Lua 5.2 Reference Manual
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## Abridged for ControlByWeb's X-600 Modular Series

The following is an subset of the Lua 5.2 Reference Manual that contains only the features that apply to ControlByWeb's X-600M. The Lua 5.2 Reference Manual in it's entirety can be found online at http://www.lua.org/manual/5.2/.

## 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, lightweight, embeddable scripting language for any program that needs one.

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.

## 2 - Basic Concepts

This section describes the basic concepts of the language.

## 2.1 - 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.
The basic types in Lua are: nil, boolean, number, string, function, 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. Operations on numbers follow the same rules of the underlying C implementation, which, in turn, usually follows the IEEE 754 standard.

String represents immutable sequences of bytes. Lua is 8 -bit clean: strings can contain any 8 bit value, including embedded zeros ('10').
Lua can call (and manipulate) functions written in Lua and functions written in C (see §3.4.9).
The type table implements associative arrays, that is, arrays that can be indexed not only with numbers, but with any Lua value except nil and NaN (Not a Number, a special numeric value used to represent undefined or unrepresentable results, such as $0 / 0$ ). Tables can be heterogeneous; that is, they can contain values of all types (except nil). Any key with value nil is not considered part of the table. Conversely, any key that is not part of a table has an associated value nil.

Tables are the sole data structuring mechanism in Lua; they can be used to represent ordinary arrays, sequences, 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 §3.4.8).
We use the term sequence to denote a table where the set of all positive numeric keys is equal to $\{1 . . n\}$ for some integer $n$, which is called the length of the sequence (see§3.4.6).
Like indices, the values of table fields can be of any type. In particular, because functions are first-class values, table fields can contain functions. Thus tables can also carry methods (see §3.4.10).

The indexing of tables follows the definition of raw equality in the language. The expressions $a[i]$ and $a[j]$ denote the same table element if and only if $i$ and $j$ are raw equal (that is, equal without metamethods).
Tables, and function 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 (see §6.1).

## 2.2 - Environments and the Global Environment

As will be discussed in $\S 3.2$ and $\S 3.3 .3$, any reference to a global name var is syntactically translated to _ENV.var. Moreover, every chunk is compiled in the scope of an external local variable called _ENV (see §3.3.2), so _ENV itself is never a global name in a chunk.
Despite the existence of this external _ENV variable and the translation of global names, ENV is a completely regular name. In particular, you can define new variables and parameters with that name. Each reference to a global name uses the _ENV that is visible at that point in the program, following the usual visibility rules of Lua (see $\S 3.5$ ).
Any table used as the value of _ENV is called an environment.
Lua keeps a distinguished environment called the global environment. In Lua, the variable _G is initialized with this value.
When Lua compiles a chunk, it initializes the value of its _ENV upvalue with the global environment (see load). Therefore, by default, global variables in Lua code refer to entries in the global environment. Moreover, all standard libraries are loaded in the global environment and several functions there operate on that environment. You can use load (or loadfile) to load
a chunk with a different environment.

## 2.3 - Error Handling

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

Lua code can explicitly generate an error by calling the error function. If you need to catch errors in Lua, you can use pcall or xpcall to call a given function in protected mode.

Whenever there is an error, an error object (also called an error message) is propagated with information about the error. Lua itself only generates errors where the error object is a string, but programs may generate errors with any value for the error object.
When you use xpcall or lua_pcall, you may give a message handler to be called in case of errors. This function is called with the original error message and returns a new error message. It is called before the error unwinds the stack, so that it can gather more information about the error, for instance by inspecting the stack and creating a stack traceback. This message handler is still protected by the protected call; so, an error inside the message handler will call the message handler again. If this loop goes on, Lua breaks it and returns an appropriate message.

## 2.4 - Metatables and Metamethods

Every value in Lua can 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" of the value's metatable. If it finds one, Lua calls this function to perform the addition.

The keys in a metatable are derived from the event names; the corresponding values are called metamethods. In the previous example, the event is "add" and the metamethod is the function that performs the addition.
You can query the metatable of any value using the getmetatable function.
You can replace the metatable of tables using the setmetatable function.
Tables have individual metatables (although multiple tables can share their metatables). Values of all other types share one single metatable per type; that is, there is one single metatable for all numbers, one for all strings, etc. By default, a value has no metatable, but the string library sets a metatable for the string type (see §6.4).
A metatable controls how an object behaves in arithmetic operations, order comparisons, concatenation, length operation, and indexing. A metatable also can define a function to be called when a table is garbage collected. 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 §6.1. 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)
```

This means that the access to a metamethod does not invoke other metamethods, and access to objects with no metatables does not fail (it simply results in nil).
For the unary - and \# operators, the metamethod is called with a dummy second argument. This extra argument is only to simplify Lua's internals; it may be removed in future versions and therefore it is not present in the following code. (For most uses this extra argument is irrelevant.)
-"add": the + operation.
The function getbinhandler 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 o1-floor(o1/o2)*o2 as the primitive 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 (•. $\cdot$ )
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
```

-"len": the \# operation.

```
function len_event (op)
    if type(op) == "string" then
        return strlen(op) -- primitive string length
    else
            local h = metatable(op).__len
            if h then
                return (h(op)) -- call handler with the operand
```

```
        elseif type(op) == "table" then
            return #op -- primitive table length
        else -- no handler available: error
            error(...)
            end
    end
end
```

See §3.4.6 for a description of the length of a table.
-"eq": the == operation. The function getequalhandler defines how Lua chooses a metamethod for equality. A metamethod is selected only when both values being compared have the same type and the same metamethod for the selected operation, and the values are tables.

```
function getequalhandler (op1, op2)
    if type(op1) ~= type(op2) or
            (type(op1) ~= "table")then
        return nil -- different values
    end
    local mm1 = metatable(op1).__eq
    local mm2 = metatable(op2).__eq
    if mm1 == mm2 then return mm1 else return nil end
end
```

The "eq" event is defined as follows:

```
function eq_event (op1, op2)
        if op1 == op2 then -- primitive equal?
            return true -- values are equal
        end
        -- try metamethod
        local h = getequalhandler(op1, op2)
        if \(h\) then
            return not not \(h(o p 1, ~ o p 2)\)
        else
            return false
        end
end
```

Note that the result is always a boolean.
-"It": the < operation.

```
function lt_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 = getbinhandler(op1, op2, "__lt")
        if h then
            return not not h(op1, op2)
        else
            error(. . ·)
        end
        end
end
```

Note that the result is always a boolean.
-"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 = getbinhandler(op1, op2, "__le")
            if h then
            return not not h(op1, op2)
            else
                    h = getbinhandler(op1, op2, "__lt")
                    if h then
                    return not h(op2, op1)
            else
                error(...)
            end
        end
        end
end
```

Note that, in the absence of a "le" metamethod, Lua tries the "lt", assuming that a <= $b$ is equivalent to not $(b<a)$.

As with the other comparison operators, the result is always a boolean.
-"index": The indexing access table[key]. Note that the metamethod is tried only when key is not present in table. (When table is not a table, no key is ever present, so the metamethod is always tried.)

```
function gettable_event (table, key)
    local h
```

```
if type(table) == "table" then
    local v = rawget(table, key)
    -- if key is present, return raw value
    if v ~= nil then return v end
    h = metatable(table).__index
    if h == nil then return nil end
    else
    h = metatable(table).
```

$\qquad$

``` 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. Note that the metamethod is tried only when key is not present in table.

```
    function settable_event (table, key, value)
    local h
    if type(table) == "table" then
        local v = rawget(table, key)
        -- if key is present, do raw assignment
        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
            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
```


## 2.5 - 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 to collect all dead objects (that is, objects that are no longer accessible from Lua). All memory used by Lua is subject to automatic management: strings, tables, functions, internal structures, etc.

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. Both use percentage points as units (e.g., a value of 100 means an internal value of 1 ).
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 100 mean the collector will not wait to start a new cycle. A value of 200 means that the collector waits for the total memory in use to double before starting a new cycle.
The garbage-collector 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 100 make the collector too slow and can result in the collector never finishing a cycle. The default is 200, which means that the collector runs at "twice" the speed of memory allocation.
If you set the step multiplier to a very large number (larger than 10\% of the maximum number of bytes that the program may use), the collector behaves like a stop-the-world collector. If you then set the pause to 200, the collector behaves as in old Lua versions, doing a complete collection every time Lua doubles its memory usage.
You can change these numbers by calling collectgarbage in Lua. You can also use these functions to control the collector directly (e.g., stop and restart it).
As an experimental feature in Lua 5.2, you can change the collector's operation mode from incremental to generational. A generational collector assumes that most objects die young, and therefore it traverses only young (recently created) objects. This behavior can reduce the time used by the collector, but also increases memory usage (as old dead objects may accumulate). To mitigate this second problem, from time to time the generational collector performs a full collection. Remember that this is an experimental feature; you are welcome to try it, but check your gains.

### 2.5.1 - Garbage-Collection Metamethods

You can set garbage-collector metamethods for tables. 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).
For an object (table) to be finalized when collected, you must mark it for finalization. You mark an object for finalization when you set its metatable and the metatable has a field indexed by the string "__gc". Note that if you set a metatable without a __gc field and later create that field in the metatable, the object will not be marked for finalization. However, after an object is marked, you can freely change the __gc field of its metatable.
When a marked object becomes garbage, it is not collected immediately by the garbage collector. Instead, Lua puts it in a list. After the collection, Lua does the equivalent of the following function for each object in that list:

```
function gc_event (obj)
    local h = metatable(obj).__gc
    if type(h) == "function" then
        h(obj)
    end
end
```

At the end of each garbage-collection cycle, the finalizers for objects are called in the reverse order that they were marked for collection, among those collected in that cycle; that is, the first finalizer to be called is the one associated with the object marked last in the program. The execution of each finalizer may occur at any point during the execution of the regular code.

Because the object being collected must still be used by the finalizer, it (and other objects accessible only through it) must be resurrected by Lua. Usually, this resurrection is transient, and the object memory is freed in the next garbage-collection cycle. However, if the finalizer stores the object in some global place (e.g., a global variable), then there is a permanent resurrection. In any case, the object memory is freed only when it becomes completely inaccessible; its finalizer will never be called twice.

When you close a state (see lua_close), Lua calls the finalizers of all objects marked for finalization, following the reverse order that they were marked. If any finalizer marks new objects for collection during that phase, these new objects will not be finalized.

### 2.5.2 - 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 that 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 __modecontains ' $v$ ', the values in the table are weak.

A table with weak keys and strong values is also called an ephemeron table. In an ephemeron table, a value is considered reachable only if its key is reachable. In particular, if the only reference to a key comes through its value, the pair is removed.
Any change in the weakness of a table may take effect only at the next collect cycle. In particular, if you change the weakness to a stronger mode, Lua may still collect some items from that table before the change takes effect.
Only objects that have an explicit construction are removed from weak tables. Values, such as numbers and light $C$ functions, are not subject to garbage collection, and therefore are not removed from weak tables (unless its associated value is collected). Although strings are subject to garbage collection, they do not have an explicit construction, and therefore are not removed from weak tables.

Resurrected objects (that is, objects being finalized and objects accessible only through objects being finalized) have a special behavior in weak tables. They are removed from weak values before running their finalizers, but are removed from weak keys only in the next collection after running their finalizers, when such objects are actually freed. This behavior allows the finalizer to access properties associated with the object through weak tables.
If a weak table is among the resurrected objects in a collection cycle, it may not be properly cleared until the next cycle.

## 3 - 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.

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 nonterminal, keywords are shown like kword, and other terminal symbols are shown like ' $=$ '. The complete syntax of Lua can be found in $\S 9$ at the end of this manual.

## 3.1 - Lexical Conventions

Lua is a free-form language. It ignores spaces (including new lines) and comments between lexical elements (tokens), except as delimiters between names and keywords.
Names (also called identifiers) in Lua can be any string of letters, digits, and underscores, not beginning with a digit. Identifiers are used to name variables, table fields, and labels.

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

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

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 variables used by Lua.

The following strings denote other tokens:

| + | - | $*$ | $/$ | $\%$ | $\wedge$ | $\#$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $==$ | $\sim=$ | $<=$ | $>=$ | $<$ | $>$ | $=$ |
| $($ | $)$ | $\{$ | $\}$ | $[$ | $]$ | $::$ |
| $;$ | $:$ | , | . | $\ldots$ | $\ldots$ |  |

Literal strings can be delimited by matching single or double quotes, and can contain the following C-like escape sequences: 'la' (bell), 'lb' (backspace), 'lf' (form feed), 'In' (newline), 'lr' (carriage return), 'It' (horizontal tab), 'Iv' (vertical tab), 'Il' (backslash), 'l"' (quotation mark [double quote]), and 'l" (apostrophe [single quote]). A backslash followed by a real newline results in a newline in the string. The escape sequence 'z' skips the following span of whitespace characters, including line breaks; it is particularly useful to break and indent a long literal string into multiple lines without adding the newlines and spaces into the string contents.

A byte in a literal string can also be specified by its numerical value. This can be done with the escape sequence $\mathrm{l} X X X$, where $X X$ is a sequence of exactly two hexadecimal digits, or with the escape sequence lddd, where ddd is a sequence of up to three decimal digits. (Note that if a decimal escape is to be followed by a digit, it must be expressed using exactly three digits.) Strings in Lua can contain any 8-bit value, including embedded zeros, which can be specified as ' 10 '.

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 [=[, and so on. A closing long bracket is defined similarly; for instance, a closing long bracket of level 4 is written as ]====]. A long literal starts with an opening long bracket of any level and ends at the first closing long bracket of the same level. It can contain any text except a closing bracket of the proper level. Literals in this bracketed form can run for several lines, do not interpret any escape sequences, and ignore long brackets of any other level. Any kind of end-of-line sequence (carriage return, newline, carriage return followed by newline, or newline followed by carriage return) is converted to a simple newline.
Any byte in a literal string not explicitly affected by the previous rules represents itself. However, Lua opens files for parsing in text mode, and the system file functions may have problems with some control characters. So, it is safer to represent non-text data as a quoted literal with explicit escape sequences for non-text characters.
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 literal strings below denote the same string:

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

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a=[==[ \\
& \text { alo } \\
& \left.\left.123^{\prime \prime}\right]==\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

A numerical constant can be written with an optional fractional part and an optional decimal exponent, marked by a letter 'e' or ' $E$ '. Lua also accepts hexadecimal constants, which start with 0x or OX. Hexadecimal constants also accept an optional fractional part plus an optional binary exponent, marked by a letter ' $p$ ' or ' $P$ '. Examples of valid numerical constants are

| 3 | 3.0 | 3.1416 | $314.16 e-2$ | 0.31416 E 1 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $0 x f f$ | $0 x 0.1 \mathrm{E}$ | $0 \times A 23 \mathrm{p}-4$ | $0 \times 1.921 \mathrm{FB} 54442 \mathrm{D} 18 \mathrm{P}+1$ |  |

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.

## 3.2 - 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 §3.1.
Any variable name is assumed to be global unless explicitly declared as a local (see §3.3.7). Local variables are lexically scoped: local variables can be freely accessed by functions defined inside their scope (see §3.5).
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 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 §2.4 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
```

An access to a global variable x is equivalent to _ENV. x . Due to the way that chunks are compiled, _ENV is never a global name (see §2.2).

## 3.3 - Statements

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

### 3.3.1 - Blocks

A block is a list of statements, which are executed sequentially:

```
block ::= {stat}
```

Lua has empty statements that allow you to separate statements with semicolons, start a block with a semicolon or write two semicolons in sequence:

```
stat ::= ';'
```

Function calls and assignments can start with an open parenthesis. This possibility leads to an ambiguity in Lua's grammar. Consider the following fragment:

```
a = b + c
(print or io.write) ('done')
```

The grammar could see it in two ways:

```
a = b + c(print or io.write)('done')
a = b + c; (print or io.write)('done')
```

The current parser always sees such constructions in the first way, interpreting the open parenthesis as the start of the arguments to a call. To avoid this ambiguity, it is a good practice to always precede with a semicolon statements that start with a parenthesis:

```
; (print or io.write) ('done')
```

A block can 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 statement in the middle of another block (see§3.3.4).

### 3.3.2 - Chunks

The unit of compilation of Lua is called a chunk. Syntactically, a chunk is simply a block:

```
chunk ::= block
```

Lua handles a chunk as the body of an anonymous function with a variable number of arguments (see §3.4.10). As such, chunks can define local variables, receive arguments, and return values. Moreover, such anonymous function is compiled as in the scope of an external local variable called _ENV (see §2.2). The resulting function always has _ENV as its only upvalue, even if it does not use that variable.
A chunk can be stored in a file or in a string inside the host program. To execute a chunk, Lua first precompiles the chunk into instructions for a virtual machine, and then it executes the
compiled code with an interpreter for the virtual machine.

### 3.3.3 - Assignment

Lua allows multiple assignments. 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 ::= varlist '=' explist
varlist ::= var {',' var}
explist ::= exp {',' exp}
```

Expressions are discussed in §3.4.
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 that call enter the list of values, before the adjustment (except when the call is enclosed in parentheses; see §3.4).
The assignment statement first evaluates all its expressions and only then are the assignments performed. Thus the code

$$
\begin{aligned}
& i=3 \\
& i, a[i]=i+1,20
\end{aligned}
$$

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 $y$, and

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

cyclically permutes the values of $x, y$, and $z$.
The meaning of assignments to global variables and table fields can be changed via metatables. An assignment to an indexed variable $\mathrm{t}[\mathrm{i}]=\mathrm{val}$ is equivalent tosettable_event ( $t, i, v a l$ ). (See § 2.4 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 $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{val}$ is equivalent to the assignment ENV. $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{val}$ (see §2.2).

### 3.3.4 - 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 §3.3.5).
The condition expression of a control structure can 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 goto statement transfers the program control to a label. For syntactical reasons, labels in Lua are considered statements too:

```
stat ::= goto Name
stat ::= label
label ::= '::' Name '::'
```

A label is visible in the entire block where it is defined, except inside nested blocks where a label with the same name is defined and inside nested functions. A goto may jump to any visible label as long as it does not enter into the scope of a local variable.
Labels and empty statements are called void statements, as they perform no actions.
The break statement terminates 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 statement is used to return values from a function or a chunk (which is a function in disguise). Functions can return more than one value, so the syntax for thereturn statement is

```
stat ::= return [explist] [';']
```

The return statement can only be written as the last statement of a block. If it is really necessary to return in the middle of a block, then an explicit inner block can be used, as in the idiom do return end, because now return is the last statement in its (inner) block.

### 3.3.5 - 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:

$$
\text { stat }::=\text { for Name '=' } \exp \text { ',' } \exp [', ' \exp ] \text { do block end }
$$

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

```
forv = 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 shown here are 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 explist do block end
namelist ::= Name {',' Name}
```

A for statement like
for var_1, $\cdots$, var_n in explist do block end
is equivalent to the code:
do
local f, s, var = explist
while true do
local var_1, $\cdots$, var_n $=f(s$, var $)$
if var_1 == nil then break end
var = var_1
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.
$\bullet f, \mathrm{~s}$, 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.


### 3.3.6 - 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 §3.4.9.

### 3.3.7 - Local Declarations

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

```
stat ::= local namelist [ `=' explist]
```

If present, an initial assignment has the same semantics of a multiple assignment (see §3.3.3). Otherwise, all variables are initialized with nil.
A chunk is also a block (see §3.3.2), and so local variables can be declared in a chunk outside any explicit block.
The visibility rules for local variables are explained in §3.5.

## 3.4 - Expressions

The basic expressions in Lua are the following:

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

Numbers and literal strings are explained in §3.1; variables are explained in §3.2; function definitions are explained in $\S 3.4 .10$; function calls are explained in $\S 3.4 .9$; table constructors are explained in §3.4.8. Vararg expressions, denoted by three dots ('...'), can only be used when directly inside a vararg function; they are explained in §3.4.10.
Binary operators comprise arithmetic operators (see §3.4.1), relational operators (see §3.4.3),
logical operators (see §3.4.4), and the concatenation operator (see §3.4.5). Unary operators comprise the unary minus (see §3.4.1), the unary not (see §3.4.4), and the unary length operator (see §3.4.6).
Both function calls and vararg expressions can result in multiple values. If a function call is used as a statement (see §3.3.6), then its return list is adjusted to zero elements, thus discarding all returned values. If an expression is used as the last (or the only) element of a list of expressions, then no adjustment is made (unless the expression is enclosed in parentheses). In all other contexts, Lua adjusts the result list to one element, either discarding all values except the first one or adding a single nil if there are no values.

Here are some examples:

```
f() -- adjusted to 0 results
g(f(), x) -- f() is adjusted to 1 result
g(x, f()) -- g gets x plus all results from f()
a,b,c = f(), x -- f() is adjusted to 1 result (c gets nil)
a,b = ... -- a gets the first vararg parameter, b gets
    -- the second (both a and b can get nil if there
    -- is no corresponding vararg parameter)
a,b,c = x, f() -- f() is adjusted to 2 results
a,b,c = f() -- f() is adjusted to 3 results
return f() -- returns all results from 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
```

Any 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.)

### 3.4.1 - Arithmetic Operators

Lua supports the usual arithmetic operators: the binary + (addition), - (subtraction), * (multiplication), / (division), \% (modulo), and ^ (exponentiation); and unary -(mathematical negation). If the operands are numbers, or strings that can be converted to numbers (see §3.4.2), then all operations have the usual meaning. Exponentiation works for any exponent. For instance, $x^{\wedge}(-0.5)$ 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.

### 3.4.2 - 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 rules of the Lua lexer. (The string may have leading and trailing spaces and a sign.)
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).

### 3.4.3 - 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. Tables 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), this new object is different from any previously existing object. Closures with the same reference are always equal. Closures with any detectable difference (different behavior, different definition) are always different.
You can change the way that Lua compares tables by using the "eq" metamethod (see §2.4).
The conversion rules of $\S 3.4 .2$ do not apply to equality comparisons. Thus, " 0 " $==0$ evaluates to false, and $\mathrm{t}[0]$ and $\mathrm{t}[\mathrm{"O} \mathrm{l}$ ] 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 "tt" or the "le" metamethod (see §2.4). A comparison $\mathrm{a}>\mathrm{b}$ is translated to $\mathrm{b}<\mathrm{a}$ and $\mathrm{a}>=\mathrm{b}$ is translated to b <= a .

### 3.4.4 - Logical Operators

The logical operators in Lua are and, or, and not. Like the control structures (see §3.3.4), 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 or error() --> 10
false and error()
10 and 20
```

nil or "a" --> "a"
nil and 10 --> nil
false and nil --> false
false or nil --> nil
--> 10
--> false
--> 20
(In this manual, --> indicates the result of the preceding expression.)

### 3.4.5 - 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 §3.4.2. Otherwise, the __concat metamethod is called (see §2.4).

### 3.4.6 - The Length Operator

The length operator is denoted by the unary prefix 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).
A program can modify the behavior of the length operator for any value but strings through the __len metamethod (see §2.4).
Unless a __ len metamethod is given, the length of a table $t$ is only defined if the table is a sequence, that is, the set of its positive numeric keys is equal to $\{1 . . n\}$ for some integer $n$. In that case, $n$ is its length. Note that a table like

$$
\{10,20, \text { nil, } 40\}
$$

is not a sequence, because it has the key 4 but does not have the key 3. (So, there is no $n$ such that the set $\{1 . . n\}$ is equal to the set of positive numeric keys of that table.) Note, however, that non-numeric keys do not interfere with whether a table is a sequence.

### 3.4.7 - Precedence

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

```
or
and
< > <= >= ~= ==
••
+ -
* / %
not # - (unary)
```

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.

### 3.4.8 - Table Constructors

Table constructors are expressions that create tables. Every time a constructor is evaluated, a new table is created. A constructor can be used to create an empty table 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

```
do
    local t = {}
    t[f(1)] = g
    t[1] = "x" -- 1st exp
    t[2] = "y" -- 2nd exp
    t.x = 1 -- t["x"] = 1
    t[3] = f(x) -- 3rd exp
    t[30] = 23
    t[4] = 45 -- 4th exp
    a = t
end
```

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 §3.4.9).
The field list can have an optional trailing separator, as a convenience for machine-generated code.

### 3.4.9 - 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 §2.4).
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 ::= '(' [explist] ')'
args ::= tableconstructor
args ::= String
```

All argument expressions are evaluated before the call. A call of the form $f\{f i e l d s\}$ is syntactic sugar for $f(\{f i e l d s\})$; that is, the argument list is a single new table. A call of the form f'string' (or f"string" or f[ [string]]) is syntactic sugar for f('string'); that is, the argument list is a single literal string.
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
```


### 3.4.10 - Function Definitions

The syntax for function definition is

```
functiondef ::= function funcbody
funcbody ::= '(' [parlist] ')' 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 precompiles a chunk, all its function bodies are precompiled 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.
Parameters act as local variables that are initialized with the argument values:

```
parlist ::= 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 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 avararg 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 that last expression 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

```
f(3)
f(3, 4)
f(3, 4, 5)
f(r(), 10)
f(r())
g(3)
g(3, 4)
g(3, 4, 5, 8)
g(5,r())
```

PARAMETERS

$$
\left.\begin{array}{lll}
a=3, & b=n i l \\
a=3, & b=4 \\
a=3, & b=4 \\
a=1, & b=10 \\
a=1, & b=2 \\
& & \\
a=3, & b=n i l, & \ldots \\
a=3, & b=4, & \cdots
\end{array}\right) \text { (nothing) }
$$

Results are returned using the return statement (see §3.3.4). If control reaches the end of a function without encountering a return statement, then the function returns with no results.

There is a system-dependent limit on the number of values that a function may return. This limit is guaranteed to be larger than 1000.
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
```

is syntactic sugar for

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


## 3.5 - Visibility Rules

Lua is a lexically scoped language. The scope of a local variable begins at the first statement after its declaration and lasts until the last non-void statement of the innermost block that includes the declaration. Consider the following example:

```
x = 10
do
    local x = x
    print(x)
    x = x+1
    do
        local x = x+1
    end
end
```

        print(x) --> 12
    print(x) --> 11
    print(x) --> 10 (the global one)

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 anupvalue, 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 $x$.

## 6 - Standard Libraries

The standard Lua libraries provide useful functions that are implemented directly through the C API. Some of these functions provide essential services to the language (e.g.,type and getmetatable); others provide access to "outside" services (e.g., l/O); and others could be implemented in Lua itself, but are quite useful or have critical performance requirements that deserve an implementation in C (e.g., table.sort).

All libraries are implemented through the official C API and are provided as separate C modules. Lua has the following standard libraries:
-basic library (§6.1);

- string manipulation (§6.3);
-table manipulation (§6.5);
-mathematical functions (§6.6) (sin, log, etc.);
-bitwise operations (§6.7);
Except for the basic libraries, each library provides all its functions as fields of a global table or as methods of its objects.


## 6.1 - Basic Functions

The basic library provides core functions to Lua.

## assert (v [, message])

Issues an error when the value of its argument v is false (i.e., nil or false); otherwise, returns all its arguments. message is an error message; when absent, it defaults to "assertion failed!"

## collectgarbage ([opt [, arg]])

This function is a generic interface to the garbage collector. It performs different functions according to its first argument, opt:
-"collect": performs a full garbage-collection cycle. This is the default option.
-"stop": stops automatic execution of the garbage collector. The collector will run only when explicitly invoked, until a call to restart it.
-"restart": restarts automatic execution of the garbage collector.
-"count": returns the total memory in use by Lua (in Kbytes) and a second value with the total memory in bytes modulo 1024. The first value has a fractional part, so the following equality is always true:

```
k, b = collectgarbage("count")
assert(k*1024 == math.floor (k)*1024 + b)
```

(The second result is useful when Lua is compiled with a non floating-point type for numbers.)
-"step": performs a garbage-collection step. The step "size" is controlled by arg (larger values mean more steps) in a non-specified way. If you want to control the step size you must experimentally tune the value of arg. Returns true if the step
finished a collection cycle.
-"setpause": sets arg as the new value for the pause of the collector (see §2.5). Returns the previous value for pause.
-"setstepmul": sets arg as the new value for the step multiplier of the collector (see §2.5). Returns the previous value for step.
-"isrunning": returns a boolean that tells whether the collector is running (i.e., not stopped).
-"generational": changes the collector to generational mode. This is an experimental feature (see §2.5).
-"incremental": changes the collector to incremental mode. This is the default mode.

## dofile ([filename])

Opens the named file and executes its contents as a Lua chunk. When called without arguments, dofile executes the contents of the standard input (stdin). Returns all values returned by the chunk. In case of errors, dofile propagates the error to its caller (that is, dofile does not run in protected mode).

## error (message [, level])

Terminates the last protected function called and returns message as the error message. Function error never returns.
Usually, error adds some information about the error position at the beginning of the message, if the message is a string. The level argument specifies how to get the error position. With level 1 (the default), the error position is where the error function was called. Level 2 points the error to where the function that called error was called; and so on. Passing a level 0 avoids the addition of error position information to the message.

## _G

A global variable (not a function) that holds the global environment (see §2.2). Lua itself does not use this variable; changing its value does not affect any environment, nor vice-versa.

## getmetatable (object)

If object does not have a metatable, returns nil. Otherwise, if the object's metatable has a
$\qquad$ metatable" field, returns the associated value. Otherwise, returns the metatable of the given object.

## ipairs (t)

If $t$ has a metamethod ipairs, calls it with $t$ as argument and returns the first three results from the call.

Otherwise, returns three values: an iterator function, the table $t$, and 0 , so that the construction
for i,v in ipairs(t) do body end
will iterate over the pairs $(1, t[1]),(2, t[2]), \ldots$, up to the first integer key absent from the table.

## load (Id [, source [, mode [, env]]])

Loads a chunk.
If $1 d$ is a string, the chunk is this string. If $1 d$ is a function, load calls it repeatedly to get the chunk pieces. Each call to ld must return a string that concatenates with previous results. A return of an empty string, nil, or no value signals the end of the chunk.
If there are no syntactic errors, returns the compiled chunk as a function; otherwise, returns nil plus the error message.
If the resulting function has upvalues, the first upvalue is set to the value of env, if that parameter is given, or to the value of the global environment. (When you load a main chunk, the resulting function will always have exactly one upvalue, the _ENV variable (see §2.2). When you load a binary chunk created from a function (see string.dump), the resulting function can have arbitrary upvalues.)
source is used as the source of the chunk for error messages and debug information (see $\S 4.9$ ). When absent, it defaults to $1 d$, if $1 d$ is a string, or to "=(load)" otherwise.

The string mode controls whether the chunk can be text or binary (that is, a precompiled chunk). It may be the string "b" (only binary chunks), "t" (only text chunks), or "bt" (both binary and text). The default is "bt".

## loadfile ([filename [, mode [, env]]])

Similar to load, but gets the chunk from file filename or from the standard input, if no file name is given.

## next (table [, index])

Allows a program to traverse all fields of a table. Its first argument is a table and its second argument is an index in this table. next returns the next index of the table and its associated value. When called with nil as its second argument, next returns an initial index and its associated value. When called with the last index, or with nil in an empty table, next returns nil. If the second argument is absent, then it is interpreted as nil. In particular, you can use next ( $t$ ) to check whether a table is empty.
The order in which the indices are enumerated is not specified, even for numeric indices. (To traverse a table in numeric order, use a numerical for.)
The behavior of next is undefined if, during the traversal, you assign any value to a nonexistent field in the table. You may however modify existing fields. In particular, you may clear existing fields.

## pairs (t)

If $t$ has a metamethod pairs, calls it with $t$ as argument and returns the first three results from the call.
Otherwise, returns three values: the next function, the table $t$, and nil, so that the construction

```
for k,v in pairs(t) do body end
```

will iterate over all key-value pairs of table $t$.
See function next for the caveats of modifying the table during its traversal.

## pcall (f [, arg1, $\cdots]$ )

Calls function $f$ with the given arguments in protected mode. This means that any error inside f is not propagated; instead, pcall catches the error and returns a status code. Its first result is the status code (a boolean), which is true if the call succeeds without errors. In such case, pcall also returns all results from the call, after this first result. In case of any error, pcall returns false plus the error message.
print ( $\cdot \cdots$ )
Receives any number of arguments and prints their values to stdout, using the tostring function to convert each argument to a string. print is not intended for formatted output, but only as a quick way to show a value, for instance for debugging. For complete control over the output, use string.format and io.write.

## rawequal (v1, v2)

Checks whether v1 is equal to v2, without invoking any metamethod. Returns a boolean.

## rawget (table, index)

Gets the real value of table [index], without invoking any metamethod. table must be a table; index may be any value.

## rawlen (v)

Returns the length of the object v, which must be a table or a string, without invoking any metamethod. Returns an integer number.

## rawset (table, index, value)

Sets the real value of table [index] to value, without invoking any metamethod. table must be a table, index any value different from nil and NaN , and value any Lua value.
This function returns table.

## select (index, $\cdots$ )

If index is a number, returns all arguments after argument number index; a negative number indexes from the end (-1 is the last argument). Otherwise, index must be the string "\#", and select returns the total number of extra arguments it received.

## setmetatable (table, metatable)

Sets the metatable for the given table. (You cannot change the metatable of other types from

Lua, only from C.) If metatable is nil, removes the metatable of the given table. If the original metatable has a "__metatable" field, raises an error.
This function returns table.

## tonumber (e [, base])

When called with no base, tonumber tries to convert its argument to a number. If the argument is already a number or a string convertible to a number (see §3.4.2), then tonumber returns this number; otherwise, it returns nil.

When called with base, then e should be a string to be interpreted as an integer numeral in that base. The base may be any integer between 2 and 36, inclusive. In bases above 10, the letter 'A' (in either upper or lower case) represents 10 , 'B' represents 11 , and so forth, with ' Z ' representing 35. If the string e is not a valid numeral in the given base, the function returns nil.

## tostring (v)

Receives a value of any type and converts it to a string in a reasonable format. (For complete control of how numbers are converted, use string.format.)
If the metatable of $v$ has a "__tostring" field, then tostring calls the corresponding value with v as argument, and uses the result of the call as its result.

## type (v)

Returns the type of its only argument, coded as a string. The possible results of this function are "nil" (a string, not the value nil), "number", "string", "boolean", "table", and "function".

## _VERSION

A global variable (not a function) that holds a string containing the current interpreter version. The current contents of this variable is "Lua 5.2".

## xpcall (f, msgh [, arg1, $\cdots$ ])

This function is similar to pcall, except that it sets a new message handler msgh.

## 6.2 - String Manipulation

This library provides generic functions for string manipulation, such as finding and extracting substrings, and pattern matching. When indexing a string in Lua, the first character is at position 1 (not at 0, as in C). Indices are allowed to be negative and are interpreted as indexing backwards, from the end of the string. Thus, the last character is at position -1 , and so on.

The string library provides all its functions inside the table string. It also sets a metatable for strings where the __index field points to the string table. Therefore, you can use the string functions in object-oriented style. For instance, string.byte(s,i) can be written as s:byte (i).

The string library assumes one-byte character encodings.

## string.byte (s [, i [, j]])

Returns the internal numerical codes of the characters s[i], s[i+1],..,$s[j]$. The default value for $i$ is 1 ; the default value for $j$ is $i$. These indices are corrected following the same rules of function string. sub.

Numerical codes are not necessarily portable across platforms.

## string.char (...)

Receives zero or more integers. Returns a string with length equal to the number of arguments, in which each character has the internal numerical code equal to its corresponding argument.

Numerical codes are not necessarily portable across platforms.

## string.dump (function)

Returns a string containing a binary representation of the given function, so that a later load on this string returns a copy of the function (but with new upvalues).

## string.find (s, pattern [, init [, plain]])

Looks for the first match of pattern in the string s. If it finds a match, then find returns the indices of $s$ where this occurrence starts and ends; otherwise, it returns nil. A third, optional numerical argument init specifies where to start the search; its default value is 1 and can be negative. A value of true as a fourth, optional argument plain turns off the pattern matching facilities, so the function does a plain "find substring" operation, with no characters in pattern being considered magic. Note that if plain is given, then init must be given as well.

If the pattern has captures, then in a successful match the captured values are also returned, after the two indices.

## string.format (formatstring, $\cdots$ )

Returns a formatted version of its variable number of arguments following the description given in its first argument (which must be a string). The format string follows the same rules as the ANSI C function sprintf. The only differences are that the options/modifiers *, h, L, $1, n$, and $p$ are not supported and that there is an extra option, q. The q option formats a string between double quotes, using escape sequences when necessary to ensure that it can safely be read back by the Lua interpreter. For instance, the call

```
string.format('%q', 'a string with "quotes" and \n new line')
```

may produce the string:

```
"a string with \"quotes\" and \
new line"
```

Options A and a (when available), E, e, f, G, and g all expect a number as argument. Options $c, d, i, o, u, X$, and $x$ also expect a number, but the range of that number may be limited by
the underlying $C$ implementation. For options $\circ, u, X$, and $x$, the number cannot be negative. Option $q$ expects a string; option s expects a string without embedded zeros. If the argument to option $s$ is not a string, it is converted to one following the same rules of tostring.

## string.gmatch (s, pattern)

Returns an iterator function that, each time it is called, returns the next captures from pattern over the string s. If pattern specifies no captures, then the whole match is produced in each call.

As an example, the following loop will iterate over all the words from string s, printing one per line:

```
s = "hello world from Lua"
for w in string.gmatch(s, "%a+") do
    print(w)
end
```

The next example collects all pairs key=value from the given string into a table:

```
\(t=\{ \}\)
s = "from=world, to=Lua"
for \(k, v\) in string.gmatch \((s, \quad "(\% \mathrm{w}+)=(\% \mathrm{w}+)\) ") do
    \(t[k]=v\)
end
```

For this function, a caret ' $\wedge$ ' at the start of a pattern does not work as an anchor, as this would prevent the iteration.

## string.gsub (s, pattern, repl [, n])

Returns a copy of $s$ in which all (or the first $n$, if given) occurrences of the pattern have been replaced by a replacement string specified by repl, which can be a string, a table, or a function. gsub also returns, as its second value, the total number of matches that occurred. The name gsub comes from Global SUBstitution.
If repl is a string, then its value is used for replacement. The character $\%$ works as an escape character: any sequence in repl of the form $\% d$, with $d$ between 1 and 9 , stands for the value of the $d$-th captured substring. The sequence $\% 0$ stands for the whole match. The sequence $\% \%$ stands for a single $\%$.
If repl is a table, then the table is queried for every match, using the first capture as the key.
If repl is a function, then this function is called every time a match occurs, with all captured substrings passed as arguments, in order.
In any case, if the pattern specifies no captures, then it behaves as if the whole pattern was inside a capture.
If the value returned by the table query or by the function call is a string or a number, then it is used as the replacement string; otherwise, if it is false or nil, then there is no replacement
(that is, the original match is kept in the string).
Here are some examples:

```
x = string.gsub("hello world", "(%w+)", "%1 %1")
--> x="hello hello world world"
x = string.gsub("hello world", "%w+", "%0 %0", 1)
--> x="hello hello world"
x = string.gsub("hello world from Lua", "(%w+) %s*(%w+)", "%2 %1")
--> x="world hello Lua from"
x = string.gsub("home = $HOME, user = $USER", "%$(%w+)", os.getenv)
--> x="home = /home/roberto, user = roberto"
x = string.gsub("4+5 = $return 4+5$", "%$(.-)%$", function (s)
        return load(s)()
        end)
--> x="4+5 = 9"
local t = {name="lua", version="5.2"}
x = string.gsub("$name-$version.tar.gz", "%$(%w+)", t)
--> x="lua-5.2.tar.gz"
```


## string.len (s)

Receives a string and returns its length. The empty string "" has length 0 . Embedded zeros are counted, so "a $\backslash 000 \mathrm{bc} \backslash 000$ " has length 5 .

## string.lower (s)

Receives a string and returns a copy of this string with all uppercase letters changed to lowercase. All other characters are left unchanged. The definition of what an uppercase letter is depends on the current locale.

## string.match (s, pattern [, init])

Looks for the first match of pattern in the string s. If it finds one, then match returns the captures from the pattern; otherwise it returns nil. If pattern specifies no captures, then the whole match is returned. A third, optional numerical argument init specifies where to start the search; its default value is 1 and can be negative.

## string.rep (s, n [, sep])

Returns a string that is the concatenation of $n$ copies of the string s separated by the string sep. The default value for sep is the empty string (that is, no separator).

## string.reverse (s)

Returns a string that is the string $s$ reversed.

## string.sub (s, i [, j])

Returns the substring of $s$ that starts at $i$ and continues until $j$; i and $j$ can be negative. If $j$ is absent, then it is assumed to be equal to - 1 (which is the same as the string length). In particular, the call string. sub $(s, 1, j)$ returns a prefix of $s$ with length $j$, and string. sub ( $s,-i$ ) returns a suffix of $s$ with length $i$.
If, after the translation of negative indices, $i$ is less than 1 , it is corrected to 1 . If $j$ is greater than the string length, it is corrected to that length. If, after these corrections, i is greater than $j$, the function returns the empty string.

## string.upper (s)

Receives a string and returns a copy of this string with all lowercase letters changed to uppercase. All other characters are left unchanged. The definition of what a lowercase letter is depends on the current locale.

### 6.2.1 - Patterns

## Character Class:

A character class is used to represent a set of characters. The following combinations are allowed in describing a character class:
$\cdot \mathbf{x}$ : (where $x$ is not one of the magic characters ${ }^{\wedge} \$() \%$. [ ] *+-? ) represents the character x itself.

- . : (a dot) represents all characters.
-\%a: represents all letters.
-\%c: represents all control characters.
-\%d: represents all digits.
-\%g: represents all printable characters except space.
$\bullet \circ 1$ : represents all lowercase letters.
-\%p: represents all punctuation characters.
$\bullet \% s$ : represents all space characters.
$\bullet \% u$ : represents all uppercase letters.
-\%w: represents all alphanumeric characters.
$\bullet \% x$ : represents all hexadecimal digits.
$\bullet \% x$ : (where $x$ is any non-alphanumeric character) represents the character $x$. This is the standard way to escape the magic characters. Any punctuation character (even the non magic) can be preceded by a 'ㅇ' when used to represent itself in a pattern.
- [set] : represents the class which is the union of all characters in set. A range of characters can be specified by separating the end characters of the range, in ascending order, with a '-', All classes \%x described above can also be used as components in set. All other characters in set represent themselves. For example, [ $\% \mathrm{w}$ _] (or [_\%w]) represents all alphanumeric characters plus the underscore, [0-7] represents the octal digits, and [0-7\%1\%-] represents the octal digits plus the lowercase letters plus the '-' character.
The interaction between ranges and classes is not defined. Therefore, patterns like [ $\% a-z]$ or [a- $\% \%$ ] have no meaning.
- [^set]: represents the complement of set, where set is interpreted as above.


For all classes represented by single letters ( $\% a, \circ c$, etc.), the corresponding uppercase letter represents the complement of the class. For instance, $\%$, represents all non-space characters.

The definitions of letter, space, and other character groups depend on the current locale. In particular, the class [a-z] may not be equivalent to $\% 1$.

## Pattern Item:

A pattern item can be
-a single character class, which matches any single character in the class;
$\cdot$ •a single character class followed by '*', which matches 0 or more repetitions of characters in the class. These repetition items will always match the longest possible sequence;
-a single character class followed by ' + ', which matches 1 or more repetitions of characters in the class. These repetition items will always match the longest possible sequence;
-a single character class followed by '-', which also matches 0 or more repetitions of characters in the class. Unlike '*', these repetition items will always match the shortest possible sequence;
-a single character class followed by '?', which matches 0 or 1 occurrence of a character in the class;
$\bullet \% \mathrm{n}$, for n between 1 and 9; such item matches a substring equal to the n-th captured string (see below);
-\%.bxy, where $x$ and $y$ are two distinct characters; such item matches strings that start with $x$, end with $y$, and where the $x$ and $y$ are balanced. This means that, if one reads the string from left to right, counting +1 for an $x$ and -1 for a $y$, the ending $y$ is the first $y$ where the count reaches 0 . For instance, the item $\% \mathrm{~b}$ () matches expressions with balanced parentheses.
$\bullet \%$ [set ], a frontier pattern; such item matches an empty string at any position such that the next character belongs to set and the previous character does not belong to set. The set set is interpreted as previously described. The beginning and the end of
the subject are handled as if they were the character ' $\backslash 0^{\prime}$.

## Pattern:

A pattern is a sequence of pattern items. A caret '^' at the beginning of a pattern anchors the match at the beginning of the subject string. $A$ ' $\$$ ' at the end of a pattern anchors the match at the end of the subject string. At other positions, '^' and '\$' have no special meaning and represent themselves.

## Captures:

A pattern can contain sub-patterns enclosed in parentheses; they describe captures. When a match succeeds, the substrings of the subject string that match captures are stored (captured) for future use. Captures are numbered according to their left parentheses. For instance, in the pattern " ( $a^{*}() \% .\mathrm{w}\left(\% s^{*}\right)$ ) ", the part of the string matching "a* (.)
$\% \mathrm{w}\left(\% \mathrm{~s}^{*}\right)$ " is stored as the first capture (and therefore has number 1 ); the character matching "." is captured with number 2 , and the part matching "\%s*" has number 3 .

As a special case, the empty capture () captures the current string position (a number). For instance, if we apply the pattern " () aa () " on the string "flaaap", there will be two captures: 3 and 5.

## 6.3 - Table Manipulation

This library provides generic functions for table manipulation. It provides all its functions inside the table table.

Remember that, whenever an operation needs the length of a table, the table should be a proper sequence or have a __len metamethod (see §3.4.6). All functions ignore non-numeric keys in tables given as arguments.
For performance reasons, all table accesses (get/set) performed by these functions are raw.

## table.concat (list [, sep [, i [, j] ]])

Given a list where all elements are strings or numbers, returns the string list[i]..sep..list[i+1] ... sep..list[j]. The default value for sep is the empty string, the default for $i$ is 1 , and the default for $j$ is \#list. If $i$ is greater than $j$, returns the empty string.

## table.insert (list, [pos,] value)

Inserts element value at position pos in list, shifting up the elements list [pos], list[pos+1], ..., list[\#list]. The default value for pos is \#list+1, so that a call table.insert ( $t, x$ ) inserts $x$ at the end of list $t$.

## table.pack (…)

Returns a new table with all parameters stored into keys 1,2 , etc. and with a field " n " with the total number of parameters. Note that the resulting table may not be a sequence.

## table.remove (list [, pos])

Removes from list the element at position pos, returning the value of the removed element. When pos is an integer between 1 and \#list, it shifts down the elementslist [pos+1], list [pos+2], ..., list[\#list] and erases element list[\#list]; The index pos can also be 0 when \#list is 0 , or \#list +1 ; in those cases, the function erases the element list[pos].

The default value for pos is \#list, so that a call table.remove ( $t$ ) removes the last element of list $t$.

## table.sort (list [, comp])

Sorts list elements in a given order, in-place, from list [1] to list [\#list]. If comp is given, then it must be a function that receives two list elements and returns true when the first element must come before the second in the final order (so that not comp (list [ $\mathrm{i}+1$ ], list[i]) will be true after the sort). If comp is not given, then the standard Lua operator < is used instead.
The sort algorithm is not stable; that is, elements considered equal by the given order may have their relative positions changed by the sort.

## table.unpack (list [, i [, j]])

Returns the elements from the given table. This function is equivalent to
return list[i], list[i+1], ..., list[j]
By default, $i$ is 1 and $j$ is \#list.

## 6.4 - Mathematical Functions

This library is an interface to the standard C math library. It provides all its functions inside the table math.

## math.abs (x)

Returns the absolute value of x .
math.acos (x)
Returns the arc cosine of $x$ (in radians).

## math.asin ( x )

Returns the arc sine of $x$ (in radians).

## math.atan ( $\mathbf{x}$ )

Returns the arc tangent of x (in radians).
math.atan2 ( $\mathbf{y}, \mathrm{x}$ )
Returns the arc tangent of $y / x$ (in radians), but uses the signs of both parameters to find the quadrant of the result. (It also handles correctly the case of x being zero.)
math.ceil ( $\mathbf{x}$ )
Returns the smallest integer larger than or equal to x .

## math.cos (x)

Returns the cosine of x (assumed to be in radians).
math.cosh (x)
Returns the hyperbolic cosine of x .
math.deg (x)
Returns the angle $x$ (given in radians) in degrees.
math.exp (x)
Returns the value $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{x}}$.
math.floor (x)
Returns the largest integer smaller than or equal to ${ }^{\mathrm{x}}$.
math.fmod ( $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}$ )
Returns the remainder of the division of x by y that rounds the quotient towards zero.
math.frexp (x)
Returns $m$ and $e$ such that $x=m 2^{e}, e$ is an integer and the absolute value of $m$ is in the range $[0.5,1$ ) (or zero when x is zero).

## math.huge

The value HUGE_VAL, a value larger than or equal to any other numerical value.

## math.Idexp (m, e)

Returns $\mathrm{m}^{\mathrm{e}}$ (e should be an integer).

## math.log (x [, base])

Returns the logarithm of $x$ in the given base. The default for base is $e$ (so that the function returns the natural logarithm of x ).
math.max $(x, \cdots)$
Returns the maximum value among its arguments.
math.min ( $x, \cdots$ )
Returns the minimum value among its arguments.
math.modf ( $\mathbf{x}$ )
Returns two numbers, the integral part of x and the fractional part of x .
math.pi
The value of $\pi$.
math.pow ( $x, y$ )
Returns $x^{y}$. (You can also use the expression $x^{\wedge} y$ to compute this value.)

## math.rad (x)

Returns the angle x (given in degrees) in radians.

## math.random ([m [, n]])

This function is an interface to the simple pseudo-random generator function rand provided by Standard C. (No guarantees can be given for its statistical properties.)

When called without arguments, returns a uniform pseudo-random real number in the range $[0,1)$. When called with an integer number $m$, math . random returns a uniform pseudorandom integer in the range [1, m]. When called with two integer numbers $m$ and $n$, math. random returns a uniform pseudo-random integer in the range [m, $n$ ].

## math.randomseed (x)

Sets x as the "seed" for the pseudo-random generator: equal seeds produce equal sequences of numbers.
math.sin (x)
Returns the sine of x (assumed to be in radians).

## math.sinh (x)

Returns the hyperbolic sine of x .

## math.sqrt (x)

Returns the square root of $x$. (You can also use the expression $x^{\wedge} 0.5$ to compute this value.)

## math.tan (x)

Returns the tangent of $x$ (assumed to be in radians).

## math.tanh (x)

Returns the hyperbolic tangent of $x$.

## 6.5 - Bitwise Operations

This library provides bitwise operations. It provides all its functions inside the table bit 32 . Unless otherwise stated, all functions accept numeric arguments in the range $\left(-2^{51},+2^{51}\right)$; each argument is normalized to the remainder of its division by $2^{32}$ and truncated to an integer (in some unspecified way), so that its final value falls in the range [0,232-1]. Similarly, all results are in the range $\left[0,2^{32}-1\right]$. Note that bit $32 \operatorname{dnot}(0)$ is $0 \times F F F F F F F F$, which is different from -1.

## bit32.arshift (x, disp)

Returns the number $x$ shifted disp bits to the right. The number disp may be any representable integer. Negative displacements shift to the left.
This shift operation is what is called arithmetic shift. Vacant bits on the left are filled with copies of the higher bit of $x$; vacant bits on the right are filled with zeros. In particular, displacements with absolute values higher than 31 result in zero or 0xFFFFFFFF (all original bits are shifted out).

## bit32.band ( $\cdot \cdots$ )

Returns the bitwise and of its operands.

## bit32.bnot (x)

Returns the bitwise negation of $x$. For any integer $x$, the following identity holds:

```
assert(bit32.bnot(x) == (-1 - x) % 2^32)
```


## bit32.bor (…)

Returns the bitwise or of its operands.

## bit32.btest ( $\cdots$ )

Returns a boolean signaling whether the bitwise and of its operands is different from zero.

## bit32.bxor ( $\cdot \cdots$ )

Returns the bitwise exclusive or of its operands.

## bit32.extract ( n , field [, width])

Returns the unsigned number formed by the bits field to field + width - 1 from n. Bits are numbered from 0 (least significant) to 31 (most significant). All accessed bits must be in the range [0, 31].

The default for width is 1 .

## bit32.replace ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{v}$, field [, width])

Returns a copy of $n$ with the bits field to field + width - 1 replaced by the value $v$. See bit32.extract for details about field and width.

## bit32.Irotate (x, disp)

Returns the number x rotated disp bits to the left. The number disp may be any representable integer.
For any valid displacement, the following identity holds:

```
assert(bit 32.lrotate(x, disp) == bit32.lrotate(x, disp % 32))
```

In particular, negative displacements rotate to the right.

## bit32.Ishift (x, disp)

Returns the number x shifted disp bits to the left. The number disp may be any representable integer. Negative displacements shift to the right. In any direction, vacant bits are filled with zeros. In particular, displacements with absolute values higher than 31 result in zero (all bits are shifted out).
For positive displacements, the following equality holds:

```
assert(bit 32.lshift(b, disp) == (b * 2^disp) % 2^32)
```


## bit32.rrotate (x, disp)

Returns the number $x$ rotated disp bits to the right. The number disp may be any representable integer.
For any valid displacement, the following identity holds:

```
assert(bit 32.rrotate(x, disp) == bit32.rrotate(x, disp % 32))
```

In particular, negative displacements rotate to the left.

## bit32.rshift (x, disp)

Returns the number x shifted disp bits to the right. The number disp may be any representable integer. Negative displacements shift to the left. In any direction, vacant bits are filled with zeros. In particular, displacements with absolute values higher than 31 result in zero (all bits are shifted out).
For positive displacements, the following equality holds:

```
assert(bit32.rshift(b, disp) == math.floor(b % 2^32 / 2^disp))
```

This shift operation is what is called logical shift.

## 7 - The Complete Syntax of Lua

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

```
chunk ::= block
block ::= {stat} [retstat]
stat ::= ';' |
    varlist '=' explist |
    functioncall |
    label |
    break |
    goto Name |
    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 explist do block end |
    function funcname funcbody |
    local function Name funcbody |
    local namelist [ '=' explist]
retstat ::= return [explist] [`;']
label ::= '::' Name '::'
funcname ::= Name {'.' Name} [':' Name]
varlist ::= var {`,' var}
var ::= Name | prefixexp '[' exp `]' | prefixexp '.' Name
namelist ::= Name {',' Name}
explist ::= exp {',' exp}
exp ::= nil | false | true | Number | String | '...' | functiondef |
    prefixexp | tableconstructor | exp binop exp | unop exp
prefixexp ::= var | functioncall | '(' exp ')'
functioncall ::= prefixexp args | prefixexp ':' Name args
args ::= '(' [explist] ')' | tableconstructor | String
functiondef ::= function funcbody
funcbody ::= '(' [parlist] ')' block end
parlist ::= namelist [`,' '...'] | '...'
tableconstructor ::= '{' [fieldlist] '}'
```

```
fieldlist ::= field {fieldsep field} [fieldsep]
field ::= '[' exp ']' '=' exp | Name '=' exp | exp
fieldsep ::= ',' | ';'
binop ::= `+' | '-' | '*' | `/' | `^' | `o' | `...' |
    and | or
unop ::= '-' | not | '#'
```

