Lua—an extensible extension language

Roberto Ierusalimschy Luiz Henrique de Figueiredo Waldemar Celes Filho roberto,lhf,celes@icad.puc-rio.br

MCC 12/95 — Departamento de Informática — PUC-Rio May 15, 1995

Abstract

This paper describes Lua, a language for extending applications. Lua combines procedural features with powerful data description facilities, by using a simple, yet powerful, mechanism of tables. This mechanism implements the concepts of records, arrays, and recursive data types (pointers), and adds some object-oriented facilities, such as methods with dynamic dispatching.

Lua presents a mechanism of fallbacks that allows programmers to extend the semantics of the language in some unconventional ways. As a noteworthy example, fallbacks allow the user to add different kinds of inheritance to the language.

Currently, Lua is being extensively used in production for several tasks, including user configuration, general-purpose data-entry, description of user interfaces, and storage of structured graphical metafiles.

Sumário

Este artigo descreve Lua, uma linguagem para extensão de aplicações. Lua combina programação procedural com fortes facilidades para descrição de dados, usando um simples, porém poderoso, mecanismo de tabelas. Este mecanismo implementa os conceitos de registros, arrays, e tipos de dados recursivos (ponteiros), além de adicionar algumas facilidades de orientação a objetos, como métodos e chamadas dinâmicas.

Lua apresenta um mecanismo de fallbacks que permite que programadores estendam a semântica da linguagem de maneiras não convencionais. Um exemplo digno de nota é o uso de fallbacks para acrescentar diferentes tipos de herança à linguagem.

Atualmente, Lua é usada estensivamente em produção para diversas tarefas, incluindo configuração pelo usuário, entrada de dados de propósito geral, descrição de interfaces com o usuário, e armazenamento de arquivos gráficos estruturados.

1 INTRODUCTION

There is increasing demand for customizable applications. As applications became more complex, customization with simple parameters became impossible: users now want to make configuration decisions at execution time; users also want to write macros and scripts to increase productivity [1, 2, 3, 4]. In response to these needs, there is an important trend nowadays to split complex systems in two parts: kernel and configuration. The kernel implements the basic classes and objects of the system, and is usually written in a compiled, statically typed language, like C or Modula-2. The configuration part, usually written in an interpreted, flexible language, connects these classes and objects to give the final shape to the application [5].

Configuration languages come in several flavors, ranging from simple languages for selecting preferences, usually implemented as parameter lists in command lines or as variable-value pairs read from configuration files (e.g., MS-Windows' .ini files, X11 resource files) to embedded languages, for extending applications with user defined functions based on primitives provided by the applications. Embedded languages can be quite powerful, being sometimes simplified variants of mainstream programming languages such as Lisp and C. Such configuration languages are also called extension languages, since they allow the extension of the basic kernel semantics with new, user defined capabilities.

What makes extension languages different from stand alone languages is that they only work embedded in a host client, called the host program. Moreover, the host program can usually provide domain-specific extensions to customize the embedded language for its own purposes, typically by providing higher level abstractions. For this, an embedded language has both a syntax for its own programs and an application program interface (API) for communicating with hosts. Unlike simpler configuration languages, which are used to supply parameter values and sequences of actions to hosts, there is a two-way communication between embedded languages and host programs.

It is important to note that the requirements on extension languages are different from those on general purpose programming languages. The main requirements for extension languages are:

- extension languages need good data description facilities, since they are frequently used as configuration languages;
- extension languages should have a clear and simple syntax, because their main users are not professional programmers;
- extension languages should be small, and have a small implementation. Otherwise, the costs of adding the library to an application may be too high;
- extension languages are not for writing big pieces of software, with hundreds of thousands lines. Therefore, mechanisms for supporting programming-in-the large, like static type checking, information hiding, and exception handling, are not essential;
- finally, extension languages should also be *extensible*. Unlike conventional languages, extension languages are used in a very high abstraction level, adequate for interfacing with users in quite diverse domains.

This paper describes Lua, an extensible procedural language with powerful data description facilities, designed to be used as a general purpose extension language. Lua arose as the fusion of two descriptive languages, designed for the configuration of two specific applications: one for scientific data entry [6], the other for visualizing lithology profiles obtained from geological probes. When users began to demand increasingly more power in these languages, it became clear that real programming facilities were needed. Instead of upgrading and maintaining two different languages in parallel, the solution adopted was to design a single language that could be used not only for these two applications, but for any other application. Therefore, Lua incorporates facilities common to most procedural programming languages — control structures (whiles, ifs, etc), assignments, subroutines, and infix operators — but abstracts out facilities specific to any particular domain. In this way, Lua can be used as a complete language or as a language framework.

Lua satisfies the requirements listed above quite well. Its syntax and control structures are quite simple, Pascal-like. Lua is small; the whole library is around six thousand lines of ANSI C, of which

almost two thousand are generated by yacc. Finally, Lua is extensible. In its design, the addition of many different features has been replaced by the creation of a few meta mechanisms that allow programmers to implement those features themselves. These meta mechanisms are: dynamic associative arrays, reflexive facilities, and fallbacks.

Dynamic associative arrays directly implement a multitude of data types, like ordinary arrays, records, sets, and bags. They also lever the data description power of the language, by means of constructors.

Reflexive facilities allow the creation of highly polymorphic parts. Persistence and multiple name spaces are examples of features not directly present in Lua, but that can be easily implemented in Lua itself using reflexive facilities.

Finally, although Lua has a fixed syntax, fallbacks can extend the meaning of many syntactical constructions. For instance, fallbacks can be used to implement different kinds of *inheritance*, a feature not present in Lua.

2 AN OVERVIEW OF LUA

This section contains a brief description of the main concepts in Lua. Some examples of actual code are included, to give a flavor of the language. A complete definition of the language can be found in its reference manual [7].

Lua is a general purpose embedded programming language designed to support procedural programming with data description facilities. Being an embedded language, Lua has no notion of a "main" program; it only works embedded in a host client. Lua is provided as a library of C functions to be linked to host applications. The host can invoke functions in the library to execute a piece of code in Lua, write and read Lua variables, and register C functions to be called by Lua code. Moreover, fallbacks can be specified to be called whenever Lua does not know how to proceed. In this way, Lua can be augmented to cope with rather different domains, thus creating customized programming languages sharing a single syntactical framework [8]. It is in this sense that Lua is a language framework. On the other hand, it is very easy to write an interactive, stand alone interpreter for Lua (Figure 1).

```
#include <stdio.h>
#include "lua.h"
                              /* lua header file */
#include "lualib.h"
                              /* extra libraries (optional) */
int main (int argc, char *argv[])
  char line[BUFSIZ];
                             /* opens I/O library (optional) */
  iolib_open ();
  strlib_open ();
                             /* opens string lib (optional) */
  mathlib_open ();
                             /* opens math lib (optional) */
  while (gets(line) != 0)
     lua_dostring(line);
}
```

Figure 1: An interactive interpreter for Lua

All statements in Lua are executed in a global environment, which keeps all global variables and functions. This environment is initialized at the beginning of the host program and persists until its end.

The unit of execution of Lua is called a *chunk*. A chunk may contain statements and function definitions. When a chunk is executed, first all its functions and statements are compiled, and the functions added to the global environment; then the statements are executed in sequential order.

Figure 2 shows an example of how Lua can be used as a very simple configuration language. This code defines three global variables and assigns values to them. Lua is a dynamically typed language:

variables do not have types; only values do. All values carry their own type. Therefore, there are no type definitions in Lua.

```
width = 420
height = width*3/2 -- ensures 3/2 aspect ratio
color = "blue"
```

Figure 2: A very simple configuration file

More powerful configurations can be written using control flow and function definitions. Lua uses a traditional Pascal-like syntax, with reserved words and explicitly terminated blocks; semicolons are optional. Such syntax is familiar, robust, and easily parsed. A small example is presented in Figure 3. Notice that functions can return multiple values, and multiple assignments can be used to collect these values. Thus, parameter passing by reference, always a source of small semantic difficulties, can be discarded from the language.

Figure 3: Configuration file using functions

Functions in Lua are *first class* values. A function definition creates a value of type **function**, and assigns this value to a global variable (**Bound**, in Figure 3). Like any other value, function values can be stored in variables, passed as arguments to other functions and returned as results. This feature greatly simplifies the implementation of object-oriented facilities, as will be seen later in this section.

Besides the basic types number (floats) and string, and the type function, Lua provides three other data types: nil, userdata, and table. Whenever explicit type checking is needed, the primitive function type may be used; it returns a string describing the type of its argument.

The type nil has a single value, also called nil, whose main property is to be different from any other value. Before the first assignment, the value of a variable is nil. Therefore, uninitialized variables, a major source of programming errors, do not exist in Lua. Using nil in a context where an actual value is needed (for instance, in an arithmetic expression) results in an execution error, alerting the programmer that the variable was not properly initialized.

The type userdata is provided to allow arbitrary host data, represented as void* C pointers, to be stored in Lua variables. The only valid operations on values of this type are assignment and equality test.

Finally, the type table implements associative arrays, that is, arrays that can be indexed not only with integers, but with strings, reals, tables, and function values.

Associative arrays

Associative arrays are a powerful language construct; many algorithms are simplified to the point of triviality because the required data structures and algorithms for searching them are implicitly provided by the language [9]. Most typical data containers, like ordinary arrays, sets, bags, and symbol tables,

can be directly implemented by tables. Tables can also simulate records by simply using field names as indices. Lua supports this representation by providing a.name as syntactic sugar for a ["name"].

Unlike other languages that implement associative arrays, such as AWK [10], Tcl [11], and Perl [12], tables in Lua are not bound to a variable name; instead, they are dynamically created objects that can be manipulated much like pointers in conventional languages. The disadvantage of this choice is that a table must be explicitly created before used. The advantage is that tables can freely refer to other tables, and therefore have expressive power to model recursive data types, and to create generic graph structures, possibly with cycles. As an example, Figure 4 shows how to build linked lists in Lua.

```
list = {}
current = list
i = 0
while i < 10 do
   current.value = i
   current = current.next
   i = i+1
end
current.value = i
current.value = i
current.value = i</pre>
```

Figure 4: A circular linked list in Lua

Lua provides a number of interesting ways for creating a table. The simplest form is the expression {}, which returns a new empty table. A more descriptive way, which creates a table and initializes some fields, is shown below; the syntax is somewhat inspired in the BibTEX database format [13]:

```
window1 = \{x = 200, y = 300, foreground = "blue"\}
```

This command creates a table, initializes its fields x, y, and foreground, and assigns it to the variable window1. Note that tables need not be homogeneous; they can simultaneously store values of all types. A similar syntax can be used to create lists:

```
colors = {"blue", "yellow", "red", "green", "black"}
```

This statement is equivalent to:

```
colors = {}
colors[1] = "blue"; colors[2] = "yellow"; colors[3] = "red"
colors[4] = "green"; colors[5] = "black"
```

Sometimes, more powerful constructor facilities are needed. Instead of trying to provide everything, Lua provides a simple constructor mechanism. Constructors are written name{...}, which is just syntactic sugar for name({...}); that is, a table is created, initialized, and passed as parameter to a function. This function can do whatever initialization is needed, such as (dynamic) type checking, initialization of absent fields, and auxiliary data structures update (even in the host program). Typically, the constructor function is pre-defined, in C or in Lua, but often configuration users are not aware that the constructor is a function; they simply write something like:

```
window1 = Window{ x = 200, y = 300, foreground = "blue" }
```

and think about "windows" and other high level abstractions. Thus, although Lua is dynamically typed, it provides user controlled type constructors.

Reflexive facilities

Another powerful mechanism of Lua is its ability to traverse tables, using the built-in function next. When called with nil, this function returns a first index of a given table, and the value associated to this index; when called with an index, it returns a next index and its value. The indices are retrieved in an arbitrary order; a nil index signals the end of the traversal. As an example of the use of Lua's traversal facilities, Figure 5 shows a routine for cloning objects. The local variable i runs over the indices of the object o, while v receives their values. These values, associated to their corresponding indices, are stored in a local table new_o.

```
function clone (o)
  local new_o = {} -- creates a new object
  local i, v = next(o,nil) -- get first index of "o" and its value
  while i do
    new_o[i] = v -- store them in new table
    i, v = next(o,i) -- get next index and its value
  end
  return new_o
end
```

Figure 5: Function to clone a generic object

The same way next traverses a table, a related function, nextvar, traverses the global variables of Lua. Figure 6 presents a function that saves the global environment of Lua in a table. As in function clone, a local variable n runs over the names of all global variables, while v receives their values, which are stored in a local table env. On exit, the function save returns this table, which can be later given to function restore to restore the environment (Figure 7). This function has two phases. First, the whole current environment is erased, including predefined functions. Then, local variables n and v run over the indices and values of the given table, storing these values in the corresponding global variables. A tricky point is that the functions called by restore must be kept in local variables, because all global names are erased.

Figure 6: Function to save Lua environment

Although it is an interesting example, the manipulation of the global environment in Lua is scarcely needed, since tables, used as objects, provide a better way to keep multiple environments.

Support for object oriented programming

Because functions are first class values, table fields can refer to functions. This property allows the implementation of some interesting object-oriented facilities, which are made easier by syntactic sugar.

```
function restore (env)
 -- save some built-in functions before erasing global environment
 local nextvar, next, setglobal = nextvar, next, setglobal
  -- erase all global variables
 local n, v = nextvar(nil)
  while n do
    setglobal(n, nil)
   n, v = nextvar(n)
  end
  -- restore old values
 n, v = next(env, nil)
                             -- get first index; v = env[n]
  while n do
  setglobal(n, v)
                             -- set global variable with name n
  n, v = next(env, n)
  end
end
```

Figure 7: Function to restore a Lua environment

First, method definitions can be written as

That is, an anonymous function is created and stored in a table field; moreover, this function has a hidden parameter called **self**.

Second, a method call can be written as

```
receiver:method(params)
which is translated to
receiver.method(receiver,params)
```

In words, the receiver of the method is passed as its first argument, giving the expected meaning to the parameter self.

It is worthwhile to note some characteristics of the above construction. First, it does not provide information hiding. So, purists may (correctly) claim that an important part of object orientation is missing. Second, it does not provide classes; each object carries its operations. Nevertheless, classes can be simulated using inheritance, as is common in other prototype based languages, like Self [14]. However, before discussing inheritance, it is necessary to discuss fallbacks.

3 FALLBACKS

Being an untyped language, Lua has a semantics with many run-time error conditions. Examples are arithmetic operations applied to non numerical operands, trying to index a non table value, or trying to call a non function value. Instead of halting in these situations, Lua allows programmers to set their

own functions to handle error conditions; such functions are called *fallback functions*. Fallbacks are also used to provide hooks to handle other situations that are not strictly error conditions, such as accessing an absent field in a table and signaling garbage collection.

To set a fallback function, the programmer calls the function setfallback, with two arguments: a string identifying the fallback, and the new function to be called whenever the corresponding condition occurs. Function setfallback returns the old fallback function, so programs may chain fallbacks for different kinds of objects.

Lua supports the following fallbacks, identified by the given strings:

- "arith", "order", "concat" These fallbacks are called when an operation is applied to invalid operands. They receive three arguments: the two operands and a string describing the offended operator ("add", "sub", ...). Their return value is the final result of the operation. The default functions for these fallbacks issue an error.
- "index" When Lua tries to retrieve the value of an index not present in a table, this fallback is called. It receives as arguments the table and the index. Its return value is the final result of the indexing operation. The default function returns nil.
- "gettable", "settable" Called when Lua tries to read or write the value of an index in a non table value. The default functions issue an error.
- "function" Called when Lua tries to call a non function value. It receives as arguments the non function value and the arguments given in the original call. Its return values are the final results of the call operation. The default function issues an error.
- "gc" Called during the garbage collection. It receives as argument the table being collected, and nil to signal the end of garbage collection. The default function does nothing.

Using fallbacks

Figure 8 shows an example that uses fallbacks to allow a more object oriented style of interpreting binary operators. When this fallback is set, expressions like a+b, where a is a table, are executed as a:add(b). Notice the use of the global variable oldFallback to chain fallback functions.

```
function dispatch (receiver, parameter, operator)
  if type(receiver) == "table" then
    return receiver[operator](receiver, parameter)
  else
    return oldFallback(receiver, parameter, operator)
  end
end

oldFallback = setfallback("arith", dispatch)
```

Figure 8: An example of fallbacks

Another unusual facility provided by fallbacks is the reuse of Lua's parser. Many applications would benefit from an arithmetic expression parser, but do not include one because not everyone has the required expertise or the inclination to write a parser from scratch or use a parser generator such as yacc. Figure 9 shows the complete implementation of an expression parser using fallbacks. This program reads an arithmetic expression on the variables a, \ldots, z , and outputs the series of primitive operations needed to evaluate the expression, using variables $z1, z2, \ldots$ as temporary variables. For example, the code generated for the expression

```
(a*a+b*b)*(a*a-b*b)/(a*a+b*b+c)+(a*(b*b)*c)
```

```
z1=mul(a,a) z2=mul(b,b) z3=add(z1,z2)
z4=sub(z1,z2) z5=mul(z3,z4) z6=add(z3,c)
z7=div(z5,z6) z8=mul(a,z2) z9=mul(z8,c)
z10=add(z7,z9)
```

The main part of this program is the function arithfb, which is set as a fallback for arithmetic operations. Function create is used to initialize the variables a, ..., z with tables, each with a field name containing the variable name. After this initialization, a loop reads lines containing arithmetic expressions, builds an assignment to the variable E and passes it to the Lua interpreter, calling dostring. Every time the interpreter tries to execute code like a*a, it calls the "arith" fallback, since the value of a is a table, not a number. The fallback creates a temporary variable to store a symbolic representation of the result of each primitive arithmetic operation.

Although small, this code actually performs global common sub-expression identification and generates optimized code. Notice how a*a+b*b and a*a-b*b are both evaluated based on a single evaluation of a*a and b*b. Notice also that a*a+b*b is evaluated once only. Optimization is done simply by caching previously computed quantities in a table Z, indexed by a textual representation of the primitive operations, whose values are the temporary variables containing the results. For example, the value of Z["mul(a,a)"] is z1.

The code in Figure 9 can be easily modified to handle commutativity of addition and multiplication and anti-commutativity of subtraction and division. It is also easy to change it to output postfix representations or other formats.

In a real application, the variables a, ..., z would represent application objects, such as complex numbers, matrices, or even images, and the "arith" fallback would call application functions to perform the actual computation on these objects. Thus, the main use of Lua's parser is to allow programmers to use familiar arithmetic expressions to represent complex calculations.

Inheritance via fallbacks

Certainly, one of the most interesting uses of fallbacks is in implementing inheritance in Lua. Simple inheritance allows an object to look for the value of an absent field in another object, called its parent; in particular, this field can be a method. This mechanism is a kind of object inheritance, in contrast to the more traditional class inheritance, adopted in Smalltalk and C++. One way to implement simple inheritance in Lua is to store the parent object in a distinguished field, called parent for instance, and set an index fallback function as shown in Figure 10. This code defines a function Inherit and sets it as the "index" fallback. Whenever Lua attempts to access a field that is absent in an object, the fallback mechanism calls the function Inherit. This function first checks whether the object has a field parent containing a table value. If so, it attempts to access the desired field in this parent object. If this field is not present in the parent, the fallback will be automatically called again; this process is repeated "upwards" until a value for the field is found or the parent chain ends.

The above scheme allows endless variations. For instance, only methods could be inherited, or only fields starting with an underscore. Many forms of multiple inheritance can also be implemented. Among them, a frequently used form is double inheritance. In this model, whenever a field is not found in the parent hierarchy, the search continues through an alternative parent, usually called "godparent". In most cases, one extra parent is enough. Moreover, double inheritance can model generic multiple inheritance. For instance, in the example below a inherits from a1, a2, and a3, in this order:

```
a = {parent = a1, godparent = {parent = a2, godparent = a3}}
```

Another interesting kind of inheritance is cross-language inheritance. To avoid duplicating host data structures in Lua, a program can use either the "index" fallback on Lua tables, or the fallback "gettable" on non-table values, such as userdata, to access fields in C structs directly from Lua. Thus, host data can be accessed directly, using an intuitive record syntax, without creating an access function for each exported data item in the host.

```
n=0
                                -- counter of temporary variables
Z=\{\}
                               -- table of temporary variables
function arithfb(a,b,op)
local i=op .. "(" .. a.name .. "," .. b.name .. ")"
 if Z[i]==nil then
                               -- expression not seen yet
   n=n+1
   Z[i]=create("z"..n)
                               -- save result in cache
   print(Z[i].name ..'='..i)
 return Z[i]
end
setfallback("arith",arithfb)
                               -- set arithmetic fallback
function create(v)
                               -- create symbolic variable
 local t={name=v}
 setglobal(v,t)
 return t
end
create("a") create("b") create("c") ... create("z")
while 1 do
                                -- read expressions
 local s=read()
 if (s==nil) then exit() end
 dostring("E="..s)
                               -- execute fake assignment
 print(s.."="..E.name.."\n")
end
```

Figure 9: An optimizing arithmetic expression compiler in Lua

4 THE USE OF LUA IN REAL APPLICATIONS

TeCGraf is a research and development laboratory at the Pontifical Catholic University in Rio de Janeiro (PUC-Rio) with many industrial partners. Some forty programmers at TeCGraf have used Lua in the past two years to develop several substantial products. This section describes some of these uses.

Configurable report generator for lithology profiles

As mentioned in the introduction, Lua initially arose for supporting two different applications that had their own, but limited, extension languages. One of these applications is a tool for visualizing lithology profiles obtained from geological probes. Its main characteristic is to allow the user to configure profile layout, combining instances of objects and specifying the data to be shown. The program supports several kinds of objects, such as continuous curves, histograms, lithology representation, scales, etc.

To build a layout, users may write Lua code describing these objects, like in Figure 11. The application itself also has Lua code that allows the creation of such descriptions by means of a graphical user interface. This facility was build over the EDG framework, described below.

Storing structured graphical metafiles

Another important use of Lua is for the storage of structured graphical metafiles. The generic drawing editor TeCDraw, developed by TeCGraf, saves metafiles containing high level descriptions, in Lua, of

Figure 10: Implementing simple inheritance in Lua

```
Grid{
  name = "log",
  log = TRUE,
  h_step = 25,
  v_step = 25,
  v_tick = 5,
  step_line = Line {color = RED, width = SIMPLE},
  tick_line = Line {color = CORAL}
}
```

Figure 11: Description of a lithology profile object in Lua

the graphic objects that compose the drawing. The code excerpt below illustrates these descriptions:

```
line {
    x = { 0.0, 1.0 },
    y = { 5.0, 8.0 },
    color = RED
}
text {
    x = 0.8,
    y = 0.5,
    text = 'an example of text',
    color = BLUE
}
circle {
    x = 1.0,
    y = 1.0,
    r = 5.0
}
```

Such generic structured metafiles bring several benefits for development:

• As a direct consequence, the Lua interpreter can be used to load and parse the metafile; the editor only provides functions for holding Lua objects and converting them to the corresponding application objects.

- The structured description with Lua syntax makes the metafile editable by humans: it is easy to identify and modify an object using conventional text editors.
- Moreover, since each object is easily identified, it can be individually manipulated. This feature is explored by the EDG system described below, implementing mechanisms to support active graphic objects.
- Finally, the Lua metafile allows the instantiation of procedural objects. As an example, it is possible to describe curves using mathematical expressions.

High level, generic graphical data entry

Lua features are also heavily exploited in the implementation of EDG, a system for supporting the development of data entry programs, with high abstraction level. The system provides manipulation of interface objects (such as buttons, menus, lists, etc) and graphic objects (such as lines, circles, and groups of primitives). Hence, programmers can build sophisticated interface dialogs in a high abstraction programming level. Programmers can also associate callback actions to graphic objects, thus creating active objects that react procedurally to user input.

The EDG system uses the Lua fallback feature for implementing double inheritance, as explained above. Thus, new interface and graphic objects can be built, inheriting original object behavior.

The EDG system has been used in the development of several data entry programs. Since it incorporates the manipulation of graphical representation, it is well suited for implementing engineering pre-processors. In many engineering systems, the complete analysis is divided in three steps: the data entry, called pre-processing; the analysis itself, called processing or simulation; and the result report and verification, called post-processing. The data entry task can be made easier by drawing on the screen a graphical representation of the data that must be specified as input to the analysis. For such applications, the EDG system is extremely helpful and provides a fast development tool for customized data entry. These graphical data entry tools have given new life to the legacy code of batch simulation programs.

Generic attribute configuration for finite element meshes

Another engineering area where Lua is being used is the generation of finite element meshes. In such applications, the role of Lua is to provide support for attribute configuration. A finite element mesh is composed by nodes and elements, which decompose the domain of analysis. To complete the model, physical properties (attributes) must be associated to nodes and elements, such as material type, support conditions and loading cases. The set of attributes that must be specified varies widely according to the analysis to be done. Thus, to implement versatile finite element mesh generators, it is recommended that the attributes remain configurable by the user, and not hard coded in the program.

For providing this kind of configuration support, there are currently two proposals using Lua. The first configures attributes with description mechanisms: users describe the properties and their parameters. The second is an object oriented approach: users create specific properties deriving from pre-defined core classes. Both proposals have been implemented and seem to be successful, and Lua provided adequate support for both approaches.

5 RELATED WORK

This section discusses some other extension languages, and compares them with Lua. There is no intention of being comprehensive; instead, some representatives of the current trends in extension languages have been selected: Scheme, Tcl, and Python. A comprehensive list of embedded languages is available in the Internet [15]. This section also compares the fallback mechanism with some other language mechanisms.

Lisp dialects, particularly Scheme, have always been a popular choice for extension languages, for their simple, easily parsed syntax and built-in extensibility [8, 16, 17]. For instance, a major part of the text editor Emacs is actually written in its own variant of Lisp; several other text editors have followed

the same path. There are currently many implementations of Scheme in the form of libraries, especially designed to be used as an embedded language (for instance, libscheme [16], OScheme [18], and Elk [3]). However, Lisp cannot be called user-friendly when it comes to customization. Its syntax is rather crude for non-programmers. Moreover, few implementations of Lisp or Scheme are truly portable.

Another very popular extension language nowadays is Tcl [11]. Undoubtedly, one of the reasons for its success is the existence of Tk, a powerful Tcl toolkit for building graphical user interfaces. Tcl has a very primitive syntax, which greatly simplifies its interpreter, but also complicates writing even slightly complex constructions. For example, the Tcl code to double the value of a variable A is set A [expr A*2]. Tcl supports a single primitive type, string. This fact, added to the absence of pre-compilation, makes Tcl rather inefficient, even for an extension language. A simple test shows that a procedure call with no arguments, in Tcl 7.3 running in a Sparcstation 1, costs around 44μ s, while the increment of a global variable takes 76μ s. In Lua v. 2.1, the same operations cost 6μ s and 4μ s, respectively.

Tcl does not have built-in control structures, such as whiles and if s. Instead, control structures are programmable via delayed evaluation, as in Smalltalk. Although powerful and elegant, programmable control structures can lead to very cryptic programs, and are seldom used in practice. Moreover, they often bring a high performance penalty.

Python [19] has also been proposed as an extension language. Although it is an interesting new language, there is, according to its own author [20], still a need for "improved support for embedding Python in other applications, e.g., by renaming most global symbols to have a 'Py' prefix". Python is not a tiny language, and has many features not necessary in extension languages, like modules and exception handling. These features add extra cost to applications using the language.

Lua has been designed to combine the best of existing languages in order to fulfill its aim as an extensible extension language. Like Tcl, Lua is a small library, with a simple interface to C. As already noted, the whole library is around six thousand lines of ANSI C, and its interface is a single header file with 100 lines. Unlike Tcl, however, Lua is pre-compiled to a standard bytecode intermediate form. Like Lisp, Lua has a single data structure mechanism (tables), powerful enough to efficiently implement most data structures. Finally, like Python, Lua has a clean but familiar syntax, and a built-in notion of objects.

The fallback mechanism presented in Lua can be viewed as a kind of exception handling mechanism with resumption [21]. However, the dynamic nature of Lua allows its use in many cases where a statically typed language would issue an error at compile time; both examples presented above are of this kind. Three particular fallbacks, "arith", "order" and "concat", are mainly used to implement overloading. In particular, the example in Figure 9 could be readily translated to other languages with overloading, like Ada [22] or C++ [23]. However, because of its dynamic nature, fallbacks are more flexible than exception handling or overloading mechanisms. On the other hand, some authors [24] argue that programs that use these mechanisms tend to be difficult to verify and to understand; these difficulties are worsened when using fallbacks. Therefore, fallbacks should be used with care and moderation.

6 CONCLUSION

The increasing demand for configuration applications is changing the structure of programs. Nowadays, many programs are written in two different languages: one for writing a powerful "virtual machine", and another for writing single programs for this machine. Lua is a language designed specifically for the latter task.

The ability to load and execute Lua programs at run-time has proved to be a major component in making configuration an easier task for both users and developers. Moreover, the existence of a single general purpose extension language discourages the multiplication of incompatible languages and encourages a better design, one that clearly separates the main technology contained in an application from its configuration issues. Users also benefit from the existence of a single extension language, because they need only learn one syntactical framework.

Besides being an extension language, Lua also presents some unusual mechanisms which make it highly extensible. Among these mechanisms, we emphasize the following points:

Associative arrays are a strong unifying data constructor. Moreover, it allows more efficient algorithms

than other unifying constructors like strings or lists. Unlike other languages that implement associative arrays [10, 11, 12], tables in Lua are dynamically created objects with an identity. This greatly simplifies the use of tables as objects, and the addition of object-oriented facilities.

- Fallbacks allow programmers to extend the meaning of most built-in operations. Particularly, with the fallbacks for indexing operations, different kinds of inheritance can be added to the language, while fallbacks for "arith" and other operators can implement dynamic overloading.
- Reflexive facilities data traversal facilities can produce highly polymorphic code. Many operations that must be supplied as primitives in other systems, or coded individually for each new type, can be programmed in a single generic form in Lua. Examples are routines for cloning objects and for manipulating the global environment.

Lua has been used in a number of research projects, as well as in many production systems. The implementation of Lua described in this paper is available in the Internet at the following addresses:

```
ftp://ftp.icad.puc-rio.br/pub/lua/lua-2.1.tar.gz
http://www.inf.puc-rio.br/projetos/roberto/lua.html
```

Acknowledgements

We would like to thank the staff at ICAD and TeCGraf for using and testing Lua, and John Roll, from Harvard, for valuable suggestions by mail concerning fallbacks in a previous version of Lua. The industrial applications mentioned in the text are being developed in partnership with the research centers at PETROBRAS (The Brazilian Oil Company) and ELETROBRAS (The Brazilian Electricity Company). The authors are partially supported by research and development grants from the Brazilian government (CNPq and CAPES).

References

- [1] B. Ryan, 'Scripts unbounded', Byte, 15(8), 235–240 (1990).
- [2] N. Franks, 'Adding an extension language to your software', Dr. Dobb's Journal, 16(9), 34-43 (1991).
- [3] O. Laumann and C. Bormann. Elk: The extension language kit. ftp://ftp.cs.indiana.edu:/pub/scheme-repository/imp/elk-2.2.tar.gz, Technische Universität Berlin, Germany.
- [4] J. Ousterhout, 'Tcl: an embeddable command language', Proc. of the Winter 1990 USENIX Conference. USENIX Association, 1990.
- [5] D. Cowan, R. Ierusalimschy, and T. Stepien, 'Programming environments for end-users', 12th World Computer Congress. IFIP, Sep 1992, pp. 54-60 Vol. A-14.
- [6] L. H. Figueiredo, C. S. Souza, M. Gattass, and L. C. Coelho, 'Geração de interfaces para captura de dados sobre desenhos', V SIBGRAPI, 1992, pp. 169-175.
- [7] R. Ierusalimschy, L. H. Figueiredo, and W. Celes, 'Reference manual of the programming language Lua version 2.1', *Monografias em Ciência da Computação ?/95*, PUC-Rio, Rio de Janeiro, Brazil, 1995. (available by ftp at ftp.inf.puc-rio.br/pub/docs/techreports).
- [8] B. Beckman, 'A scheme for little languages in interactive graphics', Software, Practice & Experience, 21, 187-207 (1991).
- [9] J. Bentley, More programming pearls, Addison-Wesley, 1988.
- [10] A. V. Aho, B. W. Kerninghan, and P. J. Weinberger, The AWK programming language, Addison-Wesley, 1988.

- [11] J. K. Ousterhout, Tcl and the Tk Toolkit, Addison-Wesley, 1994.
- [12] L. Wall and R. L. Schwartz, Programming perl, O'Reilly & Associates, Inc., 1991.
- [13] L. Lamport, IATEX: A Document Preparation System, Addison-Wesley, 1986.
- [14] D. Ungar et al., 'Self: The power of simplicity', Sigplan Notices, 22(12), 227-242 (1987). (OOP-SLA'87).
- [15] C. Nahaboo. A catalog of embedded languages. ftp://koala.inria.fr:/pub/Embedded InterpretersCatalog.txt.
- [16] B. W. Benson Jr., 'libscheme: Scheme as a C Library', Proceedings of the 1994 USENIX Symposium on Very High Level Languages. USENIX, October 1994, pp. 7-19.
- [17] A. Sah and J. Blow, 'A new architecture for the implementation of scripting languages', Proc. USENIX Symposium on Very High Level Languages, 1994.
- [18] A. Baird-Smith. OScheme manual. http://www.inria.fr/koala/abaird/oscheme/manual.html, 1995.
- [19] G. van Rossum, 'An introduction to Python for UNIX/C programmers', *Proc. of the NLUUG najaarsconferentie*. Dutch UNIX users group, 1993. (ftp://ftp.cwi.nl/pub/python/nluug-paper.ps).
- [20] G. van Rossum. Python frequently asked questions. ftp://ftp.cwi.nl/pub/python/python-FAQ, March 1995. version 1.20++.
- [21] S. Yemini and D. Berry, 'A modular verifiable exception handling mechanism', ACM Transactions on Programming Languages and Systems, 7(2) (1985).
- [22] ANSI, Ada Programming Language, 1983. ANSI/MIL-STD 1815A.
- [23] B. Stroustrup, The C++ Programming Language, Prentice-Hall, second edition, 1992.
- [24] A. Black, 'Exception handling: the case against', Ph.D. Thesis, University of Oxford, 1982.