6 - Precedence

Operator precedence in Lua follows the table below, from lower to higher priority:

As usual, you can use parentheses to change the precedences of an expression. The concatenation ('..') and exponentiation ('.') operators are right associative. All other binary operators are left associative.

2.5.7 - Table Constructors

Table constructors are expressions that create tables. Every time a constructor is evaluated, a new table is created. Constructors can be used to create empty tables, or to create a table and initialize some of its fields. The general syntax for constructors is

```
tableconstructor ::= `{´ [fieldlist] `}´
fieldlist ::= field {fieldsep field} [fieldsep]
field ::= `[´ exp `]´ `=´ exp | Name `=´ exp | exp
fieldsep ::= `,´ | `;´
```

Each field of the form [exp1] = exp2 adds to the new table an entry with key exp1 and value exp2. A field of the form name = exp is equivalent to ["name"] = exp. Finally, fields of the form exp are equivalent to [i] = exp, where i are consecutive numerical integers, starting with 1. Fields in the other formats do not affect this counting. For example,

```
a = \{ [f(1)] = g; "x", "y"; x = 1, f(x), [30] = 23; 45 \}
```

is equivalent to

If the last field in the list has the form \exp and the expression is a function call or a vararg expression, then all values returned by this expression enter the list consecutively (see §2.5.8). To avoid this, enclose the function call (or the vararg expression) in parentheses (see §2.5).

The field list may have an optional trailing separator, as a convenience for machine-generated code.

2.5.8 - Function Calls

A function call in Lua has the following syntax:

```
functioncall ::= prefixexp args
```

In a function call, first prefixexp and args are evaluated. If the value of prefixexp has type *function*, then this function is called with the given arguments. Otherwise, the prefixexp "call" metamethod is called, having as first parameter the value of prefixexp, followed by the original call arguments (see §2.8).

The form

```
functioncall ::= prefixexp `:´ Name args
```

can be used to call "methods". A call v:name(args) is syntactic sugar for v.name(v, args), except that v is evaluated only once.

Arguments have the following syntax:

```
args ::= `(´ [explist1] `)´
args ::= tableconstructor
args ::= String
```

All argument expressions are evaluated before the call. A call of the form $f \in \{fields\}$ is syntactic sugar for $f \in \{fields\}$; that is, the argument list is a single new table. A call of the form $f \in \{fields\}$; that is, the argument list is a single literal string or $f \in \{fields\}$; that is, the argument list is a single literal string.

As an exception to the free-format syntax of Lua, you cannot put a line break before the '(' in a function call. This restriction avoids some ambiguities in the language. If you write

```
a = f
(g).x(a)
```

Lua would see that as a single statement, $a = f(g) \cdot x(a)$. So, if you want two statements, you must add a semi-colon between them. If you actually want to call f, you must remove the line break before (g).

A call of the form return functioncall is called a tail call. Lua implements proper tail calls (or proper tail recursion): in a tail call, the called function reuses the stack entry of the calling function. Therefore, there is no limit on the number of nested tail calls that a program can execute. However, a tail call erases any debug information about the calling function. Note that a tail call only happens with a particular syntax, where the **return** has one single function call as argument; this syntax makes the calling function return exactly the returns of the called function. So, none of the following examples are tail calls:

```
return (f(x)) -- results adjusted to 1
return 2 * f(x)
return x, f(x) -- additional results
f(x); return -- results discarded
return x or f(x) -- results adjusted to 1
```

2.5.9 - Function Definitions

The syntax for function definition is

```
function ::= function funcbody
funcbody ::= `(´[parlist1] `)´ block end
```

The following syntactic sugar simplifies function definitions:

```
stat ::= function funcname funcbody
stat ::= local function Name funcbody
funcname ::= Name {`.´ Name} [`:´ Name]
```

The statement

```
function f () body end
```

translates to

```
f = function () body end
```

The statement

```
function t.a.b.c.f () body end
```

translates to

```
t.a.b.c.f = function () body end
```

The statement

```
local function f () body end
```

translates to

```
local f; f = function () body end
```

not to

```
local f = function () body end
```

(This only makes a difference when the body of the function contains references to f.)

A function definition is an executable expression, whose value has type *function*. When Lua pre-compiles a chunk, all its function bodies are pre-compiled too. Then, whenever Lua executes the function definition, the function is *instantiated* (or *closed*). This function instance (or *closure*) is the final value of the expression. Different instances of the same function may refer to different external local variables and may have different environment tables.

Parameters act as local variables that are initialized with the argument values:

```
parlist1 ::= namelist [`,´`...´] | `...´
```

When a function is called, the list of arguments is adjusted to the length of the list of parameters, unless the function is a variadic or *vararg function*, which is indicated by three dots (' . . . ') at the end of its parameter list. A vararg function does not adjust its argument list; instead, it collects all extra arguments and supplies them to the function through a *vararg expression*, which is also written as three dots. The value of this expression is a list of all actual extra arguments, similar to a function with multiple results. If a vararg expression is used inside another expression or in the middle of a list of expressions, then its return list is adjusted to one element. If the expression is used as the last element of a list of expressions, then no adjustment is made (unless the call is enclosed in parentheses).

As an example, consider the following definitions:

```
function f(a, b) end
function g(a, b, ...) end
function r() return 1,2,3 end
```

Then, we have the following mapping from arguments to parameters and to the vararg expression:

```
CALL
               PARAMETERS
f(3)
                a=3, b=nil
                a=3, b=4
f(3, 4)
f(3, 4, 5)
                a=3, b=4
f(r(), 10)
                a=1, b=10
f(r())
                a=1, b=2
g(3)
                a=3, b=nil, ... --> (nothing)
g(3, 4)
                a=3, b=4, ... -->
                                     (nothing)
g(3, 4, 5, 8)
                a=3, b=4,
                            ... -->
                            ... --> 2 3
                a=5, b=1,
g(5, r())
```

Results are returned using the **return** statement (see §2.4.4). If control reaches the end of a function without encountering a **return** statement, then the function returns with no results.

The *colon* syntax is used for defining *methods*, that is, functions that have an implicit extra parameter self. Thus, the statement

```
function t.a.b.c:f (params) body end
```

```
t.a.b.c.f = function (self, params) body end
```

2.6 - Visibility Rules

Lua is a lexically scoped language. The scope of variables begins at the first statement *after* their declaration and lasts until the end of the innermost block that includes the declaration. Consider the following example:

```
-- global variable
x = 10
do
                      -- new block
 local x = x
                      -- new 'x', with value 10
  print(x)
                      --> 10
  x = x+1
                      -- another block
                      -- another 'x'
   local x = x+1
                      --> 12
   print(x)
  end
  print(x)
end
                      --> 10 (the global one)
print(x)
```

Notice that, in a declaration like local x = x, the new x being declared is not in scope yet, and so the second x refers to the outside variable.

Because of the lexical scoping rules, local variables can be freely accessed by functions defined inside their scope. A local variable used by an inner function is called an *upvalue*, or *external local variable*, inside the inner function.

Notice that each execution of a **local** statement defines new local variables. Consider the following example:

```
a = {}
local x = 20
for i=1,10 do
    local y = 0
    a[i] = function () y=y+1; return x+y end
end
```

The loop creates ten closures (that is, ten instances of the anonymous function). Each of these closures uses a different y variable, while all of them share the same x.

2.7 - Error Handling

Because Lua is an embedded extension language, all Lua actions start from C code in the host program calling a function from the Lua library (see lua_pcall). Whenever an error occurs during Lua compilation or execution, control returns to C, which can take appropriate measures (such as printing an error message).

Lua code can explicitly generate an error by calling the $\underline{\tt error}$ function. If you need to catch errors in Lua, you can use the $\underline{\tt pcall}$ function.

2.8 - Metatables

Every value in Lua may have a *metatable*. This *metatable* is an ordinary Lua table that defines the behavior of the original value under certain special operations. You can change several aspects of the behavior of operations over a value by setting specific fields in its metatable. For instance, when a non-numeric value is the operand of an addition, Lua checks for a function in the field "__add" in its metatable. If it finds one, Lua calls this function to perform the addition.

We call the keys in a metatable *events* and the values *metamethods*. In the previous example, the event is "add" and the metamethod is the function that performs the addition.

You can guery the metatable of any value through the getmetatable function.

You can replace the metatable of tables through the <u>setmetatable</u> function. You cannot change the metatable of other types from Lua (except using the debug library); you must use the C API for that.

Tables and userdata have individual metatables (although multiple tables and userdata can share their metatables); values of all other types share one single metatable per type. So, there is one single metatable for all numbers, and for all strings, etc.

A metatable may control how an object behaves in arithmetic operations, order comparisons, concatenation, length operation, and indexing. A metatable can also define a function to be called when a userdata is garbage collected. For each of these operations Lua associates a specific key called an *event*. When Lua performs one of these operations over a value, it checks whether this value has a metatable with the corresponding event. If so, the value associated with that key (the metamethod) controls how Lua will perform the operation.

Metatables control the operations listed next. Each operation is identified by its corresponding name. The key for each operation is a string with its name prefixed by two underscores, '__'; for instance, the key for operation "add" is the string "__add". The semantics of these operations is better explained by a Lua function describing how the interpreter executes the operation.

The code shown here in Lua is only illustrative; the real behavior is hard coded in the interpreter and it is much more efficient than this simulation. All functions used in these descriptions (rawget, tonumber, etc.) are described in §5.1. In particular, to retrieve the metamethod of a given object, we use the expression

```
metatable(obj)[event]
```

This should be read as

```
rawget(getmetatable(obj) or {}, event)
```

That is, the access to a metamethod does not invoke other metamethods, and the access to objects with no metatables does not fail (it simply results in **nil**).

• "add": the + operation.

The function <code>getbinhandler</code> below defines how Lua chooses a handler for a binary operation. First, Lua tries the first operand. If its type does not define a handler for the operation, then Lua tries the second operand.

```
function getbinhandler (op1, op2, event)
  return metatable(op1)[event] or metatable(op2)[event]
end
```

By using this function, the behavior of the op1 + op2 is

```
function add_event (op1, op2)
  local o1, o2 = tonumber(op1), tonumber(op2)
  if o1 and o2 then -- both operands are numeric?
    return o1 + o2 -- '+' here is the primitive 'add'
  else -- at least one of the operands is not numeric
    local h = getbinhandler(op1, op2, "__add")
    if h then
        -- call the handler with both operands
        return h(op1, op2)
    else -- no handler available: default behavior
        error(···)
    end
    end
end
```

- "**sub**": the operation. Behavior similar to the "add" operation.
- "mul": the * operation. Behavior similar to the "add" operation.
- "div": the / operation. Behavior similar to the "add" operation.
- "mod": the % operation. Behavior similar to the "add" operation, with the operation of $-\frac{1}{2}$ operation of $-\frac{1}{2}$ operation.
- "pow": the ^ (exponentiation) operation. Behavior similar to the "add" operation, with the function pow (from the C math library) as the primitive operation.
- "unm": the unary operation.

```
function unm_event (op)
  local o = tonumber(op)
```

```
if o then -- operand is numeric?
    return -o -- '-' here is the primitive 'unm'
else -- the operand is not numeric.
    -- Try to get a handler from the operand
    local h = metatable(op).__unm
    if h then
        -- call the handler with the operand
        return h(op)
    else -- no handler available: default behavior
        error(···)
    end
end
end
```

• "concat": the . . (concatenation) operation.

```
function concat_event (op1, op2)
   if (type(op1) == "string" or type(op1) == "number") and
        (type(op2) == "string" or type(op2) == "number") then
        return op1 .. op2 -- primitive string concatenation
   else
        local h = getbinhandler(op1, op2, "__concat")
        if h then
            return h(op1, op2)
        else
        error(···)
        end
        end
   end
end
```

"len": the # operation.

```
function len event (op)
 if type(op) == "string" then
   return strlen(op) -- primitive string length
 elseif type(op) == "table" then
                             -- primitive table length
   return #op
 else
   local h = metatable(op).__len
   if h then
     -- call the handler with the operand
     return h(op)
   else -- no handler available: default behavior
     error(···)
   end
 end
end
```

See §2.5.5 for a description of the length of a table.

• "eq": the == operation. The function getcomphandler defines how Lua chooses a metamethod for comparison operators. A metamethod only is selected when both objects being compared have the same type and the same metamethod for the selected operation.

```
function getcomphandler (op1, op2, event)
  if type(op1) ~= type(op2) then return nil end
  local mm1 = metatable(op1)[event]
  local mm2 = metatable(op2)[event]
  if mm1 == mm2 then return mm1 else return nil end
end
```

The "eq" event is defined as follows:

```
function eq_event (op1, op2)
  if type(op1) ~= type(op2) then -- different types?
    return false -- different objects
  end
  if op1 == op2 then -- primitive equal?
```

```
return true -- objects are equal
end
-- try metamethod
local h = getcomphandler(op1, op2, "__eq")
if h then
return h(op1, op2)
else
return false
end
end
```

a ~= b is equivalent to not (a == b).

"lt": the < operation.

- a > b is equivalent to b < a.
- "le": the <= operation.

```
function le_event (op1, op2)
 if type(op1) == "number" and type(op2) == "number" then
   return op1 <= op2 -- numeric comparison
 elseif type(op1) == "string" and type(op2) == "string" then
   return op1 <= op2 -- lexicographic comparison
  else
    local h = getcomphandler(op1, op2, " le")
   if h then
     return h(op1, op2)
   else
     h = getcomphandler(op1, op2, "__lt")
     if h then
       return not h(op2, op1)
      else
       error(···);
    end
 end
```

- a >= b is equivalent to b <= a. Note that, in the absence of a "le" metamethod, Lua tries the "lt", assuming that a <= b is equivalent to not (b < a).
- "index": The indexing access table [key].

```
function gettable_event (table, key)
  local h
  if type(table) == "table" then
   local v = rawget(table, key)
  if v ~= nil then return v end
  h = metatable(table).__index
  if h == nil then return nil end
  else
```

```
h = metatable(table).__index
if h == nil then
    error(···);
end
end
if type(h) == "function" then
    return h(table, key) -- call the handler
else return h[key] -- or repeat operation on it
end
end
```

• "newindex": The indexing assignment table [key] = value.

```
function settable_event (table, key, value)
 local h
 if type(table) == "table" then
   local v = rawget(table, key)
   if v ~= nil then rawset(table, key, value); return end
   h = metatable(table).__newindex
   if h == nil then rawset(table, key, value); return end
 else
   h = metatable(table).__newindex
   if h == nil then
     error(···);
   end
 end
 if type(h) == "function" then
   return h(table, key,value)
                                  -- call the handler
 else h[key] = value
                                 -- or repeat operation on it
 end
end
```

"call": called when Lua calls a value.

```
function function_event (func, ...)
    if type(func) == "function" then
        return func(...) -- primitive call
    else
        local h = metatable(func).__call
        if h then
        return h(func, ...)
        else
        error(···)
        end
    end
end
```

2.9 - Environments

Besides metatables, objects of types thread, function, and userdata have another table associated with them, called their *environment*. Like metatables, environments are regular tables and multiple objects can share the same environment.

Environments associated with userdata have no meaning for Lua. It is only a convenience feature for programmers to associate a table to a userdata.

Environments associated with threads are called *global environments*. They are used as the default environment for their threads and non-nested functions created by the thread (through loadfile, loadstring or load) and can be directly accessed by C code (see §3.3).

Environments associated with C functions can be directly accessed by C code (see §3.3). They are used as the default environment for other C functions created by the function.

Environments associated with Lua functions are used to resolve all accesses to global variables within the function (see §2.3). They are used as the default environment for other Lua functions created by the function.

You can change the environment of a Lua function or the running thread by calling <u>setfeny</u>. You can get the environment of a Lua function or the running thread by calling <u>getfeny</u>. To manipulate the environment of other objects (userdata, C functions, other threads) you must use the C API.

2.10 - Garbage Collection

Lua performs automatic memory management. This means that you have to worry neither about allocating memory for new objects nor about freeing it when the objects are no longer needed. Lua manages memory automatically by running a *garbage collector* from time to time to collect all *dead objects* (that is, these objects that are no longer accessible from Lua). All objects in Lua are subject to automatic management: tables, userdata, functions, threads, and strings.

Lua implements an incremental mark-and-sweep collector. It uses two numbers to control its garbage-collection cycles: the *garbage-collector pause* and the *garbage-collector step multiplier*.

The garbage-collector pause controls how long the collector waits before starting a new cycle. Larger values make the collector less aggressive. Values smaller than 1 mean the collector will not wait to start a new cycle. A value of 2 means that the collector waits for the total memory in use to double before starting a new cycle.

The step multiplier controls the relative speed of the collector relative to memory allocation. Larger values make the collector more aggressive but also increase the size of each incremental step. Values smaller than 1 make the collector too slow and may result in the collector never finishing a cycle. The default, 2, means that the collector runs at "twice" the speed of memory allocation.

You can change these numbers by calling <u>lua_gc</u> in C or <u>collectgarbage</u> in Lua. Both get percentage points as arguments (so an argument of 100 means a real value of 1). With these functions you can also control the collector directly (e.g., stop and restart it).

2.10.1 - Garbage-Collection Metamethods

Using the C API, you can set garbage-collector metamethods for userdata (see §2.8). These metamethods are also called *finalizers*. Finalizers allow you to coordinate Lua's garbage collection with external resource management (such as closing files, network or database connections, or freeing your own memory).

Garbage userdata with a field __gc in their metatables are not collected immediately by the garbage collector. Instead, Lua puts them in a list. After the collection, Lua does the equivalent of the following function for each userdata in that list:

```
function gc_event (udata)
  local h = metatable(udata).__gc
  if h then
    h(udata)
  end
end
```

At the end of each garbage-collection cycle, the finalizers for userdata are called in *reverse* order of their creation, among those collected in that cycle. That is, the first finalizer to be called is the one associated with the userdata created last in the program.

2.10.2 - Weak Tables

A *weak table* is a table whose elements are *weak references*. A weak reference is ignored by the garbage collector. In other words, if the only references to an object are weak references, then the garbage collector will collect this object.

A weak table can have weak keys, weak values, or both. A table with weak keys allows the collection of its keys, but prevents the collection of its values. A table with both weak keys and weak values allows the collection of both keys and values. In any case, if either the key or the value is collected, the whole pair is removed from the table. The weakness of a table is controlled by the __mode field of its metatable. If the __mode field is a string containing the character 'k', the keys in the table are weak. If __mode contains 'v', the values in the table are weak.

After you use a table as a metatable, you should not change the value of its field __mode. Otherwise, the weak behavior of the tables controlled by this metatable is undefined.

2.11 - Coroutines

Lua supports coroutines, also called *collaborative multithreading*. A coroutine in Lua represents an independent thread of execution. Unlike threads in multithread systems, however, a coroutine only suspends its execution by explicitly calling a yield function.

You create a coroutine with a call to <u>coroutine.create</u>. Its sole argument is a function that is the main function of the coroutine. The <u>create</u> function only creates a new coroutine and returns a handle to it (an object of type *thread*); it does not start the coroutine execution.

When you first call <u>coroutine.resume</u>, passing as its first argument the thread returned by <u>coroutine.create</u>, the coroutine starts its execution, at the first line of its main function. Extra arguments passed to <u>coroutine.resume</u> are passed on to the coroutine main function. After the coroutine starts running, it runs until it terminates or *yields*.

A coroutine can terminate its execution in two ways: normally, when its main function returns (explicitly or implicitly, after the last instruction); and abnormally, if there is an unprotected error. In the first case, coroutine.resume returns **true**, plus any values returned by the coroutine main function. In case of errors, coroutine.resume returns **false** plus an error message.

A coroutine yields by calling <u>coroutine.yield</u>. When a coroutine yields, the corresponding <u>coroutine.resume</u> returns immediately, even if the yield happens inside nested function calls (that is, not in the main function, but in a function directly or indirectly called by the main function). In the case of a yield, <u>coroutine.resume</u> also returns **true**, plus any values passed to <u>coroutine.yield</u>. The next time you resume the same coroutine, it continues its execution from the point where it yielded, with the call to <u>coroutine.yield</u> returning any extra arguments passed to <u>coroutine.resume</u>.

Like <u>coroutine.create</u>, the <u>coroutine.wrap</u> function also creates a coroutine, but instead of returning the coroutine itself, it returns a function that, when called, resumes the coroutine. Any arguments passed to this function go as extra arguments to <u>coroutine.resume</u>. <u>coroutine.wrap</u> returns all the values returned by <u>coroutine.resume</u>, except the first one (the boolean error code). Unlike <u>coroutine.resume</u>, <u>coroutine.wrap</u> does not catch errors; any error is propagated to the caller.

As an example, consider the following code:

```
function foo (a)
    print("foo", a)
    return coroutine.yield(2*a)
end

co = coroutine.create(function (a,b)
    print("co-body", a, b)
    local r = foo(a+1)
    print("co-body", r)
    local r, s = coroutine.yield(a+b, a-b)
    print("co-body", r, s)
    return b, "end"
end)

print("main", coroutine.resume(co, 1, 10))
print("main", coroutine.resume(co, "r"))
print("main", coroutine.resume(co, "x", "y"))
print("main", coroutine.resume(co, "x", "y"))
print("main", coroutine.resume(co, "x", "y"))
```

When you run it, it produces the following output:

```
co-body 1
                10
foo
main
        true
                4
co-body r
main
        true
                11
                         -9
co-body x
                10
main
        true
                         end
main
        false
                cannot resume dead coroutine
```

8 - The Complete Syntax of Lua

Here is the complete syntax of Lua in extended BNF. (It does not describe operator precedences.)

chunk ::= \{stat [`;']} [laststat [`;']] \block ::= \chunk \varlist1 `=' explist1 | \functioncall |

do block end | while exp do block end |

repeat block until exp |

if exp then block {elseif exp then block} [else block] end |

for Name `=' exp `,' exp [`,' exp] do block end |

for namelist **in** explist1 **do** block **end** |

function funcname funcbody |
local function Name funcbody |
local namelist [`=' explist1]

 $\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{laststat} ::= & \textbf{return} \ [\textit{explist1}] \ | \ \textbf{break} \\ \textbf{funcname} ::= & \textbf{Name} \ \{`.' \ \textbf{Name}\} \ [`:' \ \textbf{Name}] \\ \end{array}$

varlist1 ::= var {`,' var}

var ::= Name | prefixexp`[' exp`]' | prefixexp`.' Name

namelist ::= Name {`,´ Name} explist1 ::= {exp`,´} exp

exp ::= nil | false | true | Number | String | `...' | function |

prefixexp | tableconstructor | exp binop exp | unop exp

prefixexp ::= var | functioncall | `(' exp `)'

functioncall ::= prefixexp args | prefixexp `:' Name args args ::= ('[explist1] `)' | tableconstructor | String

function ::= function funcbody

funcbody ::= '(' [parlist1] ')' block end

parlist1 ::= namelist [',' `...'] | `...'

tableconstructor ::= '{' [fieldlist] '}'

fieldlist ::= field {fieldsep field} [fieldsep]
field ::= '['exp']' `=' exp | Name `=' exp | exp

fieldsep ::= ',' | ';'

binop ::= '+'|'-'|'*'|'/'|'\%'|\...'|'<'|'\<='|'>='|'=='|'~='| and | or

unop ::= \ \'-' | \ not | \'\#'