The Java® Virtual Machine Specification

Java SE 7 Edition

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Preface to the Java SE 7 Edition

THE Java® SE 7 Edition of *The Java Virtual Machine Specification* incorporates all the changes that have been made to the Java Virtual Machine since the Second Edition in 1999. In addition, numerous corrections and clarifications have been made to align with popular implementations of the Java Virtual Machine, and with concepts common to the Java Virtual Machine and the Java programming language.

Readers may send feedback about errors and ambiguities in *The Java Virtual Machine Specification* to jvms-comments_ww@oracle.com.

The Java SE 5.0 platform in 2004 brought momentous changes to the Java programming language but had a relatively muted effect on the design of the Java Virtual Machine. Additions were made to the class file format to support new Java programming language features such as generics and variable arity methods.

The Java SE 6 platform in 2006 saw no changes to the Java programming language but an entirely new approach to bytecode verification in the Java Virtual Machine. Eva Rose, in her Master's Thesis, proposed a radical revision of bytecode verification in the context of the Java Card platform. This led to an implementation for Java ME CLDC, and eventually to the revision of the Java SE verification process documented in Chapter 4.

Sheng Liang implemented the Java ME CLDC verifier. Antero Taivalsaari led the overall specification of Java ME CLDC and Gilad Bracha was responsible for specifying the verifier. Alessandro Coglio's analysis of bytecode verification was the most extensive, realistic, and thorough study of the topic, and contributed greatly to the specification. Wei Tao, together with Frank Yellin, Tim Lindholm, and Gilad Bracha, implemented the Prolog verifier that formed the basis for the specification in both Java ME and Java SE. Wei then implemented the specification "for real" in the HotSpot JVM. Later, Mingyao Yang improved the design and specification, and implemented the final version that shipped in the Reference Implementation of Java SE 6. The specification also benefited from the efforts of the JSR 202 Expert Group: Peter Burka, Alessandro Coglio, Sanghoon Jin, Christian Kemper, Larry Rau, Eva Rose, and Mark Stolz.

The Java SE 7 platform in 2011 made good on the promise given in the First Edition of *The Java Virtual Machine Specification* in 1997: "In the future, we will consider bounded extensions to the Java virtual machine to provide better support for other languages." Gilad Bracha, in his work on hotswapping, anticipated the burden of

the Java Virtual Machine's static type system on implementers of dynamically-typed languages. Consequently, the *invokedynamic* instruction and its supporting infrastructure were developed by John Rose and the JSR 292 Expert Group: Ola Bini, Rémi Forax, Dan Heidinga, Fredrik Öhrström, and Jochen Theodorou, with special contributions from Charlie Nutter and Christian Thalinger.

More people than we can mention here have, over time, contributed to the design and implementation of the Java Virtual Machine. The excellent performance we see in the Java Virtual Machine implementations of today would never have been possible without the technological foundation laid by David Ungar and his colleagues at the Self project at Sun Labs. This technology took a convoluted path, from Self on through the Animorphic Smalltalk VM to eventually become the HotSpot JVM. Lars Bak and Urs Hölzle are the two people who were present through all these stages, and are more responsible than anyone else for the high performance we take for granted in Java Virtual Machine implementations today.

This specification has been significantly improved thanks to contributions from Martin Buchholz, Brian Goetz, Paul Hohensee, David Holmes, Karen Kinnear, Keith McGuigan, Jeff Nisewanger, Mark Reinhold, Naoto Sato, and Bill Pugh, as well as Uday Dhanikonda, Janet Koenig, Adam Messinger, John Pampuch, Georges Saab, and Bernard Traversat. Jon Courtney and Roger Riggs helped to ensure this specification is applicable to Java ME as much as Java SE. Leonid Arbouzov, Stanislav Avzan, Yuri Gaevsky, Ilya Mukhin, Sergey Reznick, and Kirill Shirokov have done outstanding work in the Java Compatibility Kit to ensure this specification is both testable and tested.

Gilad Bracha
Los Altos, California
Alex Buckley
Santa Clara, California
June, 2011

Preface to the Second Edition

THIS Second Edition of *The Java Virtual Machine Specification* brings the specification of the Java Virtual Machine up to date with the Java 2 platform v1.2. It also includes many corrections and clarifications that update the presentation of the specification without changing the logical specification itself. We have attempted to correct typos and errata (hopefully without introducing new ones) and to add more detail to the specification where it was vague or ambiguous. In particular, we corrected a number of inconsistencies between the First Editions of *The Java Virtual Machine Specification* and *The Java Language Specification*.

We thank the many readers who combed through the First Edition of this book and brought problems to our attention. Several individuals and groups deserve special thanks for pointing out problems or contributing directly to the new material.

Carla Schroer and her teams of compatibility testers in Cupertino, California, and Novosibirsk, Russia (with special thanks to Leonid Arbouzov and Alexei Kaigorodov) painstakingly wrote compatibility tests for each testable assertion in the First Edition. In the process they uncovered many places where the original specification was unclear or incomplete. Jeroen Vermeulen, Janice Shepherd, Peter Bertelsen, Roly Perera, Joe Darcy, and Sandra Loosemore have all contributed comments and feedback that have improved this edition. Marilyn Rash and Hilary Selby Polk of Addison Wesley Longman helped us to improve the readability and layout of this edition at the same time as we were incorporating all the technical changes.

Special thanks go to Gilad Bracha, who has brought a new level of rigor to the presentation and has been a major contributor to much of the new material, especially chapters 4 and 5. His dedication to "computational theology" and his commitment to resolving inconsistencies between *The Java Virtual Machine Specification* and *The Java Language Specification* have benefited this book tremendously.

Tim Lindholm
Palo Alto, California
Frank Yellin
Redwood City, California
April, 1999

Preface to the First Edition

The Java Virtual Machine Specification has been written to fully document the design of the Java Virtual Machine. It is essential for compiler writers who wish to target the Java Virtual Machine and for programmers who want to implement a compatible Java Virtual Machine.

The Java Virtual Machine is an abstract machine. References to the *Java Virtual Machine* throughout this specification refer to this abstract machine rather than to any specific implementation. This specification serves as documentation for a concrete implementation of the Java Virtual Machine only as a blueprint documents a house. An implementation of the Java Virtual Machine must embody this specification, but is constrained by it only where absolutely necessary. We intend that this specification should sufficiently document the Java Virtual Machine to make possible compatible clean-room implementations.

The virtual machine that evolved into the Java Virtual Machine was originally designed by James Gosling in 1992 to support the Oak programming language. The evolution into its present form occurred through the direct and indirect efforts of many people and spanned Sun's Green project, FirstPerson, Inc., the LiveOak project, the Java Products Group, JavaSoft, and the Java Software group at Sun.

This book began as internal project documentation edited by Kathy Walrath. It was then converted to HTML by Mary Campione and was made available on our Web site before being expanded into book form.

The creation of *The Java Virtual Machine Specification* owes much to the support of the Java Products Group led by General Manager Ruth Hennigar, to the efforts of series editor Lisa Friendly, and to editor Mike Hendrickson and his group at Addison-Wesley. We owe special thanks to Richard Tuck for his careful review of the manuscript. Particular thanks to Bill Joy whose comments, reviews, and guidance have contributed greatly to the completeness and accuracy of this book.

Tim Lindholm
Palo Alto, California
Frank Yellin
Redwood City, California
June, 1996

Introduction

1.1 A Bit of History

The Java® programming language is a general-purpose, concurrent, object-oriented language. Its syntax is similar to C and C++, but it omits many of the features that make C and C++ complex, confusing, and unsafe. The Java platform was initially developed to address the problems of building software for networked consumer devices. It was designed to support multiple host architectures and to allow secure delivery of software components. To meet these requirements, compiled code had to survive transport across networks, operate on any client, and assure the client that it was safe to run.

The popularization of the World Wide Web made these attributes much more interesting. Web browsers enabled millions of people to surf the Net and access media-rich content in simple ways. At last there was a medium where what you saw and heard was essentially the same regardless of the machine you were using and whether it was connected to a fast network or a slow modem.

Web enthusiasts soon discovered that the content supported by the Web's HTML document format was too limited. HTML extensions, such as forms, only highlighted those limitations, while making it clear that no browser could include all the features users wanted. Extensibility was the answer.

The HotJava browser first showcased the interesting properties of the Java programming language and platform by making it possible to embed programs inside HTML pages. Programs are transparently downloaded into the browser along with the HTML pages in which they appear. Before being accepted by the browser, programs are carefully checked to make sure they are safe. Like HTML pages, compiled programs are network- and host-independent. The programs behave the same way regardless of where they come from or what kind of machine they are being loaded into and run on.

1.2 The Java Virtual Machine INTRODUCTION

A Web browser incorporating the Java platform is no longer limited to a predetermined set of capabilities. Visitors to Web pages incorporating dynamic content can be assured that their machines cannot be damaged by that content. Programmers can write a program once, and it will run on any machine supplying a Java run-time environment.

1.2 The Java Virtual Machine

The Java Virtual Machine is the cornerstone of the Java platform. It is the component of the technology responsible for its hardware- and operating system-independence, the small size of its compiled code, and its ability to protect users from malicious programs.

The Java Virtual Machine is an abstract computing machine. Like a real computing machine, it has an instruction set and manipulates various memory areas at run time. It is reasonably common to implement a programming language using a virtual machine; the best-known virtual machine may be the P-Code machine of UCSD Pascal.

The first prototype implementation of the Java Virtual Machine, done at Sun Microsystems, Inc., emulated the Java Virtual Machine instruction set in software hosted by a handheld device that resembled a contemporary Personal Digital Assistant (PDA). Oracle's current implementations emulate the Java Virtual Machine on mobile, desktop and server devices, but the Java Virtual Machine does not assume any particular implementation technology, host hardware, or host operating system. It is not inherently interpreted, but can just as well be implemented by compiling its instruction set to that of a silicon CPU. It may also be implemented in microcode or directly in silicon.

The Java Virtual Machine knows nothing of the Java programming language, only of a particular binary format, the class file format. A class file contains Java Virtual Machine instructions (or *bytecodes*) and a symbol table, as well as other ancillary information.

For the sake of security, the Java Virtual Machine imposes strong syntactic and structural constraints on the code in a class file. However, any language with functionality that can be expressed in terms of a valid class file can be hosted by the Java Virtual Machine. Attracted by a generally available, machine-independent platform, implementors of other languages can turn to the Java Virtual Machine as a delivery vehicle for their languages.

INTRODUCTION Summary of Chapters

The Java Virtual Machine specified here is compatible with the Java SE 7 platform, and supports the Java programming language specified in *The Java Language Specification*, *Java SE 7 Edition*.

1.3 Summary of Chapters

The rest of this book is structured as follows:

- Chapter 2 gives an overview of the Java Virtual Machine architecture.
- Chapter 3 introduces compilation of code written in the Java programming language into the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine.
- Chapter 4 specifies the class file format, the hardware- and operating system-independent binary format used to represent compiled classes and interfaces.
- Chapter 5 specifies the start-up of the Java Virtual Machine and the loading, linking, and initialization of classes and interfaces.
- Chapter 6 specifies the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine, presenting the instructions in alphabetical order of opcode mnemonics.
- Chapter 7 gives a table of Java Virtual Machine opcode mnemonics indexed by opcode value.

In *The Java Virtual Machine Specification, Second Edition*, Chapter 2 gave an overview of the Java programming language that was intended to support the specification of the Java Virtual Machine but was not itself a part of the specification. In *The Java Virtual Machine Specification, Java SE 7 Edition*, the reader is referred to *The Java Language Specification, Java SE 7 Edition* for information about the Java programming language. References of the form: (JLS §x.y) indicate where this is necessary.

In *The Java Virtual Machine Specification, Second Edition*, Chapter 8 detailed the low-level actions that explained the interaction of Java Virtual Machine threads with a shared main memory. In *The Java Virtual Machine Specification, Java SE 7 Edition*, the reader is referred to Chapter 17 of *The Java Language Specification, Java SE 7 Edition* for information about threads and locks. Chapter 17 reflects *The Java Memory Model and Thread Specification* produced by the JSR 133 Expert Group.

1.3

1.4 Notation INTRODUCTION

1.4 Notation

Throughout this specification we refer to classes and interfaces drawn from the Java SE platform API. Whenever we refer to a class or interface (other than those declared in an example) using a single identifier N, the intended reference is to the class or interface named N in the package <code>java.lang</code>. We use the fully qualified name for classes or interfaces from packages other than <code>java.lang</code>.

Whenever we refer to a class or interface that is declared in the package <code>java</code> or any of its subpackages, the intended reference is to that class or interface as loaded by the bootstrap class loader (§5.3.1).

Whenever we refer to a subpackage of a package named java, the intended reference is to that subpackage as determined by the bootstrap class loader.

The use of fonts in this specification is as follows:

- A fixed width font is used for Java Virtual Machine data types, exceptions, errors, class file structures, Prolog code, and Java code fragments.
- *Italic* is used for Java Virtual Machine "assembly language", its opcodes and operands, as well as items in the Java Virtual Machine's run-time data areas. It is also used to introduce new terms and simply for emphasis.

Non-normative information, designed to clarify the specification, is given in smaller, indented text.

This is non-normative information. It provides intuition, rationale, advice, examples, etc.

The Structure of the Java Virtual Machine

THIS document specifies an abstract machine. It does not describe any particular implementation of the Java Virtual Machine.

To implement the Java Virtual Machine correctly, you need only be able to read the class file format and correctly perform the operations specified therein. Implementation details that are not part of the Java Virtual Machine's specification would unnecessarily constrain the creativity of implementors. For example, the memory layout of run-time data areas, the garbage-collection algorithm used, and any internal optimization of the Java Virtual Machine instructions (for example, translating them into machine code) are left to the discretion of the implementor.

All references to Unicode in this specification are given with respect to *The Unicode Standard*, *Version 6.0.0*, available at http://www.unicode.org/.

2.1 The class File Format

Compiled code to be executed by the Java Virtual Machine is represented using a hardware- and operating system-independent binary format, typically (but not necessarily) stored in a file, known as the class file format. The class file format precisely defines the representation of a class or interface, including details such as byte ordering that might be taken for granted in a platform-specific object file format.

Chapter 4, "The class File Format", covers the class file format in detail.

2.2 Data Types

Like the Java programming language, the Java Virtual Machine operates on two kinds of types: *primitive types* and *reference types*. There are, correspondingly, two kinds of values that can be stored in variables, passed as arguments, returned by methods, and operated upon: *primitive values* and *reference values*.

The Java Virtual Machine expects that nearly all type checking is done prior to run time, typically by a compiler, and does not have to be done by the Java Virtual Machine itself. Values of primitive types need not be tagged or otherwise be inspectable to determine their types at run time, or to be distinguished from values of reference types. Instead, the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine distinguishes its operand types using instructions intended to operate on values of specific types. For instance, *iadd*, *ladd*, *fadd*, and *dadd* are all Java Virtual Machine instructions that add two numeric values and produce numeric results, but each is specialized for its operand type: int, long, float, and double, respectively. For a summary of type support in the Java Virtual Machine instruction set, see §2.11.1.

The Java Virtual Machine contains explicit support for objects. An object is either a dynamically allocated class instance or an array. A reference to an object is considered to have Java Virtual Machine type reference. Values of type reference can be thought of as pointers to objects. More than one reference to an object may exist. Objects are always operated on, passed, and tested via values of type reference.

2.3 Primitive Types and Values

The primitive data types supported by the Java Virtual Machine are the *numeric* types, the boolean type (§2.3.4), and the returnAddress type (§2.3.3).

The numeric types consist of the *integral types* (§2.3.1) and the *floating-point types* (§2.3.2).

The integral types are:

- byte, whose values are 8-bit signed two's-complement integers, and whose default value is zero
- short, whose values are 16-bit signed two's-complement integers, and whose default value is zero

- int, whose values are 32-bit signed two's-complement integers, and whose default value is zero
- long, whose values are 64-bit signed two's-complement integers, and whose default value is zero
- char, whose values are 16-bit unsigned integers representing Unicode code points in the Basic Multilingual Plane, encoded with UTF-16, and whose default value is the null code point ('\u0000')

The floating-point types are:

- float, whose values are elements of the float value set or, where supported, the float-extended-exponent value set, and whose default value is positive zero
- double, whose values are elements of the double value set or, where supported, the double-extended-exponent value set, and whose default value is positive zero

The values of the boolean type encode the truth values true and false, and the default value is false.

The Java Virtual Machine Specification, First Edition did not consider boolean to be a Java Virtual Machine type. However, boolean values do have limited support in the Java Virtual Machine. The Java Virtual Machine Specification, Second Edition clarified the issue by treating boolean as a type.

The values of the returnAddress type are pointers to the opcodes of Java Virtual Machine instructions. Of the primitive types, only the returnAddress type is not directly associated with a Java programming language type.

2.3.1 Integral Types and Values

The values of the integral types of the Java Virtual Machine are:

- For byte, from -128 to 127 $(-2^7 \text{ to } 2^7 1)$, inclusive
- For short, from -32768 to 32767 (- 2^{15} to 2^{15} 1), inclusive
- For int, from -2147483648 to 2147483647 (-2^{31} to 2^{31} 1), inclusive
- \bullet For long, from -9223372036854775808 to 9223372036854775807 (-2 63 to 2 63 1), inclusive
- For char, from 0 to 65535 inclusive

2.3.2 Floating-Point Types, Value Sets, and Values

The floating-point types are float and double, which are conceptually associated with the 32-bit single-precision and 64-bit double-precision format IEEE 754 values and operations as specified in *IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic* (ANSI/IEEE Std. 754-1985, New York).

The IEEE 754 standard includes not only positive and negative sign-magnitude numbers, but also positive and negative zeros, positive and negative *infinities*, and a special Not-a-Number value (hereafter abbreviated as "NaN"). The NaN value is used to represent the result of certain invalid operations such as dividing zero by zero.

Every implementation of the Java Virtual Machine is required to support two standard sets of floating-point values, called the *float value set* and the *double value set*. In addition, an implementation of the Java Virtual Machine may, at its option, support either or both of two extended-exponent floating-point value sets, called the *float-extended-exponent value set* and the *double-extended-exponent value set*. These extended-exponent value sets may, under certain circumstances, be used instead of the standard value sets to represent the values of type float or double.

The finite nonzero values of any floating-point value set can all be expressed in the form $s \cdot m \cdot 2^{(e-N+1)}$, where s is +1 or -1, m is a positive integer less than 2N, and e is an integer between $E_{min} = -(2^{K-1}-2)$ and $E_{max} = 2^{K-1}-1$, inclusive, and where N and K are parameters that depend on the value set. Some values can be represented in this form in more than one way; for example, supposing that a value v in a value set might be represented in this form using certain values for s, m, and e, then if it happened that m were even and e were less than e0 in could halve e1 and increase e2 by 1 to produce a second representation for the same value e2. A representation in this form is called *normalized* if e2. Otherwise the representation is said to be *denormalized*. If a value in a value set cannot be represented in such a way that e2. Then the value is said to be a *denormalized* value, because it has no normalized representation.

The constraints on the parameters N and K (and on the derived parameters E_{min} and E_{max}) for the two required and two optional floating-point value sets are summarized in Table 2.1.

Parameter	float	float-extended- exponent	double	double-extended- exponent
N	24	24	53	53
K	8	≥ 11	11	≥ 15
E_{max}	+127	≥ +1023	+1023	≥+16383
E_{min}	-126	≤ -1022	-1022	≤ -16382

Table 2.1. Floating-point value set parameters

Where one or both extended-exponent value sets are supported by an implementation, then for each supported extended-exponent value set there is a specific implementation-dependent constant K, whose value is constrained by Table 2.1; this value K in turn dictates the values for E_{min} and E_{max} .

Each of the four value sets includes not only the finite nonzero values that are ascribed to it above, but also the five values positive zero, negative zero, positive infinity, negative infinity, and NaN.

Note that the constraints in Table 2.1 are designed so that every element of the float value set is necessarily also an element of the float-extended-exponent value set, the double value set, and the double-extended-exponent value set. Likewise, each element of the double value set is necessarily also an element of the double-extended-exponent value set. Each extended-exponent value set has a larger range of exponent values than the corresponding standard value set, but does not have more precision.

The elements of the float value set are exactly the values that can be represented using the single floating-point format defined in the IEEE 754 standard, except that there is only one NaN value (IEEE 754 specifies 2^{24} -2 distinct NaN values). The elements of the double value set are exactly the values that can be represented using the double floating-point format defined in the IEEE 754 standard, except that there is only one NaN value (IEEE 754 specifies 2^{53} -2 distinct NaN values). Note, however, that the elements of the float-extended-exponent and double-extended-exponent value sets defined here do *not* correspond to the values that can be represented using IEEE 754 single extended and double extended formats, respectively. This specification does not mandate a specific representation for the values of the floating-point value sets except where floating-point values must be represented in the class file format (§4.4.4, §4.4.5).

The float, float-extended-exponent, double, and double-extended-exponent value sets are not types. It is always correct for an implementation of the Java Virtual Machine to use an element of the float value set to represent a value of type float;

however, it may be permissible in certain contexts for an implementation to use an element of the float-extended-exponent value set instead. Similarly, it is always correct for an implementation to use an element of the double value set to represent a value of type double; however, it may be permissible in certain contexts for an implementation to use an element of the double-extended-exponent value set instead.

Except for NaNs, values of the floating-point value sets are *ordered*. When arranged from smallest to largest, they are negative infinity, negative finite values, positive and negative zero, positive finite values, and positive infinity.

Floating-point positive zero and floating-point negative zero compare as equal, but there are other operations that can distinguish them; for example, dividing 1.0 by 0.0 produces positive infinity, but dividing 1.0 by -0.0 produces negative infinity.

NaNs are *unordered*, so numerical comparisons and tests for numerical equality have the value false if either or both of their operands are NaN. In particular, a test for numerical equality of a value against itself has the value false if and only if the value is NaN. A test for numerical inequality has the value true if either operand is NaN.

2.3.3 The returnAddress Type and Values

The returnAddress type is used by the Java Virtual Machine's *jsr*, *ret*, and *jsr_w* instructions (§*jsr*, §*ret*, §*jsr_w*). The values of the returnAddress type are pointers to the opcodes of Java Virtual Machine instructions. Unlike the numeric primitive types, the returnAddress type does not correspond to any Java programming language type and cannot be modified by the running program.

2.3.4 The boolean Type

Although the Java Virtual Machine defines a boolean type, it only provides very limited support for it. There are no Java Virtual Machine instructions solely dedicated to operations on boolean values. Instead, expressions in the Java programming language that operate on boolean values are compiled to use values of the Java Virtual Machine int data type.

The Java Virtual Machine does directly support boolean arrays. Its *newarray* instruction (*§newarray*) enables creation of boolean arrays. Arrays of type boolean are accessed and modified using the byte array instructions *baload* and *bastore* (*§baload*, *§bastore*).

In Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation, boolean arrays in the Java programming language are encoded as Java Virtual Machine byte arrays, using 8 bits per boolean element.

The Java Virtual Machine encodes boolean array components using 1 to represent true and 0 to represent false. Where Java programming language boolean values are mapped by compilers to values of Java Virtual Machine type int, the compilers must use the same encoding.

2.4 Reference Types and Values

There are three kinds of reference types: class types, array types, and interface types. Their values are references to dynamically created class instances, arrays, or class instances or arrays that implement interfaces, respectively.

An array type consists of a *component type* with a single dimension (whose length is not given by the type). The component type of an array type may itself be an array type. If, starting from any array type, one considers its component type, and then (if that is also an array type) the component type of that type, and so on, eventually one must reach a component type that is not an array type; this is called the *element type* of the array type. The element type of an array type is necessarily either a primitive type, or a class type, or an interface type.

A reference value may also be the special null reference, a reference to no object, which will be denoted here by null. The null reference initially has no run-time type, but may be cast to any type. The default value of a reference type is null.

The Java Virtual Machine specification does not mandate a concrete value encoding null.

2.5 Run-Time Data Areas

The Java Virtual Machine defines various run-time data areas that are used during execution of a program. Some of these data areas are created on Java Virtual Machine start-up and are destroyed only when the Java Virtual Machine exits. Other data areas are per thread. Per-thread data areas are created when a thread is created and destroyed when the thread exits.

2.5.1 The pc Register

The Java Virtual Machine can support many threads of execution at once (JLS §17). Each Java Virtual Machine thread has its own pc (program counter) register. At any point, each Java Virtual Machine thread is executing the code of a single method, namely the current method (§2.6) for that thread. If that method is not native, the pc register contains the address of the Java Virtual Machine instruction currently being executed. If the method currently being executed by the thread is native, the value of the Java Virtual Machine's pc register is undefined. The Java Virtual Machine's pc register is wide enough to hold a returnAddress or a native pointer on the specific platform.

2.5.2 Java Virtual Machine Stacks

Each Java Virtual Machine thread has a private *Java Virtual Machine stack*, created at the same time as the thread. A Java Virtual Machine stack stores frames (§2.6). A Java Virtual Machine stack is analogous to the stack of a conventional language such as C: it holds local variables and partial results, and plays a part in method invocation and return. Because the Java Virtual Machine stack is never manipulated directly except to push and pop frames, frames may be heap allocated. The memory for a Java Virtual Machine stack does not need to be contiguous.

In *The Java Virtual Machine Specification, First Edition*, the Java Virtual Machine stack was known as the *Java stack*.

This specification permits Java Virtual Machine stacks either to be of a fixed size or to dynamically expand and contract as required by the computation. If the Java Virtual Machine stacks are of a fixed size, the size of each Java Virtual Machine stack may be chosen independently when that stack is created.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation may provide the programmer or the user control over the initial size of Java Virtual Machine stacks, as well as, in the case of dynamically expanding or contracting Java Virtual Machine stacks, control over the maximum and minimum sizes.

The following exceptional conditions are associated with Java Virtual Machine stacks:

- If the computation in a thread requires a larger Java Virtual Machine stack than is permitted, the Java Virtual Machine throws a StackOverflowError.
- If Java Virtual Machine stacks can be dynamically expanded, and expansion is attempted but insufficient memory can be made available to effect the expansion, or if insufficient memory can be made available to create the initial Java

Virtual Machine stack for a new thread, the Java Virtual Machine throws an OutOfMemoryError.

2.5.3 **Heap**

The Java Virtual Machine has a *heap* that is shared among all Java Virtual Machine threads. The heap is the run-time data area from which memory for all class instances and arrays is allocated.

The heap is created on virtual machine start-up. Heap storage for objects is reclaimed by an automatic storage management system (known as a *garbage collector*); objects are never explicitly deallocated. The Java Virtual Machine assumes no particular type of automatic storage management system, and the storage management technique may be chosen according to the implementor's system requirements. The heap may be of a fixed size or may be expanded as required by the computation and may be contracted if a larger heap becomes unnecessary. The memory for the heap does not need to be contiguous.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation may provide the programmer or the user control over the initial size of the heap, as well as, if the heap can be dynamically expanded or contracted, control over the maximum and minimum heap size.

The following exceptional condition is associated with the heap:

• If a computation requires more heap than can be made available by the automatic storage management system, the Java Virtual Machine throws an OutOfMemoryError.

2.5.4 Method Area

The Java Virtual Machine has a *method area* that is shared among all Java Virtual Machine threads. The method area is analogous to the storage area for compiled code of a conventional language or analogous to the "text" segment in an operating system process. It stores per-class structures such as the run-time constant pool, field and method data, and the code for methods and constructors, including the special methods (§2.9) used in class and instance initialization and interface initialization.

The method area is created on virtual machine start-up. Although the method area is logically part of the heap, simple implementations may choose not to either garbage collect or compact it. This version of the Java Virtual Machine specification does not mandate the location of the method area or the policies used to manage compiled code. The method area may be of a fixed size or may be expanded as

required by the computation and may be contracted if a larger method area becomes unnecessary. The memory for the method area does not need to be contiguous.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation may provide the programmer or the user control over the initial size of the method area, as well as, in the case of a varying-size method area, control over the maximum and minimum method area size.

The following exceptional condition is associated with the method area:

• If memory in the method area cannot be made available to satisfy an allocation request, the Java Virtual Machine throws an OutOfMemoryError.

2.5.5 Run-Time Constant Pool

A run-time constant pool is a per-class or per-interface run-time representation of the constant_pool table in a class file (§4.4). It contains several kinds of constants, ranging from numeric literals known at compile-time to method and field references that must be resolved at run-time. The run-time constant pool serves a function similar to that of a symbol table for a conventional programming language, although it contains a wider range of data than a typical symbol table.

Each run-time constant pool is allocated from the Java Virtual Machine's method area (§2.5.4). The run-time constant pool for a class or interface is constructed when the class or interface is created (§5.3) by the Java Virtual Machine.

The following exceptional condition is associated with the construction of the runtime constant pool for a class or interface:

When creating a class or interface, if the construction of the run-time constant
pool requires more memory than can be made available in the method area of the
Java Virtual Machine, the Java Virtual Machine throws an OutofMemoryError.

See §5 for information about the construction of the run-time constant pool.

2.5.6 Native Method Stacks

An implementation of the Java Virtual Machine may use conventional stacks, colloquially called "C stacks," to support native methods (methods written in a language other than the Java programming language). Native method stacks may also be used by the implementation of an interpreter for the Java Virtual Machine's instruction set in a language such as C. Java Virtual Machine implementations that cannot load native methods and that do not themselves rely on conventional stacks need not supply native method stacks. If supplied, native method stacks are typically allocated per thread when each thread is created.

This specification permits native method stacks either to be of a fixed size or to dynamically expand and contract as required by the computation. If the native method stacks are of a fixed size, the size of each native method stack may be chosen independently when that stack is created.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation may provide the programmer or the user control over the initial size of the native method stacks, as well as, in the case of varying-size native method stacks, control over the maximum and minimum method stack sizes.

The following exceptional conditions are associated with native method stacks:

- If the computation in a thread requires a larger native method stack than is permitted, the Java Virtual Machine throws a StackOverflowError.
- If native method stacks can be dynamically expanded and native method stack expansion is attempted but insufficient memory can be made available, or if insufficient memory can be made available to create the initial native method stack for a new thread, the Java Virtual Machine throws an OutofMemoryError.

2.6 Frames

A *frame* is used to store data and partial results, as well as to perform dynamic linking, return values for methods, and dispatch exceptions.

A new frame is created each time a method is invoked. A frame is destroyed when its method invocation completes, whether that completion is normal or abrupt (it throws an uncaught exception). Frames are allocated from the Java Virtual Machine stack (§2.5.2) of the thread creating the frame. Each frame has its own array of local variables (§2.6.1), its own operand stack (§2.6.2), and a reference to the runtime constant pool (§2.5.5) of the class of the current method.

A frame may be extended with additional implementation-specific information, such as debugging information.

The sizes of the local variable array and the operand stack are determined at compile-time and are supplied along with the code for the method associated with the frame (§4.7.3). Thus the size of the frame data structure depends only on the implementation of the Java Virtual Machine, and the memory for these structures can be allocated simultaneously on method invocation.

Only one frame, the frame for the executing method, is active at any point in a given thread of control. This frame is referred to as the *current frame*, and its method is known as the *current method*. The class in which the current method is defined is

the *current class*. Operations on local variables and the operand stack are typically with reference to the current frame.

A frame ceases to be current if its method invokes another method or if its method completes. When a method is invoked, a new frame is created and becomes current when control transfers to the new method. On method return, the current frame passes back the result of its method invocation, if any, to the previous frame. The current frame is then discarded as the previous frame becomes the current one.

Note that a frame created by a thread is local to that thread and cannot be referenced by any other thread.

2.6.1 Local Variables

Each frame (§2.6) contains an array of variables known as its *local variables*. The length of the local variable array of a frame is determined at compile-time and supplied in the binary representation of a class or interface along with the code for the method associated with the frame (§4.7.3).

A single local variable can hold a value of type boolean, byte, char, short, int, float, reference, or returnAddress. A pair of local variables can hold a value of type long or double.

Local variables are addressed by indexing. The index of the first local variable is zero. An integer is considered to be an index into the local variable array if and only if that integer is between zero and one less than the size of the local variable array.

A value of type long or type double occupies two consecutive local variables. Such a value may only be addressed using the lesser index. For example, a value of type double stored in the local variable array at index n actually occupies the local variables with indices n and n+1; however, the local variable at index n+1 cannot be loaded from. It can be stored into. However, doing so invalidates the contents of local variable n.

The Java Virtual Machine does not require *n* to be even. In intuitive terms, values of types long and double need not be 64-bit aligned in the local variables array. Implementors are free to decide the appropriate way to represent such values using the two local variables reserved for the value.

The Java Virtual Machine uses local variables to pass parameters on method invocation. On class method invocation, any parameters are passed in consecutive local variables starting from local variable θ . On instance method invocation, local variable θ is always used to pass a reference to the object on which the instance method is being invoked (this in the Java programming language). Any

parameters are subsequently passed in consecutive local variables starting from local variable 1.

2.6.2 Operand Stacks

Each frame (§2.6) contains a last-in-first-out (LIFO) stack known as its *operand* stack. The maximum depth of the operand stack of a frame is determined at compile-time and is supplied along with the code for the method associated with the frame (§4.7.3).

Where it is clear by context, we will sometimes refer to the operand stack of the current frame as simply the operand stack.

The operand stack is empty when the frame that contains it is created. The Java Virtual Machine supplies instructions to load constants or values from local variables or fields onto the operand stack. Other Java Virtual Machine instructions take operands from the operand stack, operate on them, and push the result back onto the operand stack. The operand stack is also used to prepare parameters to be passed to methods and to receive method results.

For example, the *iadd* instruction (§*iadd*) adds two int values together. It requires that the int values to be added be the top two values of the operand stack, pushed there by previous instructions. Both of the int values are popped from the operand stack. They are added, and their sum is pushed back onto the operand stack. Subcomputations may be nested on the operand stack, resulting in values that can be used by the encompassing computation.

Each entry on the operand stack can hold a value of any Java Virtual Machine type, including a value of type long or type double.

Values from the operand stack must be operated upon in ways appropriate to their types. It is not possible, for example, to push two int values and subsequently treat them as a long or to push two float values and subsequently add them with an *iadd* instruction. A small number of Java Virtual Machine instructions (the *dup* instructions (\$dup) and swap (\$swap)) operate on run-time data areas as raw values without regard to their specific types; these instructions are defined in such a way that they cannot be used to modify or break up individual values. These restrictions on operand stack manipulation are enforced through class file verification (\$4.10).

At any point in time, an operand stack has an associated depth, where a value of type long or double contributes two units to the depth and a value of any other type contributes one unit.

2.6.3 Dynamic Linking

Each frame (§2.6) contains a reference to the run-time constant pool (§2.5.5) for the type of the current method to support dynamic linking of the method code. The class file code for a method refers to methods to be invoked and variables to be accessed via symbolic references. Dynamic linking translates these symbolic method references into concrete method references, loading classes as necessary to resolve as-yet-undefined symbols, and translates variable accesses into appropriate offsets in storage structures associated with the run-time location of these variables.

This late binding of the methods and variables makes changes in other classes that a method uses less likely to break this code.

2.6.4 Normal Method Invocation Completion

A method invocation *completes normally* if that invocation does not cause an exception (§2.10) to be thrown, either directly from the Java Virtual Machine or as a result of executing an explicit throw statement. If the invocation of the current method completes normally, then a value may be returned to the invoking method. This occurs when the invoked method executes one of the return instructions (§2.11.8), the choice of which must be appropriate for the type of the value being returned (if any).

The current frame (§2.6) is used in this case to restore the state of the invoker, including its local variables and operand stack, with the program counter of the invoker appropriately incremented to skip past the method invocation instruction. Execution then continues normally in the invoking method's frame with the returned value (if any) pushed onto the operand stack of that frame.

Abrupt Method Invocation Completion

A method invocation *completes abruptly* if execution of a Java Virtual Machine instruction within the method causes the Java Virtual Machine to throw an exception (§2.10), and that exception is not handled within the method. Execution of an athrow instruction (§athrow) also causes an exception to be explicitly thrown and, if the exception is not caught by the current method, results in abrupt method invocation completion. A method invocation that completes abruptly never returns a value to its invoker.

2.7 Representation of Objects

The Java Virtual Machine does not mandate any particular internal structure for objects.

In some of Oracle's implementations of the Java Virtual Machine, a reference to a class instance is a pointer to a *handle* that is itself a pair of pointers: one to a table containing the methods of the object and a pointer to the Class object that represents the type of the object, and the other to the memory allocated from the heap for the object data.

2.8 Floating-Point Arithmetic

The Java Virtual Machine incorporates a subset of the floating-point arithmetic specified in *IEEE Standard for Binary Floating-Point Arithmetic* (ANSI/IEEE Std. 754-1985, New York).

2.8.1 Java Virtual Machine Floating-Point Arithmetic and IEEE 754

The key differences between the floating-point arithmetic supported by the Java Virtual Machine and the IEEE 754 standard are:

- The floating-point operations of the Java Virtual Machine do not throw exceptions, trap, or otherwise signal the IEEE 754 exceptional conditions of invalid operation, division by zero, overflow, underflow, or inexact. The Java Virtual Machine has no signaling NaN value.
- The Java Virtual Machine does not support IEEE 754 signaling floating-point comparisons.
- The rounding operations of the Java Virtual Machine always use IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. Inexact results are rounded to the nearest representable value, with ties going to the value with a zero least-significant bit. This is the IEEE 754 default mode. But Java Virtual Machine instructions that convert values of floating-point types to values of integral types round toward zero. The Java Virtual Machine does not give any means to change the floating-point rounding mode.
- The Java Virtual Machine does not support either the IEEE 754 single extended
 or double extended format, except insofar as the double and double-extendedexponent value sets may be said to support the single extended format. The
 float-extended-exponent and double-extended-exponent value sets, which may
 optionally be supported, do not correspond to the values of the IEEE 754

extended formats: the IEEE 754 extended formats require extended precision as well as extended exponent range.

2.8.2 Floating-Point Modes

Every method has a *floating-point mode*, which is either *FP-strict* or *not FP-strict*. The floating-point mode of a method is determined by the setting of the ACC_STRICT flag of the access_flags item of the method_info structure (§4.6) defining the method. A method for which this flag is set is FP-strict; otherwise, the method is not FP-strict.

Note that this mapping of the ACC_STRICT flag implies that methods in classes compiled by a compiler in JDK release 1.1 or earlier are effectively not FP-strict.

We will refer to an operand stack as having a given floating-point mode when the method whose invocation created the frame containing the operand stack has that floating-point mode. Similarly, we will refer to a Java Virtual Machine instruction as having a given floating-point mode when the method containing that instruction has that floating-point mode.

If a float-extended-exponent value set is supported (§2.3.2), values of type float on an operand stack that is not FP-strict may range over that value set except where prohibited by value set conversion (§2.8.3). If a double-extended-exponent value set is supported (§2.3.2), values of type double on an operand stack that is not FP-strict may range over that value set except where prohibited by value set conversion.

In all other contexts, whether on the operand stack or elsewhere, and regardless of floating-point mode, floating-point values of type float and double may only range over the float value set and double value set, respectively. In particular, class and instance fields, array elements, local variables, and method parameters may only contain values drawn from the standard value sets.

2.8.3 Value Set Conversion

An implementation of the Java Virtual Machine that supports an extended floating-point value set is permitted or required, under specified circumstances, to map a value of the associated floating-point type between the extended and the standard value sets. Such a *value set conversion* is not a type conversion, but a mapping between the value sets associated with the same type.

Where value set conversion is indicated, an implementation is permitted to perform one of the following operations on a value:

- If the value is of type float and is not an element of the float value set, it maps the value to the nearest element of the float value set.
- If the value is of type double and is not an element of the double value set, it maps the value to the nearest element of the double value set.

In addition, where value set conversion is indicated, certain operations are required:

- Suppose execution of a Java Virtual Machine instruction that is not FP-strict causes a value of type float to be pushed onto an operand stack that is FP-strict, passed as a parameter, or stored into a local variable, a field, or an element of an array. If the value is not an element of the float value set, it maps the value to the nearest element of the float value set.
- Suppose execution of a Java Virtual Machine instruction that is not FP-strict causes a value of type double to be pushed onto an operand stack that is FP-strict, passed as a parameter, or stored into a local variable, a field, or an element of an array. If the value is not an element of the double value set, it maps the value to the nearest element of the double value set.

Such required value set conversions may occur as a result of passing a parameter of a floating-point type during method invocation, including native method invocation; returning a value of a floating-point type from a method that is not FP-strict to a method that is FP-strict; or storing a value of a floating-point type into a local variable, a field, or an array in a method that is not FP-strict.

Not all values from an extended-exponent value set can be mapped exactly to a value in the corresponding standard value set. If a value being mapped is too large to be represented exactly (its exponent is greater than that permitted by the standard value set), it is converted to a (positive or negative) infinity of the corresponding type. If a value being mapped is too small to be represented exactly (its exponent is smaller than that permitted by the standard value set), it is rounded to the nearest of a representable denormalized value or zero of the same sign.

Value set conversion preserves infinities and NaNs and cannot change the sign of the value being converted. Value set conversion has no effect on a value that is not of a floating-point type.

2.9 Special Methods

At the level of the Java Virtual Machine, every constructor written in the Java programming language (JLS §8.8) appears as an *instance initialization method* that has the special name <init>. This name is supplied by a compiler. Because

the name <init> is not a valid identifier, it cannot be used directly in a program written in the Java programming language. Instance initialization methods may be invoked only within the Java Virtual Machine by the *invokespecial* instruction (§*invokespecial*), and they may be invoked only on uninitialized class instances. An instance initialization method takes on the access permissions (JLS §6.6) of the constructor from which it was derived.

A class or interface has at most one *class or interface initialization method* and is initialized (§5.5) by invoking that method. The initialization method of a class or interface has the special name <clinit>, takes no arguments, and is void (§4.3.3).

Other methods named <clinit> in a class file are of no consequence. They are not class or interface initialization methods. They cannot be invoked by any Java Virtual Machine instruction and are never invoked by the Java Virtual Machine itself.

In a class file whose version number is 51.0 or above, the method must additionally have its ACC_STATIC flag (§4.6) set in order to be the class or interface initialization method.

This requirement is new in Java SE 7. In a class file whose version number is 50.0 or below, a method named <clinit> that is void and takes no arguments is considered the class or interface initialization method regardless of the setting of its ACC STATIC flag.

The name <clinit> is supplied by a compiler. Because the name <clinit> is not a valid identifier, it cannot be used directly in a program written in the Java programming language. Class and interface initialization methods are invoked implicitly by the Java Virtual Machine; they are never invoked directly from any Java Virtual Machine instruction, but are invoked only indirectly as part of the class initialization process.

A method is *signature polymorphic* if and only if all of the following conditions hold:

- It is declared in the java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle class.
- It has a single formal parameter of type Object[].
- It has a return type of Object.
- It has the ACC_VARARGS and ACC_NATIVE flags set.

In Java SE 7, the only signature polymorphic methods are the invoke and invokeExact methods of the class java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle.

The Java Virtual Machine gives special treatment to signature polymorphic methods in the *invokevirtual* instruction (§*invokevirtual*), in order to effect

invocation of a *method handle*. A method handle is a typed, directly executable reference to an underlying method, constructor, field, or similar low-level operation (§5.4.3.5), with optional transformations of arguments or return values. These transformations are quite general, and include such patterns as conversion, insertion, deletion, and substitution. See the <code>java.lang.invoke</code> package in the Java SE platform API for more information.

2.10 Exceptions

An exception in the Java Virtual Machine is represented by an instance of the class Throwable or one of its subclasses. Throwing an exception results in an immediate nonlocal transfer of control from the point where the exception was thrown.

Most exceptions occur synchronously as a result of an action by the thread in which they occur. An asynchronous exception, by contrast, can potentially occur at any point in the execution of a program. The Java Virtual Machine throws an exception for one of three reasons:

- An athrow instruction (§athrow) was executed.
- An abnormal execution condition was synchronously detected by the Java Virtual Machine. These exceptions are not thrown at an arbitrary point in the program, but only synchronously after execution of an instruction that either:
 - Specifies the exception as a possible result, such as:
 - * When the instruction embodies an operation that violates the semantics of the Java programming language, for example indexing outside the bounds of an array.
 - * When an error occurs in loading or linking part of the program.
 - Causes some limit on a resource to be exceeded, for example when too much memory is used.
- An asynchronous exception occurred because:
 - The stop method of class Thread or ThreadGroup was invoked, or
 - An internal error occurred in the Java Virtual Machine implementation.

The stop methods may be invoked by one thread to affect another thread or all the threads in a specified thread group. They are asynchronous because they may occur at any point in the execution of the other thread or threads. An internal error is considered asynchronous (§6.3).

A Java Virtual Machine may permit a small but bounded amount of execution to occur before an asynchronous exception is thrown. This delay is permitted to allow optimized code to detect and throw these exceptions at points where it is practical to handle them while obeying the semantics of the Java programming language.

A simple implementation might poll for asynchronous exceptions at the point of each control transfer instruction. Since a program has a finite size, this provides a bound on the total delay in detecting an asynchronous exception. Since no asynchronous exception will occur between control transfers, the code generator has some flexibility to reorder computation between control transfers for greater performance. The paper *Polling Efficiently on Stock Hardware* by Marc Feeley, *Proc. 1993 Conference on Functional Programming and Computer Architecture*, Copenhagen, Denmark, pp. 179–187, is recommended as further reading.

Exceptions thrown by the Java Virtual Machine are precise: when the transfer of control takes place, all effects of the instructions executed before the point from which the exception is thrown must appear to have taken place. No instructions that occur after the point from which the exception is thrown may appear to have been evaluated. If optimized code has speculatively executed some of the instructions which follow the point at which the exception occurs, such code must be prepared to hide this speculative execution from the user-visible state of the program.

Each method in the Java Virtual Machine may be associated with zero or more *exception handlers*. An exception handler specifies the range of offsets into the Java Virtual Machine code implementing the method for which the exception handler is active, describes the type of exception that the exception handler is able to handle, and specifies the location of the code that is to handle that exception. An exception matches an exception handler if the offset of the instruction that caused the exception is in the range of offsets of the exception handler and the exception type is the same class as or a subclass of the class of exception that the exception handler handles. When an exception is thrown, the Java Virtual Machine searches for a matching exception handler in the current method. If a matching exception handler is found, the system branches to the exception handling code specified by the matched handler.

If no such exception handler is found in the current method, the current method invocation completes abruptly (§2.6.5). On abrupt completion, the operand stack and local variables of the current method invocation are discarded, and its frame is popped, reinstating the frame of the invoking method. The exception is then rethrown in the context of the invoker's frame and so on, continuing up the method invocation chain. If no suitable exception handler is found before the top of the method invocation chain is reached, the execution of the thread in which the exception was thrown is terminated.

The order in which the exception handlers of a method are searched for a match is important. Within a class file, the exception handlers for each method are stored in a table (§4.7.3). At run time, when an exception is thrown, the Java Virtual Machine searches the exception handlers of the current method in the order that they appear in the corresponding exception handler table in the class file, starting from the beginning of that table.

Note that the Java Virtual Machine does not enforce nesting of or any ordering of the exception table entries of a method. The exception handling semantics of the Java programming language are implemented only through cooperation with the compiler (§3.12). When class files are generated by some other means, the defined search procedure ensures that all Java Virtual Machine implementations will behave consistently.

2.11 Instruction Set Summary

A Java Virtual Machine instruction consists of a one-byte *opcode* specifying the operation to be performed, followed by zero or more *operands* supplying arguments or data that are used by the operation. Many instructions have no operands and consist only of an opcode.

Ignoring exceptions, the inner loop of a Java Virtual Machine interpreter is effectively

```
do {
    atomically calculate pc and fetch opcode at pc;
    if (operands) fetch operands;
    execute the action for the opcode;
} while (there is more to do);
```

The number and size of the operands are determined by the opcode. If an operand is more than one byte in size, then it is stored in *big-endian* order - high-order byte first. For example, an unsigned 16-bit index into the local variables is stored as two unsigned bytes, *byte1* and *byte2*, such that its value is (*byte1* << 8) | *byte2*.

The bytecode instruction stream is only single-byte aligned. The two exceptions are the *lookupswitch* and *tableswitch* instructions (*\$lookupswitch*, *\$tableswitch*), which are padded to force internal alignment of some of their operands on 4-byte boundaries.

The decision to limit the Java Virtual Machine opcode to a byte and to forgo data alignment within compiled code reflects a conscious bias in favor of compactness, possibly at the cost of some performance in naive implementations. A one-byte opcode also limits the size of

the instruction set. Not assuming data alignment means that immediate data larger than a byte must be constructed from bytes at run time on many machines.

2.11.1 Types and the Java Virtual Machine

Most of the instructions in the Java Virtual Machine instruction set encode type information about the operations they perform. For instance, the *iload* instruction (§*iload*) loads the contents of a local variable, which must be an int, onto the operand stack. The *fload* instruction (§*fload*) does the same with a float value. The two instructions may have identical implementations, but have distinct opcodes.

For the majority of typed instructions, the instruction type is represented explicitly in the opcode mnemonic by a letter: i for an int operation, l for long, s for short, b for byte, c for char, f for float, d for double, and a for reference. Some instructions for which the type is unambiguous do not have a type letter in their mnemonic. For instance, arraylength always operates on an object that is an array. Some instructions, such as goto, an unconditional control transfer, do not operate on typed operands.

Given the Java Virtual Machine's one-byte opcode size, encoding types into opcodes places pressure on the design of its instruction set. If each typed instruction supported all of the Java Virtual Machine's run-time data types, there would be more instructions than could be represented in a byte. Instead, the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine provides a reduced level of type support for certain operations. In other words, the instruction set is intentionally not orthogonal. Separate instructions can be used to convert between unsupported and supported data types as necessary.

Table 2.2 summarizes the type support in the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine. A specific instruction, with type information, is built by replacing the T in the instruction template in the opcode column by the letter in the type column. If the type column for some instruction template and type is blank, then no instruction exists supporting that type of operation. For instance, there is a load instruction for type <code>int</code>, *iload*, but there is no load instruction for type <code>byte</code>.

Note that most instructions in Table 2.2 do not have forms for the integral types byte, char, and short. None have forms for the boolean type. A compiler encodes loads of literal values of types byte and short using Java Virtual Machine instructions that sign-extend those values to values of type int at compile-time or run-time. Loads of literal values of types boolean and char are encoded using instructions that zero-extend the literal to a value of type int at compile-time or run-time. Likewise, loads from arrays of values of type boolean, byte, short, and char are encoded using Java Virtual Machine instructions that sign-extend or zero-

extend the values to values of type int. Thus, most operations on values of actual types boolean, byte, char, and short are correctly performed by instructions operating on values of computational type int.

Table 2.2. Type support in the Java Virtual Machine instruction set

opcode	byte	short	int	long	float	double	char	reference
Tipush	bipush	sipush						
Tconst			iconst	lconst	fconst	dconst		aconst
Tload			iload	lload	fload	dload		aload
Tstore			istore	lstore	fstore	dstore		astore
Tinc			iinc					
Taload	baload	saload	iaload	laload	faload	daload	caload	aaload
Tastore	bastore	sastore	iastore	lastore	fastore	dastore	castore	aastore
Tadd			iadd	ladd	fadd	dadd		
Tsub			isub	lsub	fsub	dsub		
Tmul			imul	lmul	fmul	dmul		
Tdiv			idiv	ldiv	fdiv	ddiv		
Trem			irem	lrem	frem	drem		
Tneg			ineg	lneg	fneg	dneg		
Tshl			ishl	lshl				
Tshr			ishr	lshr				
Tushr			iushr	lushr				
Tand			iand	land				
Tor			ior	lor				
Txor			ixor	lxor				
i2T	i2b	i2s		i2l	i2f	i2d		
l2T			l2i		l2f	12d		
f2T			f2i	f2l		f2d		
d2T			d2i	d2l	d2f			
Тстр				lcmp				
Tcmpl					fcmpl	dcmpl		
Тстрд					fcmpg	dcmpg		
if_TcmpOP			if_icmpOP					if_acmpOP
Treturn			ireturn	lreturn	freturn	dreturn		areturn

The mapping between Java Virtual Machine actual types and Java Virtual Machine computational types is summarized by Table 2.3.

Certain Java Virtual Machine instructions such as *pop* and *swap* operate on the operand stack without regard to type; however, such instructions are constrained to use only on values of certain categories of computational types, also given in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Actual and Computational types in the Java Virtual Machine

Actual type	Computational type	Category
boolean	int	1
byte	int	1
char	int	1
short	int	1
int	int	1
float	float	1
reference	reference	1
returnAddress	returnAddress	1
long	long	2
double	double	2

2.11.2 Load and Store Instructions

The load and store instructions transfer values between the local variables (§2.6.1) and the operand stack (§2.6.2) of a Java Virtual Machine frame (§2.6):

- Load a local variable onto the operand stack: *iload*, *iload_<n>*, *lload*, *lload_<n>*, *fload*, *fload_<n>*, *dload*, *dload_<n>*, *aload*, *aload_<n>*.
- Store a value from the operand stack into a local variable: *istore*, *istore_<n>*, *lstore*, *lstore_<n>*, *fstore_<n>*, *dstore_dstore_<n>*, astore, astore_<n>.
- Load a constant on to the operand stack: bipush, sipush, ldc, ldc_w, ldc2_w, aconst_null, iconst_m1, iconst_<i>, lconst_<l>, fconst_<f>, dconst_<d>.
- Gain access to more local variables using a wider index, or to a larger immediate operand: *wide*.

Instructions that access fields of objects and elements of arrays (§2.11.5) also transfer data to and from the operand stack.

Instruction mnemonics shown above with trailing letters between angle brackets (for instance, iload $\langle n \rangle$) denote families of instructions (with members iload 0, iload 1, iload 2, and iload 3 in the case of iload $\langle n \rangle$). Such families of instructions are specializations of an additional generic instruction (iload) that takes one operand. For the specialized instructions, the operand is implicit and does not need to be stored or fetched. The semantics are otherwise the same (*iload 0* means the same thing as *iload* with the operand 0). The letter between the angle brackets specifies the type of the implicit operand for that family of instructions: for $\langle n \rangle$, a nonnegative integer; for $\langle i \rangle$, an int; for $\langle l \rangle$, a long; for $\langle f \rangle$, a float; and for < d >, a double. Forms for type int are used in many cases to perform operations on values of type byte, char, and short (§2.11.1).

This notation for instruction families is used throughout this specification.

2.11.3 Arithmetic Instructions

The arithmetic instructions compute a result that is typically a function of two values on the operand stack, pushing the result back on the operand stack. There are two main kinds of arithmetic instructions: those operating on integer values and those operating on floating-point values. Within each of these kinds, the arithmetic instructions are specialized to Java Virtual Machine numeric types. There is no direct support for integer arithmetic on values of the byte, short, and char types (§2.11.1), or for values of the boolean type; those operations are handled by instructions operating on type int. Integer and floating-point instructions also differ in their behavior on overflow and divide-by-zero. The arithmetic instructions are as follows:

• Add: iadd, ladd, fadd, dadd.

• Subtract: *isub*, *lsub*, *fsub*, *dsub*.

• Multiply: *imul*, *lmul*, *fmul*, *dmul*.

• Divide: idiv, ldiv, fdiv, ddiv.

• Remainder: irem, lrem, frem, drem.

• Negate: ineg, lneg, fneg, dneg.

• Shift: ishl, ishr, iushr, lshl, lshr, lushr.

• Bitwise OR: ior, lor.

• Bitwise AND: iand, land.

• Bitwise exclusive OR: ixor, lxor.

- Local variable increment: *iinc*.
- Comparison: *dcmpg*, *dcmpl*, *fcmpg*, *fcmpl*, *lcmp*.

The semantics of the Java programming language operators on integer and floating-point values (JLS §4.2.2, JLS §4.2.4) are directly supported by the semantics of the Java Virtual Machine instruction set.

The Java Virtual Machine does not indicate overflow during operations on integer data types. The only integer operations that can throw an exception are the integer divide instructions (*idiv* and *ldiv*) and the integer remainder instructions (*irem* and *lrem*), which throw an ArithmeticException if the divisor is zero.

Java Virtual Machine operations on floating-point numbers behave as specified in IEEE 754. In particular, the Java Virtual Machine requires full support of IEEE 754 *denormalized* floating-point numbers and *gradual underflow*, which make it easier to prove desirable properties of particular numerical algorithms.

The Java Virtual Machine requires that floating-point arithmetic behave as if every floating-point operator rounded its floating-point result to the result precision. *Inexact* results must be rounded to the representable value nearest to the infinitely precise result; if the two nearest representable values are equally near, the one having a least significant bit of zero is chosen. This is the IEEE 754 standard's default rounding mode, known as *round to nearest* mode.

The Java Virtual Machine uses the IEEE 754 *round towards zero* mode when converting a floating-point value to an integer. This results in the number being truncated; any bits of the significand that represent the fractional part of the operand value are discarded. Round towards zero mode chooses as its result the type's value closest to, but no greater in magnitude than, the infinitely precise result.

The Java Virtual Machine's floating-point operators do not throw run-time exceptions (not to be confused with IEEE 754 floating-point exceptions). An operation that overflows produces a signed infinity, an operation that underflows produces a denormalized value or a signed zero, and an operation that has no mathematically definite result produces NaN. All numeric operations with NaN as an operand produce NaN as a result.

Comparisons on values of type long (*lcmp*) perform a signed comparison. Comparisons on values of floating-point types (*dcmpg*, *dcmpl*, *fcmpg*, *fcmpl*) are performed using IEEE 754 nonsignaling comparisons.

2.11.4 Type Conversion Instructions

The type conversion instructions allow conversion between Java Virtual Machine numeric types. These may be used to implement explicit conversions in user code or to mitigate the lack of orthogonality in the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine.

The Java Virtual Machine directly supports the following widening numeric conversions:

- int to long, float, or double
- long to float or double
- float to double

The widening numeric conversion instructions are i2l, i2f, i2d, l2f, l2d, and f2d. The mnemonics for these opcodes are straightforward given the naming conventions for typed instructions and the punning use of 2 to mean "to." For instance, the i2d instruction converts an int value to a double. Widening numeric conversions do not lose information about the overall magnitude of a numeric value. Indeed, conversions widening from int to long and int to double do not lose any information at all; the numeric value is preserved exactly. Conversions widening from float to double that are FP-strict (§2.8.2) also preserve the numeric value exactly; however, such conversions that are not FP-strict may lose information about the overall magnitude of the converted value.

Conversion of an int or a long value to float, or of a long value to double, may lose precision, that is, may lose some of the least significant bits of the value; the resulting floating-point value is a correctly rounded version of the integer value, using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode.

A widening numeric conversion of an int to a long simply sign-extends the two'scomplement representation of the int value to fill the wider format. A widening numeric conversion of a char to an integral type zero-extends the representation of the char value to fill the wider format.

Despite the fact that loss of precision may occur, widening numeric conversions never cause the Java Virtual Machine to throw a run-time exception (not to be confused with an IEEE 754 floating-point exception).

Note that widening numeric conversions do not exist from integral types byte, char, and short to type int. As noted in §2.11.1, values of type byte, char, and short are internally widened to type int, making these conversions implicit.

The Java Virtual Machine also directly supports the following narrowing numeric conversions:

- int to byte, short, or char
- long to int
- float to int or long
- double to int, long, or float

The narrowing numeric conversion instructions are *i2b*, *i2c*, *i2s*, *l2i*, *f2i*, *f2l*, *d2i*, *d2l*, and *d2f*. A narrowing numeric conversion can result in a value of different sign, a different order of magnitude, or both; it may thereby lose precision.

A narrowing numeric conversion of an int or long to an integral type T simply discards all but the N lowest-order bits, where N is the number of bits used to represent type T. This may cause the resulting value not to have the same sign as the input value.

In a narrowing numeric conversion of a floating-point value to an integral type T, where T is either int or long, the floating-point value is converted as follows:

- If the floating-point value is NaN, the result of the conversion is an int or long 0.
- Otherwise, if the floating-point value is not an infinity, the floating-point value is rounded to an integer value *V* using IEEE 754 round towards zero mode. There are two cases:
 - If *T* is long and this integer value can be represented as a long, then the result is the long value *V*.
 - If *T* is of type int and this integer value can be represented as an int, then the result is the int value *V*.

· Otherwise:

- Either the value must be too small (a negative value of large magnitude or negative infinity), and the result is the smallest representable value of type int or long.
- Or the value must be too large (a positive value of large magnitude or positive infinity), and the result is the largest representable value of type int or long.

A narrowing numeric conversion from double to float behaves in accordance with IEEE 754. The result is correctly rounded using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. A value too small to be represented as a float is converted to a positive or negative zero of type float; a value too large to be represented as a float is

converted to a positive or negative infinity. A double NaN is always converted to a float NaN.

Despite the fact that overflow, underflow, or loss of precision may occur, narrowing conversions among numeric types never cause the Java Virtual Machine to throw a run-time exception (not to be confused with an IEEE 754 floating-point exception).

2.11.5 Object Creation and Manipulation

Although both class instances and arrays are objects, the Java Virtual Machine creates and manipulates class instances and arrays using distinct sets of instructions:

- Create a new class instance: new.
- Create a new array: newarray, anewarray, multianewarray.
- Access fields of classes (static fields, known as class variables) and fields of class instances (non-static fields, known as instance variables): *getfield*, *putfield*, *getstatic*, *putstatic*.
- Load an array component onto the operand stack: baload, caload, saload, iaload, laload, faload, daload, aaload.
- Store a value from the operand stack as an array component: bastore, castore, sastore, lastore, fastore, dastore, aastore.
- Get the length of array: arraylength.
- Check properties of class instances or arrays: instanceof, checkcast.

2.11.6 Operand Stack Management Instructions

A number of instructions are provided for the direct manipulation of the operand stack: pop, pop2, dup, dup2, dup_x1, dup2_x1, dup2_x2, dup2_x2, swap.

2.11.7 Control Transfer Instructions

The control transfer instructions conditionally or unconditionally cause the Java Virtual Machine to continue execution with an instruction other than the one following the control transfer instruction. They are:

- Conditional branch: *ifeq*, *ifne*, *iflt*, *ifle*, *ifgt*, *ifge*, *ifnull*, *ifnonnull*, *if_icmpeq*, *if_icmpne*, *if_icmplt*, *if_icmple*, *if_icmpge*, *if_acmpeq*, *if_acmpne*.
- Compound conditional branch: tableswitch, lookupswitch.

• Unconditional branch: goto, goto_w, jsr, jsr_w, ret.

The Java Virtual Machine has distinct sets of instructions that conditionally branch on comparison with data of int and reference types. It also has distinct conditional branch instructions that test for the null reference and thus it is not required to specify a concrete value for null (§2.4).

Conditional branches on comparisons between data of types boolean, byte, char, and short are performed using int comparison instructions (§2.11.1). A conditional branch on a comparison between data of types long, float, or double is initiated using an instruction that compares the data and produces an int result of the comparison (§2.11.3). A subsequent int comparison instruction tests this result and effects the conditional branch. Because of its emphasis on int comparisons, the Java Virtual Machine provides a rich complement of conditional branch instructions for type int.

All int conditional control transfer instructions perform signed comparisons.

2.11.8 Method Invocation and Return Instructions

The following five instructions invoke methods:

- *invokevirtual* invokes an instance method of an object, dispatching on the (virtual) type of the object. This is the normal method dispatch in the Java programming language.
- *invokeinterface* invokes an interface method, searching the methods implemented by the particular run-time object to find the appropriate method.
- *invokespecial* invokes an instance method requiring special handling, whether an instance initialization method (§2.9), a private method, or a superclass method.
- *invokestatic* invokes a class (static) method in a named class.
- *invokedynamic* invokes the method which is the target of the call site object bound to the *invokedynamic* instruction. The call site object was bound to a specific lexical occurrence of the *invokedynamic* instruction by the Java Virtual Machine as a result of running a bootstrap method before the first execution of the instruction. Therefore, each occurrence of an *invokedynamic* instruction has a unique linkage state, unlike the other instructions which invoke methods.

The method return instructions, which are distinguished by return type, are *ireturn* (used to return values of type boolean, byte, char, short, or int), *lreturn*, *freturn*, *dreturn*, and *areturn*. In addition, the *return* instruction is used to return from

methods declared to be void, instance initialization methods, and class or interface initialization methods.

2.11.9 Throwing Exceptions

An exception is thrown programmatically using the *athrow* instruction. Exceptions can also be thrown by various Java Virtual Machine instructions if they detect an abnormal condition.

2.11.10 Synchronization

The Java Virtual Machine supports synchronization of both methods and sequences of instructions within a method by a single synchronization construct: the *monitor*.

Method-level synchronization is performed implicitly, as part of method invocation and return (§2.11.8). A synchronized method is distinguished in the run-time constant pool's method_info structure (§4.6) by the ACC_SYNCHRONIZED flag, which is checked by the method invocation instructions. When invoking a method for which ACC_SYNCHRONIZED is set, the executing thread enters a monitor, invokes the method itself, and exits the monitor whether the method invocation completes normally or abruptly. During the time the executing thread owns the monitor, no other thread may enter it. If an exception is thrown during invocation of the synchronized method and the synchronized method does not handle the exception, the monitor for the method is automatically exited before the exception is rethrown out of the synchronized method.

Synchronization of sequences of instructions is typically used to encode the synchronized block of the Java programming language. The Java Virtual Machine supplies the *monitorenter* and *monitorexit* instructions to support such language constructs. Proper implementation of synchronized blocks requires cooperation from a compiler targeting the Java Virtual Machine (§3.14).

Structured locking is the situation when, during a method invocation, every exit on a given monitor matches a preceding entry on that monitor. Since there is no assurance that all code submitted to the Java Virtual Machine will perform structured locking, implementations of the Java Virtual Machine are permitted but not required to enforce both of the following two rules guaranteeing structured locking. Let T be a thread and M be a monitor. Then:

1. The number of monitor entries performed by *T* on *M* during a method invocation must equal the number of monitor exits performed by *T* on *M* during the method invocation whether the method invocation completes normally or abruptly.

2. At no point during a method invocation may the number of monitor exits performed by *T* on *M* since the method invocation exceed the number of monitor entries performed by *T* on *M* since the method invocation.

Note that the monitor entry and exit automatically performed by the Java Virtual Machine when invoking a synchronized method are considered to occur during the calling method's invocation.

2.12 Class Libraries

The Java Virtual Machine must provide sufficient support for the implementation of the class libraries of the Java SE platform. Some of the classes in these libraries cannot be implemented without the cooperation of the Java Virtual Machine.

Classes that might require special support from the Java Virtual Machine include those that support:

- Reflection, such as the classes in the package java.lang.reflect and the class
- Loading and creation of a class or interface. The most obvious example is the class ClassLoader.
- Linking and initialization of a class or interface. The example classes cited above fall into this category as well.
- Security, such as the classes in the package java.security and other classes such as SecurityManager.
- Multithreading, such as the class Thread.
- Weak references, such as the classes in the package java.lang.ref.

The list above is meant to be illustrative rather than comprehensive. An exhaustive list of these classes or of the functionality they provide is beyond the scope of this specification. See the specifications of the Java SE platform class libraries for details.

2.13 Public Design, Private Implementation

Thus far this specification has sketched the public view of the Java Virtual Machine: the class file format and the instruction set. These components are vital

to the hardware-, operating system-, and implementation-independence of the Java Virtual Machine. The implementor may prefer to think of them as a means to securely communicate fragments of programs between hosts each implementing the Java SE platform, rather than as a blueprint to be followed exactly.

It is important to understand where the line between the public design and the private implementation lies. A Java Virtual Machine implementation must be able to read class files and must exactly implement the semantics of the Java Virtual Machine code therein. One way of doing this is to take this document as a specification and to implement that specification literally. But it is also perfectly feasible and desirable for the implementor to modify or optimize the implementation within the constraints of this specification. So long as the class file format can be read and the semantics of its code are maintained, the implementor may implement these semantics in any way. What is "under the hood" is the implementor's business, as long as the correct external interface is carefully maintained.

There are some exceptions: debuggers, profilers, and just-in-time code generators can each require access to elements of the Java Virtual Machine that are normally considered to be "under the hood." Where appropriate, Oracle works with other Java Virtual Machine implementors and with tool vendors to develop common interfaces to the Java Virtual Machine for use by such tools, and to promote those interfaces across the industry.

The implementor can use this flexibility to tailor Java Virtual Machine implementations for high performance, low memory use, or portability. What makes sense in a given implementation depends on the goals of that implementation. The range of implementation options includes the following:

- Translating Java Virtual Machine code at load-time or during execution into the instruction set of another virtual machine.
- Translating Java Virtual Machine code at load-time or during execution into the native instruction set of the host CPU (sometimes referred to as *just-in-time*, or *JIT*, code generation).

The existence of a precisely defined virtual machine and object file format need not significantly restrict the creativity of the implementor. The Java Virtual Machine is designed to support many different implementations, providing new and interesting solutions while retaining compatibility between implementations.

Compiling for the Java Virtual Machine

THE Java Virtual Machine machine is designed to support the Java programming language. Oracle's JDK software contains a compiler from source code written in the Java programming language to the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine, and a run-time system that implements the Java Virtual Machine itself. Understanding how one compiler utilizes the Java Virtual Machine is useful to the prospective compiler writer, as well as to one trying to understand the Java Virtual Machine itself. The numbered sections in this chapter are not normative.

Note that the term "compiler" is sometimes used when referring to a translator from the instruction set of a Java Virtual Machine to the instruction set of a specific CPU. One example of such a translator is a just-in-time (JIT) code generator, which generates platform-specific instructions only after Java Virtual Machine code has been loaded. This chapter does not address issues associated with code generation, only those associated with compiling source code written in the Java programming language to Java Virtual Machine instructions.

3.1 Format of Examples

This chapter consists mainly of examples of source code together with annotated listings of the Java Virtual Machine code that the javac compiler in Oracle's JDK release 1.0.2 generates for the examples. The Java Virtual Machine code is written in the informal "virtual machine assembly language" output by Oracle's <code>javap</code> utility, distributed with the JDK release. You can use <code>javap</code> to generate additional examples of compiled methods.

3.2

The format of the examples should be familiar to anyone who has read assembly code. Each instruction takes the form:

```
<index> <opcode> [ <operand1> [ <operand2>... ]] [ <comment> ]
```

The *<index>* is the index of the opcode of the instruction in the array that contains the bytes of Java Virtual Machine code for this method. Alternatively, the *<index>* may be thought of as a byte offset from the beginning of the method. The *<opcode>* is the mnemonic for the instruction's opcode, and the zero or more *<operandN>* are the operands of the instruction. The optional *<comment>* is given in end-of-line comment syntax:

```
8 bipush 100 // Push int constant 100
```

Some of the material in the comments is emitted by <code>javap</code>; the rest is supplied by the authors. The <code><index></code> prefacing each instruction may be used as the target of a control transfer instruction. For instance, a <code>goto 8</code> instruction transfers control to the instruction at index 8. Note that the actual operands of Java Virtual Machine control transfer instructions are offsets from the addresses of the opcodes of those instructions; these operands are displayed by <code>javap</code> (and are shown in this chapter) as more easily read offsets into their methods.

We preface an operand representing a run-time constant pool index with a hash sign and follow the instruction by a comment identifying the run-time constant pool item referenced, as in:

For the purposes of this chapter, we do not worry about specifying details such as operand sizes.

3.2 Use of Constants, Local Variables, and Control Constructs

Java Virtual Machine code exhibits a set of general characteristics imposed by the Java Virtual Machine's design and use of types. In the first example we encounter many of these, and we consider them in some detail.

The spin method simply spins around an empty for loop 100 times:

```
void spin() {
```

```
int i;
for (i = 0; i < 100; i++) {
    ;    // Loop body is empty
}
</pre>
```

A compiler might compile spin to:

```
iconst 0
                   // Push int constant 0
   istore_1
goto 8
iinc 1 1
1
                   // Store into local variable 1 (i=0)
2
                   // First time through don't increment
5
                  // Increment local variable 1 by 1 (i++)
                   // Push local variable 1 (i)
    iload 1
    bipush 100
                   // Push int constant 100
11 if_icmplt 5
                   // Compare and loop if less than (i < 100)</pre>
                   // Return void when done
14 return
```

The Java Virtual Machine is stack-oriented, with most operations taking one or more operands from the operand stack of the Java Virtual Machine's current frame or pushing results back onto the operand stack. A new frame is created each time a method is invoked, and with it is created a new operand stack and set of local variables for use by that method (§2.6). At any one point of the computation, there are thus likely to be many frames and equally many operand stacks per thread of control, corresponding to many nested method invocations. Only the operand stack in the current frame is active.

The instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine distinguishes operand types by using distinct bytecodes for operations on its various data types. The method spin operates only on values of type int. The instructions in its compiled code chosen to operate on typed data (*iconst_0*, *istore_1*, *iinc*, *iload_1*, *if_icmplt*) are all specialized for type int.

The two constants in spin, 0 and 100, are pushed onto the operand stack using two different instructions. The 0 is pushed using an *iconst_0* instruction, one of the family of *iconst_<i>* instructions. The 100 is pushed using a *bipush* instruction, which fetches the value it pushes as an immediate operand.

The Java Virtual Machine frequently takes advantage of the likelihood of certain operands (int constants -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 and 5 in the case of the $iconst_<i>$ instructions) by making those operands implicit in the opcode. Because the $iconst_0$ instruction knows it is going to push an int 0, $iconst_0$ does not need to store an operand to tell it what value to push, nor does it need to fetch or decode an operand. Compiling the push of 0 as $bipush\ 0$ would have been correct, but would have made the compiled code for spin one byte longer. A simple virtual machine would have also spent additional time fetching and decoding the explicit operand

each time around the loop. Use of implicit operands makes compiled code more compact and efficient.

The int i in spin is stored as Java Virtual Machine local variable *1*. Because most Java Virtual Machine instructions operate on values popped from the operand stack rather than directly on local variables, instructions that transfer values between local variables and the operand stack are common in code compiled for the Java Virtual Machine. These operations also have special support in the instruction set. In spin, values are transferred to and from local variables using the *istore_1* and *iload_1* instructions, each of which implicitly operates on local variable *1*. The *istore_1* instruction pops an int from the operand stack and stores it in local variable *1*. The *iload_1* instruction pushes the value in local variable *1* on to the operand stack.

The use (and reuse) of local variables is the responsibility of the compiler writer. The specialized load and store instructions should encourage the compiler writer to reuse local variables as much as is feasible. The resulting code is faster, more compact, and uses less space in the frame.

Certain very frequent operations on local variables are catered to specially by the Java Virtual Machine. The *iinc* instruction increments the contents of a local variable by a one-byte signed value. The *iinc* instruction in spin increments the first local variable (its first operand) by *I* (its second operand). The *iinc* instruction is very handy when implementing looping constructs.

The for loop of spin is accomplished mainly by these instructions:

The *bipush* instruction pushes the value 100 onto the operand stack as an int, then the if_icmplt instruction pops that value off the operand stack and compares it against i. If the comparison succeeds (the variable i is less than 100), control is transferred to index 5 and the next iteration of the for loop begins. Otherwise, control passes to the instruction following the if_icmplt .

If the spin example had used a data type other than int for the loop counter, the compiled code would necessarily change to reflect the different data type. For instance, if instead of an int the spin example uses a double, as shown:

```
}
```

the compiled code is:

```
Method void dspin()
   dconst_0  // Push double constant 0.0
   1
2
5
6
7
   dadd
                  // Add; there is no dinc instruction
  dstore_1 // Store result in local variables 1 and 2
dload_1 // Push local variables 1 and 2
ldc2_w #4 // Push double constant 100.0
8
9
10 ldc2_w #4
13 dcmpg
                  // There is no if_dcmplt instruction
14 iflt 5
                  // Compare and loop if less than (i < 100.0)</pre>
17 return
                  // Return void when done
```

The instructions that operate on typed data are now specialized for type double. (The *ldc2_w* instruction will be discussed later in this chapter.)

Recall that double values occupy two local variables, although they are only accessed using the lesser index of the two local variables. This is also the case for values of type long. Again for example,

```
double doubleLocals(double d1, double d2) {
    return d1 + d2;
}
```

becomes

Note that local variables of the local variable pairs used to store double values in doubleLocals must never be manipulated individually.

The Java Virtual Machine's opcode size of 1 byte results in its compiled code being very compact. However, 1-byte opcodes also mean that the Java Virtual Machine instruction set must stay small. As a compromise, the Java Virtual Machine does not provide equal support for all data types: it is not completely orthogonal (Table 2.2).

For example, the comparison of values of type int in the for statement of example spin can be implemented using a single *if_icmplt* instruction; however, there is no single instruction in the Java Virtual Machine instruction set that performs a conditional branch on values of type double. Thus, dspin must implement its

comparison of values of type double using a *dcmpg* instruction followed by an *iflt* instruction.

The Java Virtual Machine provides the most direct support for data of type int. This is partly in anticipation of efficient implementations of the Java Virtual Machine's operand stacks and local variable arrays. It is also motivated by the frequency of int data in typical programs. Other integral types have less direct support. There are no byte, char, or short versions of the store, load, or add instructions, for instance. Here is the spin example written using a short:

It must be compiled for the Java Virtual Machine, as follows, using instructions operating on another type, most likely int, converting between short and int values as necessary to ensure that the results of operations on short data stay within the appropriate range:

```
Method void sspin()
0 iconst 0
1 istore_1
  goto 10
5 iload_1
                // The short is treated as though an int
6 iconst_1
7
   iadd
8
  i2s
                 // Truncate int to short
9 istore_1
10 iload_1
11 bipush 100
13 if_icmplt 5
16 return
```

The lack of direct support for byte, char, and short types in the Java Virtual Machine is not particularly painful, because values of those types are internally promoted to int (byte and short are sign-extended to int, char is zero-extended). Operations on byte, char, and short data can thus be done using int instructions. The only additional cost is that of truncating the values of int operations to valid ranges.

The long and floating-point types have an intermediate level of support in the Java Virtual Machine, lacking only the full complement of conditional control transfer instructions.

3.3 Arithmetic

The Java Virtual Machine generally does arithmetic on its operand stack. (The exception is the *iinc* instruction, which directly increments the value of a local variable.) For instance, the align2grain method aligns an int value to a given power of 2:

```
int align2grain(int i, int grain) {
    return ((i + grain-1) & ~(grain-1));
}
```

Operands for arithmetic operations are popped from the operand stack, and the results of operations are pushed back onto the operand stack. Results of arithmetic subcomputations can thus be made available as operands of their nesting computation. For instance, the calculation of ~(grain-1) is handled by these instructions:

First grain-1 is calculated using the contents of local variable 2 and an immediate int value 1. These operands are popped from the operand stack and their difference pushed back onto the operand stack. The difference is thus immediately available for use as one operand of the *ixor* instruction. (Recall that $\sim x = -1^x$.) Similarly, the result of the *ixor* instruction becomes an operand for the subsequent *iand* instruction.

The code for the entire method follows:

```
Method int align2grain(int,int)
0 iload_1
1
   iload_2
2 iadd
3
   iconst 1
4
  isub
5 iload 2
6 iconst 1
7
   isub
8
  iconst m1
  ixor
10 iand
11 ireturn
```

3.4 Accessing the Run-Time Constant Pool

Many numeric constants, as well as objects, fields, and methods, are accessed via the run-time constant pool of the current class. Object access is considered later (§3.8). Data of types int, long, float, and double, as well as references to instances of class String, are managed using the *ldc*, *ldc_w*, and *ldc2_w* instructions.

The *ldc* and *ldc_w* instructions are used to access values in the run-time constant pool (including instances of class string) of types other than double and long. The *ldc_w* instruction is used in place of *ldc* only when there is a large number of run-time constant pool items and a larger index is needed to access an item. The *ldc2_w* instruction is used to access all values of types double and long; there is no non-wide variant.

Integral constants of types byte, char, or short, as well as small int values, may be compiled using the *bipush*, *sipush*, or $iconst_<i>$ instructions (§3.2). Certain small floating-point constants may be compiled using the $fconst_<f>$ and $dconst_<d>$ instructions.

In all of these cases, compilation is straightforward. For instance, the constants for:

```
void useManyNumeric() {
   int i = 100;
   int j = 1000000;
   long 11 = 1;
   long 12 = 0xffffffff;
   double d = 2.2;
   ...do some calculations...
}
```

are set up as follows:

```
Method void useManyNumeric()
0 bipush 100 // Push small int constant with bipush
2 istore_1
3
  ldc #1
                // Push large int constant (1000000) with ldc
5
   istore_2
  lconst_1
                // A tiny long value uses small fast lconst_1
7 lstore_3
8 ldc2_w #6
               // Push long 0xffffffff (that is, an int -1)
       // Any long constant value can be pushed with ldc2 w
11 lstore 5
13 ldc2 w #8
               // Push double constant 2.200000
       // Uncommon double values are also pushed with ldc2_w
16 dstore 7
...do those calculations...
```

3.5 More Control Examples

Compilation of for statements was shown in an earlier section (§3.2). Most of the Java programming language's other control constructs (if-then-else, do, while, break, and continue) are also compiled in the obvious ways. The compilation of switch statements is handled in a separate section (§3.10), as are the compilation of exceptions (§3.12) and the compilation of finally clauses (§3.13).

As a further example, a while loop is compiled in an obvious way, although the specific control transfer instructions made available by the Java Virtual Machine vary by data type. As usual, there is more support for data of type int, for example:

```
void whileInt() {
   int i = 0;
   while (i < 100) {
       i++;
   }
}</pre>
```

is compiled to:

```
Method void whileInt()
0    iconst_0
1    istore_1
2    goto 8
5    iinc 1 1
8    iload_1
9    bipush 100
11    if_icmplt 5
14    return
```

Note that the test of the while statement (implemented using the *if_icmplt* instruction) is at the bottom of the Java Virtual Machine code for the loop. (This was also the case in the spin examples earlier.) The test being at the bottom of the loop forces the use of a *goto* instruction to get to the test prior to the first iteration of the loop. If that test fails, and the loop body is never entered, this extra instruction is wasted. However, while loops are typically used when their body is expected to be run, often for many iterations. For subsequent iterations, putting the test at the bottom of the loop saves a Java Virtual Machine instruction each time around the loop: if the test were at the top of the loop, the loop body would need a trailing *goto* instruction to get back to the top.

Control constructs involving other data types are compiled in similar ways, but must use the instructions available for those data types. This leads to somewhat less efficient code because more Java Virtual Machine instructions are needed, for example:

```
void whileDouble() {
    double i = 0.0;
    while (i < 100.1) {
        i++;
    }
}</pre>
```

is compiled to:

```
Method void whileDouble()
  dconst\_0
   dstore\_1
1
2 goto 9
5 dload 1
6 dconst_1
7
   dadd
8 dstore_1
9 dload_1
10 ldc2_w #4
                // Push double constant 100.1
13 dcmpg
                // To compare and branch we have to use...
14 iflt 5
                 // ...two instructions
17 return
```

Each floating-point type has two comparison instructions: fcmpl and fcmpg for type float, and dcmpl and dcmpg for type double. The variants differ only in their treatment of NaN. NaN is unordered (§2.3.2), so all floating-point comparisons fail if either of their operands is NaN. The compiler chooses the variant of the comparison instruction for the appropriate type that produces the same result whether the comparison fails on non-NaN values or encounters a NaN. For instance:

```
int lessThan100(double d) {
    if (d < 100.0) {
        return 1;
    } else {
        return -1;
    }
}</pre>
```

compiles to:

```
Method int lessThan100(double)
 dload_1
                // Push double constant 100.0
1
   ldc2_w #4
4
   dcmpg
                // Push 1 if d is NaN or d > 100.0;
                 // push 0 if d == 100.0
5 ifge 10
                 // Branch on 0 or 1
8
 iconst_1
9 ireturn
10 iconst_m1
11 ireturn
```

If d is not NaN and is less than 100.0, the dcmpg instruction pushes an int -I onto the operand stack, and the ifge instruction does not branch. Whether d is greater than 100.0 or is NaN, the dcmpg instruction pushes an int I onto the operand stack, and the ifge branches. If d is equal to 100.0, the dcmpg instruction pushes an int O onto the operand stack, and the ifge branches.

The *dcmpl* instruction achieves the same effect if the comparison is reversed:

```
int greaterThan100(double d) {
    if (d > 100.0) {
        return 1;
    } else {
        return -1;
    }
}
```

becomes:

Once again, whether the comparison fails on a non-NaN value or because it is passed a NaN, the *dcmpl* instruction pushes an int value onto the operand stack that causes the *ifle* to branch. If both of the *dcmp* instructions did not exist, one of the example methods would have had to do more work to detect NaN.

3.6 Receiving Arguments

If n arguments are passed to an instance method, they are received, by convention, in the local variables numbered l through n of the frame created for the new method invocation. The arguments are received in the order they were passed. For example:

```
int addTwo(int i, int j) {
    return i + j;
}
compiles to:
```

```
Method int addTwo(int,int)
```

By convention, an instance method is passed a reference to its instance in local variable 0. In the Java programming language the instance is accessible via the this keyword.

Class (static) methods do not have an instance, so for them this use of local variable θ is unnecessary. A class method starts using local variables at index θ . If the addTwo method were a class method, its arguments would be passed in a similar way to the first version:

```
static int addTwoStatic(int i, int j) {
    return i + j;
}

compiles to:

Method int addTwoStatic(int,int)
0    iload_0
1    iload_1
2    iadd
3    ireturn
```

The only difference is that the method arguments appear starting in local variable θ rather than I.

3.7 Invoking Methods

The normal method invocation for a instance method dispatches on the runtime type of the object. (They are virtual, in C++ terms.) Such an invocation is implemented using the *invokevirtual* instruction, which takes as its argument an index to a run-time constant pool entry giving the internal form of the binary name of the class type of the object, the name of the method to invoke, and that method's descriptor (§4.3.3). To invoke the addTwo method, defined earlier as an instance method, we might write:

```
int add12and13() {
    return addTwo(12, 13);
}
```

This compiles to:

```
Method int add12and13()
```

The invocation is set up by first pushing a reference to the current instance, this, on to the operand stack. The method invocation's arguments, int values 12 and 13, are then pushed. When the frame for the addTwo method is created, the arguments passed to the method become the initial values of the new frame's local variables. That is, the reference for this and the two arguments, pushed onto the operand stack by the invoker, will become the initial values of local variables 0, 1, and 2 of the invoked method.

Finally, addTwo is invoked. When it returns, its int return value is pushed onto the operand stack of the frame of the invoker, the addl2andl3 method. The return value is thus put in place to be immediately returned to the invoker of addl2andl3.

The return from add12and13 is handled by the *ireturn* instruction of add12and13. The *ireturn* instruction takes the int value returned by addTwo, on the operand stack of the current frame, and pushes it onto the operand stack of the frame of the invoker. It then returns control to the invoker, making the invoker's frame current. The Java Virtual Machine provides distinct return instructions for many of its numeric and reference data types, as well as a *return* instruction for methods with no return value. The same set of return instructions is used for all varieties of method invocations.

The operand of the *invokevirtual* instruction (in the example, the run-time constant pool index #4) is not the offset of the method in the class instance. The compiler does not know the internal layout of a class instance. Instead, it generates symbolic references to the methods of an instance, which are stored in the run-time constant pool. Those run-time constant pool items are resolved at run-time to determine the actual method location. The same is true for all other Java Virtual Machine instructions that access class instances.

Invoking addTwoStatic, a class (static) variant of addTwo, is similar, as shown:

```
int add12and13() {
    return addTwoStatic(12, 13);
}
```

although a different Java Virtual Machine method invocation instruction is used:

```
Method int add12and13()
0  bipush 12
2  bipush 13
```

```
4 invokestatic #3 // Method Example.addTwoStatic(II)I
7 ireturn
```

Compiling an invocation of a class (static) method is very much like compiling an invocation of an instance method, except this is not passed by the invoker. The method arguments will thus be received beginning with local variable θ (§3.6). The *invokestatic* instruction is always used to invoke class methods.

The *invokespecial* instruction must be used to invoke instance initialization methods (§3.8). It is also used when invoking methods in the superclass (super) and when invoking private methods. For instance, given classes Near and Far declared as:

```
class Near {
    int it;
    public int getItNear() {
        return getIt();
    }
    private int getIt() {
        return it;
    }
}
class Far extends Near {
    int getItFar() {
        return super.getItNear();
    }
}
```

the method Near.getItNear (which invokes a private method) becomes:

The method Far.getItFar (which invokes a superclass method) becomes:

Note that methods called using the *invokespecial* instruction always pass this to the invoked method as its first argument. As usual, it is received in local variable 0.

To invoke the target of a method handle, a compiler must form a method descriptor that records the actual argument and return types. A compiler may not perform method invocation conversions on the arguments; instead, it must push them on the stack according to their own unconverted types. The compiler arranges for

a reference to the method handle object to be pushed on the stack before the arguments, as usual. The compiler emits an *invokevirtual* instruction that references a descriptor which describes the argument and return types. By special arrangement with method resolution (§5.4.3.3), an *invokevirtual* instruction which invokes the invokeExact or invoke methods of java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle will always link, provided the method descriptor is syntactically well-formed and the types named in the descriptor can be resolved.

3.8 Working with Class Instances

Java Virtual Machine class instances are created using the Java Virtual Machine's *new* instruction. Recall that at the level of the Java Virtual Machine, a constructor appears as a method with the compiler-supplied name <init>. This specially named method is known as the instance initialization method (§2.9). Multiple instance initialization methods, corresponding to multiple constructors, may exist for a given class. Once the class instance has been created and its instance variables, including those of the class and all of its superclasses, have been initialized to their default values, an instance initialization method of the new class instance is invoked. For example:

Class instances are passed and returned (as reference types) very much like numeric values, although type reference has its own complement of instructions, for example:

```
return o;
}
}
```

becomes:

```
Method MyObj example()
0 new #2
                      // Class MyObj
3 dup
4 invokespecial #5 // Method MyObj.<init>()V
7 astore_1
8 aload_0
9 aload_1
10 invokevirtual #4 // Method Example.silly(LMyObj;)LMyObj;
13 areturn
Method MyObj silly(MyObj)
   aload 1
1 ifnull 6
4 aload_1
5 areturn
6 aload 1
   areturn
```

The fields of a class instance (instance variables) are accessed using the *getfield* and *putfield* instructions. If i is an instance variable of type int, the methods setIt and getIt, defined as:

```
void setIt(int value) {
    i = value;
}
int getIt() {
    return i;
}
```

become:

As with the operands of method invocation instructions, the operands of the *putfield* and *getfield* instructions (the run-time constant pool index #4) are not the offsets of the fields in the class instance. The compiler generates symbolic references to

the fields of an instance, which are stored in the run-time constant pool. Those runtime constant pool items are resolved at run-time to determine the location of the field within the referenced object.

3.9 Arrays

Java Virtual Machine arrays are also objects. Arrays are created and manipulated using a distinct set of instructions. The *newarray* instruction is used to create an array of a numeric type. The code:

```
void createBuffer() {
   int buffer[];
   int bufsz = 100;
   int value = 12;
   buffer = new int[bufsz];
   buffer[10] = value;
   value = buffer[11];
}
```

might be compiled to:

The *anewarray* instruction is used to create a one-dimensional array of object references, for example:

```
void createThreadArray() {
    Thread threads[];
    int count = 10;
    threads = new Thread[count];
    threads[0] = new Thread();
}
```

becomes:

The *anewarray* instruction can also be used to create the first dimension of a multidimensional array. Alternatively, the *multianewarray* instruction can be used to create several dimensions at once. For example, the three-dimensional array:

```
int[][][] create3DArray() {
   int grid[][][];
   grid = new int[10][5][];
   return grid;
}
```

is created by:

The first operand of the *multianewarray* instruction is the run-time constant pool index to the array class type to be created. The second is the number of dimensions of that array type to actually create. The *multianewarray* instruction can be used to create all the dimensions of the type, as the code for create3DArray shows. Note that the multidimensional array is just an object and so is loaded and returned by an *aload_1* and *areturn* instruction, respectively. For information about array class names, see §4.4.1.

All arrays have associated lengths, which are accessed via the *arraylength* instruction.

3.10 Compiling Switches

Compilation of switch statements uses the *tableswitch* and *lookupswitch* instructions. The *tableswitch* instruction is used when the cases of the switch can be efficiently represented as indices into a table of target offsets. The default target of the switch is used if the value of the expression of the switch falls outside the range of valid indices. For instance:

```
int chooseNear(int i) {
    switch (i) {
        case 0: return 0;
        case 1: return 1;
        case 2: return 2;
        default: return -1;
    }
}
```

compiles to:

The Java Virtual Machine's *tableswitch* and *lookupswitch* instructions operate only on int data. Because operations on byte, char, or short values are internally promoted to int, a switch whose expression evaluates to one of those types is compiled as though it evaluated to type int. If the chooseNear method had been written using type short, the same Java Virtual Machine instructions would have been generated as when using type int. Other numeric types must be narrowed to type int for use in a switch.

Where the cases of the switch are sparse, the table representation of the *tableswitch* instruction becomes inefficient in terms of space. The *lookupswitch* instruction may be used instead. The *lookupswitch* instruction pairs int keys (the values of the case labels) with target offsets in a table. When a *lookupswitch* instruction is executed,

the value of the expression of the switch is compared against the keys in the table. If one of the keys matches the value of the expression, execution continues at the associated target offset. If no key matches, execution continues at the default target. For instance, the compiled code for:

```
int chooseFar(int i) {
    switch (i) {
        case -100: return -1;
        case 0: return 0;
        case 100: return 1;
        default: return -1;
    }
}
```

looks just like the code for chooseNear, except for the *lookupswitch* instruction:

The Java Virtual Machine specifies that the table of the *lookupswitch* instruction must be sorted by key so that implementations may use searches more efficient than a linear scan. Even so, the *lookupswitch* instruction must search its keys for a match rather than simply perform a bounds check and index into a table like *tableswitch*. Thus, a *tableswitch* instruction is probably more efficient than a *lookupswitch* where space considerations permit a choice.

3.11 Operations on the Operand Stack

The Java Virtual Machine has a large complement of instructions that manipulate the contents of the operand stack as untyped values. These are useful because of the Java Virtual Machine's reliance on deft manipulation of its operand stack. For instance:

```
public long nextIndex() {
        return index++;
   private long index = 0;
is compiled to:
   Method long nextIndex()
   0 aload_0 // Push this
    1 dup // Make a copy of it
2 getfield #4 // One of the copies of this is consumed
                         // pushing long field index,
                         // above the original this
                       // The long on top of the operand stack is
        dup2_x1
                         // inserted into the operand stack below the
                        // original this
   6 lconst_1 // Push long constant 1
7 ladd // The index value is incremented...
8 putfield #4 // ...and the result stored in the field
                        // The original value of index is on top of
   11 lreturn
                         // the operand stack, ready to be returned
```

Note that the Java Virtual Machine never allows its operand stack manipulation instructions to modify or break up individual values on the operand stack.

3.12 Throwing and Handling Exceptions

Exceptions are thrown from programs using the throw keyword. Its compilation is simple:

```
void cantBeZero(int i) throws TestExc {
   if (i == 0) {
      throw new TestExc();
   }
}
```

becomes:

Compilation of try-catch constructs is straightforward. For example:

```
void catchOne() {
    try {
        tryItOut();
    } catch (TestExc e) {
        handleExc(e);
    }
}
```

is compiled as:

Looking more closely, the try block is compiled just as it would be if the try were not present:

If no exception is thrown during the execution of the try block, it behaves as though the try were not there: tryItout is invoked and catchone returns.

Following the try block is the Java Virtual Machine code that implements the single catch clause:

The invocation of handleExc, the contents of the catch clause, is also compiled like a normal method invocation. However, the presence of a catch clause causes the compiler to generate an exception table entry (§2.10, §4.7.3). The exception

table for the catchone method has one entry corresponding to the one argument (an instance of class Testexc) that the catch clause of catchone can handle. If some value that is an instance of Testexc is thrown during execution of the instructions between indices 0 and 4 in catchone, control is transferred to the Java Virtual Machine code at index 5, which implements the block of the catch clause. If the value that is thrown is not an instance of Testexc, the catch clause of catchone cannot handle it. Instead, the value is rethrown to the invoker of catchone.

A try may have multiple catch clauses:

```
void catchTwo() {
    try {
        tryItOut();
    } catch (TestExc1 e) {
        handleExc(e);
    } catch (TestExc2 e) {
        handleExc(e);
    }
}
```

Multiple catch clauses of a given try statement are compiled by simply appending the Java Virtual Machine code for each catch clause one after the other and adding entries to the exception table, as shown:

```
Method void catchTwo()
    aload 0
                         // Begin try block
1 invokevirtual #5 // Method Example.tryItOut()V
               // End of try block; normal return
4 return
                       // Beginning of handler for TestExcl;
5 astore_1
                       // Store thrown value in local var 1
   aload_0 // Push this
aload_1 // Push thrown value
invokevirtual #7 // Invoke handler method:
6 aload_0
7
                        // Example.handleExc(LTestExc1;)V
                        // Return after handling TestExc1
11 return
                       // Beginning of handler for TestExc2;
12 astore_1
                        // Store thrown value in local var 1
13 aload_0 // Push this
14 aload_1 // Push thrown value
15 invokevirtual #7 // Invoke handler method:
                        // Example.handleExc(LTestExc2;)V
18 return
                         // Return after handling TestExc2
Exception table:
       To Target
From
                              Type
        4
                 5
                              Class TestExc1
0
        4
                 12
                              Class TestExc2
```

If during the execution of the try clause (between indices 0 and 4) a value is thrown that matches the parameter of one or more of the catch clauses (the value is an instance of one or more of the parameters), the first (innermost) such catch clause

is selected. Control is transferred to the Java Virtual Machine code for the block of that catch clause. If the value thrown does not match the parameter of any of the catch clauses of catchTwo, the Java Virtual Machine rethrows the value without invoking code in any catch clause of catchTwo.

Nested try-catch statements are compiled very much like a try statement with multiple catch clauses:

becomes:

```
Method void nestedCatch()
// Example.handleExc1(LTestExc1;)V
// Example.handleExc2(LTestExc2;)V
18 return
             // Return after handling TestExc2
Exception table:
From To Target
                Type
         5
0
    4
                Class TestExc1
   12
         12
                Class TestExc2
```

The nesting of catch clauses is represented only in the exception table. The Java Virtual Machine does not enforce nesting of or any ordering of the exception table entries (§2.10). However, because try-catch constructs are structured, a compiler can always order the entries of the exception handler table such that, for any thrown exception and any program counter value in that method, the first exception handler

that matches the thrown exception corresponds to the innermost matching catch clause.

For instance, if the invocation of tryItout (at index *I*) threw an instance of TestExc1, it would be handled by the catch clause that invokes handleExc1. This is so even though the exception occurs within the bounds of the outer catch clause (catching TestExc2) and even though that outer catch clause might otherwise have been able to handle the thrown value.

As a subtle point, note that the range of a catch clause is inclusive on the "from" end and exclusive on the "to" end (§4.7.3). Thus, the exception table entry for the catch clause catching TestExcl does not cover the *return* instruction at offset 4. However, the exception table entry for the catch clause catching TestExcl does cover the *return* instruction at offset 11. Return instructions within nested catch clauses are included in the range of instructions covered by nesting catch clauses.

3.13 Compiling finally

(This section assumes a compiler generates class files with version number 50.0 or below, so that the *jsr* instruction may be used. See also §4.10.2.5.)

Compilation of a try-finally statement is similar to that of try-catch. Prior to transferring control outside the try statement, whether that transfer is normal or abrupt, because an exception has been thrown, the finally clause must first be executed. For this simple example:

```
void tryFinally() {
    try {
        tryItOut();
    } finally {
        wrapItUp();
    }
}
```

the compiled code is:

```
15 aload_0 // Push this
16 invokevirtual #5 // Method Example.wrapItUp()V
19 ret 2 // Return from finally block
Exception table:
From To Target Type
0 4 8 any
```

There are four ways for control to pass outside of the try statement: by falling through the bottom of that block, by returning, by executing a break or continue statement, or by raising an exception. If tryItout returns without raising an exception, control is transferred to the finally block using a *jsr* instruction. The *jsr 14* instruction at index 4 makes a "subroutine call" to the code for the finally block at index 14 (the finally block is compiled as an embedded subroutine). When the finally block completes, the *ret 2* instruction returns control to the instruction following the *jsr* instruction at index 4.

In more detail, the subroutine call works as follows: The *jsr* instruction pushes the address of the following instruction (*return* at index 7) onto the operand stack before jumping. The *astore_2* instruction that is the jump target stores the address on the operand stack into local variable 2. The code for the finally block (in this case the *aload_0* and *invokevirtual* instructions) is run. Assuming execution of that code completes normally, the *ret* instruction retrieves the address from local variable 2 and resumes execution at that address. The *return* instruction is executed, and tryFinally returns normally.

A try statement with a finally clause is compiled to have a special exception handler, one that can handle any exception thrown within the try statement. If tryItout throws an exception, the exception table for tryFinally is searched for an appropriate exception handler. The special handler is found, causing execution to continue at index 8. The *astore_1* instruction at index 8 stores the thrown value into local variable 1. The following *jsr* instruction does a subroutine call to the code for the finally block. Assuming that code returns normally, the *aload_1* instruction at index 12 pushes the thrown value back onto the operand stack, and the following *athrow* instruction rethrows the value.

Compiling a try statement with both a catch clause and a finally clause is more complex:

```
void tryCatchFinally() {
    try {
        tryItOut();
    } catch (TestExc e) {
        handleExc(e);
    } finally {
        wrapItUp();
    }
```

}

becomes:

```
Method void tryCatchFinally()
    aload_0
                         // Beginning of try block
    invokevirtual #4  // Method Example.tryItOut()V
1
    goto 16
                        // Jump to finally block
7
    astore_3
                        // Beginning of handler for TestExc;
                         // Store thrown value in local var 3
8
                         // Push this
    aload 0
9
    aload 3
                         // Push thrown value
10 invokevirtual #6 // Invoke handler method:
                         // Example.handleExc(LTestExc;)V
                         // This goto is unnecessary, but was
13 goto 16
                         // generated by javac in JDK 1.0.2
16 jsr 26
                         // Call finally block
                      // Return after handling TestExc
// Beginning of handler for exceptions
// other than TestExc, or exceptions
// thrown while handling TestExc
// Call finally block
19 return
20 astore_1
21 jsr 26
                        // Push thrown value...
24 aload_1
25 athrow
                        // ...and rethrow value to the invoker
                        // Beginning of finally block
26 astore 2
                        // Push this
27 aload_0
28 invokevirtual #5 // Method Example.wrapItUp()V
31 ret 2
                         // Return from finally block
Exception table:
        To
                 Target
From
        4
                 7
                              Class TestExc
O
        16
                 20
```

If the try statement completes normally, the *goto* instruction at index 4 jumps to the subroutine call for the finally block at index 16. The finally block at index 26 is executed, control returns to the *return* instruction at index 19, and tryCatchFinally returns normally.

If tryItout throws an instance of TestExc, the first (innermost) applicable exception handler in the exception table is chosen to handle the exception. The code for that exception handler, beginning at index 7, passes the thrown value to handleExc and on its return makes the same subroutine call to the finally block at index 26 as in the normal case. If an exception is not thrown by handleExc, tryCatchFinally returns normally.

If tryItout throws a value that is not an instance of TestExc or if handleExc itself throws an exception, the condition is handled by the second entry in the exception table, which handles any value thrown between indices 0 and 16. That exception handler transfers control to index 20, where the thrown value is first stored in local

variable *I*. The code for the finally block at index 26 is called as a subroutine. If it returns, the thrown value is retrieved from local variable *I* and rethrown using the *athrow* instruction. If a new value is thrown during execution of the finally clause, the finally clause aborts, and tryCatchFinally returns abruptly, throwing the new value to its invoker.

3.14 Synchronization

Synchronization in the Java Virtual Machine is implemented by monitor entry and exit, either explicitly (by use of the *monitorenter* and *monitorexit* instructions) or implicitly (by the method invocation and return instructions).

For code written in the Java programming language, perhaps the most common form of synchronization is the synchronized method. A synchronized method is not normally implemented using *monitorenter* and *monitorexit*. Rather, it is simply distinguished in the run-time constant pool by the ACC_SYNCHRONIZED flag, which is checked by the method invocation instructions (§2.11.10).

The *monitorenter* and *monitorexit* instructions enable the compilation of synchronized statements. For example:

```
void onlyMe(Foo f) {
    synchronized(f) {
        doSomething();
    }
}
```

is compiled to:

```
Method void onlyMe(Foo)
// Fush 1

dup // Duplicate it on the stack

astore_2 // Store duplicate in local variable 2

monitorenter // Enter the monitor associated with f

aload_0 // Holding the monitor, pass this and...

invokevirtual #5 // ...call Example.doSomething()V

aload_2 // Push local variable 2 // 1
0
      aload_1 // Push f
8
                                       // Push local variable 2 (f)
     aload 2
     {\it monitorexit} // Exit the monitor associated with f
                                 // Complete the method normally
// In case of any throw, end up here
// Push local variable 2 (f)
// Be sure to exit the monitor!
// Push thrown value...
10 goto 18
13 astore_3
14 aload_2
15 monitorexit
16 aload 3
17 athrow
18 return
                                      // ...and rethrow value to the invoker
                                       // Return in the normal case
Exception table:
```

From	To	Target	Type
4	10	13	any
13	16	13	any

The compiler ensures that at any method invocation completion, a *monitorexit* instruction will have been executed for each *monitorenter* instruction executed since the method invocation. This is the case whether the method invocation completes normally (§2.6.4) or abruptly (§2.6.5). To enforce proper pairing of *monitorenter* and *monitorexit* instructions on abrupt method invocation completion, the compiler generates exception handlers (§2.10) that will match any exception and whose associated code executes the necessary *monitorexit* instructions.

3.15 Annotations

The representation of annotations in class files is described in §4.7.16 and §4.7.17, which make it clear how to represent annotations on types, fields, and methods in the class file format. Package annotations require additional rules, given here.

When the compiler encounters an annotated package declaration that must be made available at run time, it emits a class file that represents an interface whose name is the internal form (§4.2.1) of <code>package-name.package-info</code>. The interface has default access (JLS §6.6.1) and no superinterfaces. The <code>ACC_INTERFACE</code> and <code>ACC_ABSTRACT</code> flags (Table 4.1) of the <code>ClassFile</code> structure (§4.1) are set. If the emitted <code>class</code> file version number is less than 50.0, then the <code>ACC_SYNTHETIC</code> flag is unset; if the class file version number is 50.0 or above, then the <code>ACC_SYNTHETIC</code> flag is set. The only members of the interface are those implied by <code>The Java Language Specification</code>, <code>Java SE 7 Edition</code> (JLS §9.2).

The package annotations are stored in the RuntimeVisibleAnnotations ($\S4.7.16$) and RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations ($\S4.7.17$) attributes of the ClassFile structure ($\S4.1$) of this interface.

The class File Format

THIS chapter describes the Java Virtual Machine class file format. Each class file contains the definition of a single class or interface. Although a class or interface need not have an external representation literally contained in a file (for instance, because the class is generated by a class loader), we will colloquially refer to any valid representation of a class or interface as being in the class file format.

A class file consists of a stream of 8-bit bytes. All 16-bit, 32-bit, and 64-bit quantities are constructed by reading in two, four, and eight consecutive 8-bit bytes, respectively. Multibyte data items are always stored in big-endian order, where the high bytes come first. In the Java SE platform, this format is supported by interfaces <code>java.io.DataInput</code> and <code>java.io.DataOutput</code> and classes such as <code>java.io.DataInputStream</code> and <code>java.io.DataOutputStream</code>.

This chapter defines its own set of data types representing class file data: The types u1, u2, and u4 represent an unsigned one-, two-, or four-byte quantity, respectively. In the Java SE platform, these types may be read by methods such as readUnsignedByte, readUnsignedShort, and readInt of the interface java.io.DataInput.

This chapter presents the class file format using pseudostructures written in a C-like structure notation. To avoid confusion with the fields of classes and class instances, etc., the contents of the structures describing the class file format are referred to as *items*. Successive items are stored in the class file sequentially, without padding or alignment.

Tables, consisting of zero or more variable-sized items, are used in several class file structures. Although we use C-like array syntax to refer to table items, the fact that tables are streams of varying-sized structures means that it is not possible to translate a table index directly to a byte offset into the table.

Where we refer to a data structure as an array, it consists of zero or more contiguous fixed-sized items and can be indexed like an array.

Reference to an ASCII character in this chapter should be interpreted to mean the Unicode code point corresponding to the ASCII character.

4.1 The ClassFile Structure

A class file consists of a single ClassFile structure:

```
ClassFile {
   u4
                   magic;
    u2
                   minor_version;
    u2
                   major_version;
                   constant_pool_count;
    u2
    cp_info
                   constant_pool[constant_pool_count-1];
    u2
                   access_flags;
                   this_class;
    u2
    u2
                   super_class;
    u2
                  interfaces_count;
    u2
                  interfaces[interfaces_count];
    u2
                  fields count;
    field_info fields[fields_count];
   u2
                   methods count;
   method_info methods[methods_count];
                   attributes_count;
    attribute info attributes[attributes count];
}
```

The items in the ClassFile structure are as follows:

```
magic
```

The magic item supplies the magic number identifying the class file format; it has the value OxCAFEBABE.

```
minor_version, major_version
```

The values of the minor_version and major_version items are the minor and major version numbers of this class file. Together, a major and a minor version number determine the version of the class file format. If a class file has major version number M and minor version number m, we denote the version of its class file format as M.m. Thus, class file format versions may be ordered lexicographically, for example, 1.5 < 2.0 < 2.1.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation can support a class file format of version v if and only if v lies in some contiguous range Mi.0 \leq v \leq Mj.m. The release level of the Java SE platform to which a Java Virtual Machine implementation conforms is responsible for determining the range.

Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation in JDK release 1.0.2 supports class file format versions 45.0 through 45.3 inclusive. JDK releases 1.1.* support class file format versions in the range 45.0 through 45.65535 inclusive. For $k \ge 2$, JDK release 1.k supports class file format versions in the range 45.0 through 44+k.0 inclusive.

constant_pool_count

The value of the constant_pool_count item is equal to the number of entries in the constant_pool table plus one. A constant_pool index is considered valid if it is greater than zero and less than constant_pool_count, with the exception for constants of type long and double noted in §4.4.5.

constant_pool[]

The constant_pool is a table of structures (§4.4) representing various string constants, class and interface names, field names, and other constants that are referred to within the ClassFile structure and its substructures. The format of each constant_pool table entry is indicated by its first "tag" byte.

The constant_pool table is indexed from 1 to constant_pool_count-1.

access_flags

The value of the access_flags item is a mask of flags used to denote access permissions to and properties of this class or interface. The interpretation of each flag, when set, is as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. Class access and p	property modifiers
-------------------------------	--------------------

Flag Name	Value	Interpretation
ACC_PUBLIC	0x0001	Declared public; may be accessed from outside its package.
ACC_FINAL	0x0010	Declared final; no subclasses allowed.
ACC_SUPER	0x0020	Treat superclass methods specially when invoked by the <i>invokespecial</i> instruction.
ACC_INTERFACE	0x0200	Is an interface, not a class.
ACC_ABSTRACT	0x0400	Declared abstract; must not be instantiated.
ACC_SYNTHETIC	0x1000	Declared synthetic; not present in the source code.
ACC_ANNOTATION	0x2000	Declared as an annotation type.
ACC_ENUM	0x4000	Declared as an enum type.

A class may be marked with the ACC_SYNTHETIC flag to indicate that it was generated by a compiler and does not appear in source code.

The ACC_ENUM flag indicates that this class or its superclass is declared as an enumerated type.

An interface is distinguished by its ACC_INTERFACE flag being set. If its ACC_INTERFACE flag is not set, this class file defines a class, not an interface.

If the ACC_INTERFACE flag of this class file is set, its ACC_ABSTRACT flag must also be set (JLS §9.1.1.1). Such a class file must not have its ACC_FINAL, ACC_SUPER OF ACC_ENUM flags set.

An annotation type must have its ACC_ANNOTATION flag set. If the ACC_ANNOTATION flag is set, the ACC_INTERFACE flag must be set as well. If the ACC_INTERFACE flag of this class file is not set, it may have any of the other flags in Table 4.1 set, except the ACC_ANNOTATION flag. However, such a class file cannot have both its ACC_FINAL and ACC_ABSTRACT flags set (JLS §8.1.1.2).

The ACC_SUPER flag indicates which of two alternative semantics is to be expressed by the *invokespecial* instruction (§*invokespecial*) if it appears in this class. Compilers to the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine should set the ACC_SUPER flag.

The ACC_SUPER flag exists for backward compatibility with code compiled by older compilers for the Java programming language. In Oracle's JDK prior to release 1.0.2, the compiler generated ClassFile access_flags in which the flag now representing ACC_SUPER had no assigned meaning, and Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation ignored the flag if it was set.

All bits of the access_flags item not assigned in Table 4.1 are reserved for future use. They should be set to zero in generated class files and should be ignored by Java Virtual Machine implementations.

this_class

The value of the this_class item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Class_info structure (§4.4.1) representing the class or interface defined by this class file.

super_class

For a class, the value of the super_class item either must be zero or must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. If the value of the super_class item is nonzero, the constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Class_info structure (§4.4.1) representing the direct superclass of the class defined by this class file. Neither the direct superclass nor any of its superclasses may have the ACC_FINAL flag set in the access_flags item of its ClassFile structure.

If the value of the super_class item is zero, then this class file must represent the class object, the only class or interface without a direct superclass.

For an interface, the value of the super_class item must always be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Class_info structure representing the class Object.

interfaces count

The value of the interfaces_count item gives the number of direct superinterfaces of this class or interface type.

interfaces[]

Each value in the interfaces array must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at each value of interfaces[i], where $0 \le i < \text{interfaces_count}$, must be a CONSTANT_Class_info structure (§4.4.1) representing an interface that is a direct superinterface of this class or interface type, in the left-to-right order given in the source for the type.

fields_count

The value of the fields_count item gives the number of field_info structures in the fields table. The field_info structures (§4.5) represent all fields, both class variables and instance variables, declared by this class or interface type.

fields[]

Each value in the fields table must be a field_info (§4.5) structure giving a complete description of a field in this class or interface. The fields table includes only those fields that are declared by this class or interface. It does not include items representing fields that are inherited from superclasses or superinterfaces.

methods_count

The value of the methods_count item gives the number of method_info structures in the methods table.

methods[]

Each value in the methods table must be a method_info (§4.6) structure giving a complete description of a method in this class or interface. If neither of the ACC_NATIVE and ACC_ABSTRACT flags are set in the access_flags item of a method_info structure, the Java Virtual Machine instructions implementing the method are also supplied.

The method_info structures represent all methods declared by this class or interface type, including instance methods, class methods, instance initialization methods (§2.9), and any class or interface initialization method (§2.9). The methods table does not include items representing methods that are inherited from superclasses or superinterfaces.

attributes_count

The value of the attributes_count item gives the number of attributes (§4.7) in the attributes table of this class.

attributes[]

Each value of the attributes table must be an attribute_info (§4.7) structure.

defined specification The attributes by this appearing as in the attributes table of a ClassFile structure are the InnerClasses ($\S4.7.6$), EnclosingMethod ($\S4.7.7$), Synthetic ($\S4.7.8$), Signature ($\S4.7.9$), SourceFile ($\S4.7.10$), SourceDebugExtension $(\S4.7.11)$, Deprecated $(\S4.7.15)$, RuntimeVisibleAnnotations $(\S4.7.16)$, RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations (§4.7.17), and BootstrapMethods (§4.7.21) attributes

If a Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes class files whose version number is 49.0 or above, it must recognize and correctly read Signature (§4.7.9), RuntimeVisibleAnnotations (§4.7.16), and RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations (§4.7.17) attributes found in the attributes table of a classFile structure of a class file whose version number is 49.0 or above.

If a Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes class files whose version number is 51.0 or above, it must recognize and correctly read BootstrapMethods (§4.7.21) attributes found in the attributes table of a classfile structure of a class file whose version number is 51.0 or above.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation is required to silently ignore any or all attributes in the attributes table of a ClassFile structure that it does not recognize. Attributes not defined in this specification are not allowed to affect the semantics of the class file, but only to provide additional descriptive information (§4.7.1).

4.2 The Internal Form of Names

4.2.1 Binary Class and Interface Names

Class and interface names that appear in class file structures are always represented in a fully qualified form known as *binary names* (JLS §13.1). Such names are always represented as Constant_utf8_info structures (§4.4.7) and thus may be drawn, where not further constrained, from the entire Unicode codespace. Class and interface names are referenced from those Constant_nameAndType_info structures (§4.4.6) which have such names as part of their descriptor (§4.3), and from all constant_class_info structures (§4.4.1).

For historical reasons, the syntax of binary names that appear in class file structures differs from the syntax of binary names documented in JLS §13.1. In this internal form, the ASCII periods (.) that normally separate the identifiers which make up the binary name are replaced by ASCII forward slashes (/). The identifiers themselves must be unqualified names (§4.2.2).

For example, the normal binary name of class Thread is java.lang.Thread. In the internal form used in descriptors in the class file format, a reference to the name of class Thread is implemented using a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure representing the string java/lang/Thread.

4.2.2 Unqualified Names

Names of methods, fields, and local variables are stored as *unqualified names*. An unqualified name must not contain any of the ASCII characters . ; [/ (that is, period or semicolon or left square bracket or forward slash).

Method names are further constrained so that, with the exception of the special method names <init> and <clinit> (§2.9), they must not contain the ASCII characters < or > (that is, left angle bracket or right angle bracket).

Note that a field name or interface method name may be <init> or <clinit>, but no method invocation instruction may reference <clinit> and only the *invokespecial* instruction (§*invokespecial*) may reference <init>.

4.3 Descriptors and Signatures

A *descriptor* is a string representing the type of a field or method. Descriptors are represented in the class file format using modified UTF-8 strings (§4.4.7) and thus may be drawn, where not further constrained, from the entire Unicode codespace.

4.3

A *signature* is a string representing the generic type of a field or method, or generic type information for a class declaration.

4.3.1 Grammar Notation

Descriptors and signatures are specified using a grammar. This grammar is a set of productions that describe how sequences of characters can form syntactically correct descriptors of various types. Terminal symbols of the grammar are shown in bold fixed-width font. Nonterminal symbols are shown in *italic* type. The definition of a nonterminal is introduced by the name of the nonterminal being defined, followed by a colon. One or more alternative right-hand sides for the nonterminal then follow on succeeding lines. For example, the production:

```
FieldType:
BaseType
ObjectType
ArrayType
```

states that a *FieldType* may represent either a *BaseType*, an *ObjectType* or an *ArrayType*.

A nonterminal symbol on the right-hand side of a production that is followed by an asterisk (*) represents zero or more possibly different values produced from that nonterminal, appended without any intervening space. Similarly, a nonterminal symbol on the right-hand side of a production that is followed by an plus sign (+) represents one or more possibly different values produced from that nonterminal, appended without any intervening space. The production:

```
MethodDescriptor:
(ParameterDescriptor*) ReturnDescriptor
```

states that a *MethodDescriptor* represents a left parenthesis, followed by zero or more *ParameterDescriptor* values, followed by a right parenthesis, followed by a *ReturnDescriptor*.

4.3.2 Field Descriptors

A *field descriptor* represents the type of a class, instance, or local variable. It is a series of characters generated by the grammar:

```
FieldDescriptor:
  FieldType
FieldType:
  BaseType
  ObjectType
  ArrayType
BaseType:
  В
  С
  D
  F
  I
  J
  S
  Z
ObjectType:
  ц ClassName;
ArrayType:
  [ ComponentType
ComponentType:
  FieldType
```

The characters of BaseType, the \bot and ; of ObjectType, and the [of ArrayType are all ASCII characters.

The *ClassName* represents a binary class or interface name encoded in internal form (§4.2.1).

The interpretation of field descriptors as types is as shown in Table 4.2.

A field descriptor representing an array type is valid only if it represents a type with 255 or fewer dimensions.

Ζ

[

BaseType Character	Туре	Interpretation		
В	byte	signed byte		
С	char	Unicode character code point in the Basic Multilingual Plane, encoded with UTF-16		
D	double	double-precision floating-point value		
F	float	single-precision floating-point value		
I	int	integer		
J	long	long integer		
L ClassName;	reference	an instance of class ClassName		
S	short	signed short		

Table 4.2. Interpretation of FieldType characters

The field descriptor of an instance variable of type int is simply I.

boolean

reference

The field descriptor of an instance variable of type <code>Object</code> is <code>Ljava/lang/Object</code>;. Note that the internal form of the binary name for class <code>Object</code> is used.

true or false

one array dimension

The field descriptor of an instance variable that is a multidimensional double array, double d[][][], is [[[D.

4.3.3 Method Descriptors

A *method descriptor* represents the parameters that the method takes and the value that it returns:

```
MethodDescriptor:
( ParameterDescriptor* ) ReturnDescriptor
```

A *parameter descriptor* represents a parameter passed to a method:

```
ParameterDescriptor:
FieldType
```

A *return descriptor* represents the type of the value returned from a method. It is a series of characters generated by the grammar:

```
ReturnDescriptor:
FieldType
VoidDescriptor

VoidDescriptor:
```

The character v indicates that the method returns no value (its return type is void).

A method descriptor is valid only if it represents method parameters with a total length of 255 or less, where that length includes the contribution for this in the case of instance or interface method invocations. The total length is calculated by summing the contributions of the individual parameters, where a parameter of type long or double contributes two units to the length and a parameter of any other type contributes one unit.

The method descriptor for the method:

```
Object m(int i, double d, Thread t) {..}
```

is (IDLjava/lang/Thread;)Ljava/lang/Object;. Note that the internal forms of the binary names of Thread and Object are used.

The method descriptor for m is the same whether m is a class method or an instance method. Although an instance method is passed this, a reference to the current class instance, in addition to its intended parameters, that fact is not reflected in the method descriptor. The reference to this is passed implicitly by the method invocation instructions of the Java Virtual Machine that invoke instance methods (§2.6.1). A reference to this is not passed to a class method.

4.3.4 Signatures

Signatures are used to encode Java programming language type information that is not part of the Java Virtual Machine type system, such as generic type and method declarations and parameterized types. See *The Java Language Specification*, *Java SE 7 Edition* for details about such types.

This kind of type information is needed to support reflection and debugging, and by a Java compiler.

In the following, the terminal symbol *Identifier* is used to denote the name of a type, field, local variable, parameter, method, or type variable, as generated by a Java compiler. Such a name must not contain any of the ASCII characters . ; [/ < > : (that is, the characters forbidden in method names (§4.2.2) and also colon) but may

contain characters that must not appear in an identifier in the Java programming language (JLS §3.8).

A class signature, defined by the production *ClassSignature*, is used to encode type information about a class declaration. It describes any formal type parameters the class might have, and lists its (possibly parameterized) direct superclass and direct superinterfaces, if any.

ClassSignature:

FormalTypeParameters_{opt} SuperclassSignature SuperinterfaceSignature*

A formal type parameter is described by its name, followed by its class and interface bounds. If the class bound does not specify a type, it is taken to be <code>Object</code>.

FormalTypeParameters: < FormalTypeParameter+ >

FormalTypeParameter: Identifier ClassBound InterfaceBound*

ClassBound:

: FieldTypeSignatureopt

InterfaceBound:

: FieldTypeSignature

SuperclassSignature: ClassTypeSignature

SuperinterfaceSignature: ClassTypeSignature

A field type signature, defined by the production *FieldTypeSignature*, encodes the (possibly parameterized) type for a field, parameter or local variable.

FieldTypeSignature:
ClassTypeSignature
ArrayTypeSignature
TypeVariableSignature

A class type signature gives complete type information for a class or interface type. The class type signature must be formulated such that it can be reliably mapped

to the binary name of the class it denotes by erasing any type arguments and converting each . character in the signature to a \$ character.

```
ClassTypeSignature:
  L PackageSpecifier<sub>opt</sub> SimpleClassTypeSignature ClassTypeSignatureSuffix*;
PackageSpecifier:
  Identifier / PackageSpecifier*
SimpleClassTypeSignature:
  Identifier TypeArgumentsopt
ClassTypeSignatureSuffix:
  . SimpleClassTypeSignature
TypeVariableSignature:
  т Identifier ;
TypeArguments:
  < TypeArgument+ >
TypeArgument:
  WildcardIndicator<sub>opt</sub> FieldTypeSignature
WildcardIndicator:
ArrayTypeSignature:
  [ TypeSignature
TypeSignature:
  FieldTypeSignature
  BaseType
```

A method signature, defined by the production *MethodTypeSignature*, encodes the (possibly parameterized) types of the method's formal arguments and of the exceptions it has declared in its throws clause, its (possibly parameterized) return type, and any formal type parameters in the method declaration.

```
MethodTypeSignature:
```

 $Formal Type Parameters_{opt}$ (Type Signature*) $Return Type \ Throws Signature*$

ReturnType:

TypeSignature VoidDescriptor

ThrowsSignature:

- ^ ClassTypeSignature
- ^ TypeVariableSignature

If the throws clause of a method or constructor does not involve type variables, the *ThowsSignature* may be elided from the *MethodTypeSignature*.

A Java compiler must output generic signature information for any class, interface, constructor or member whose generic signature in the Java programming language would include references to type variables or parameterized types.

The signature and descriptor (§4.3.3) of a given method or constructor may not correspond exactly, due to compiler-generated artifacts. In particular, the number of *TypeSignatures* that encode formal arguments in *MethodTypeSignature* may be less than the number of *ParameterDescriptors* in *MethodDescriptor*.

Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation does not check the well-formedness of the signatures described in this subsection during loading or linking. Instead, these checks are deferred until the signatures are used by reflective methods, as specified in the API of Class and members of java.lang.reflect. Future versions of a Java Virtual Machine implementation may be required to perform some or all of these checks during loading or linking.

4.4 The Constant Pool

Java Virtual Machine instructions do not rely on the run-time layout of classes, interfaces, class instances, or arrays. Instead, instructions refer to symbolic information in the constant pool table.

All constant_pool table entries have the following general format:

```
cp_info {
    u1 tag;
    u1 info[];
}
```

Each item in the constant_pool table must begin with a 1-byte tag indicating the kind of cp_info entry. The contents of the info array vary with the value of tag. The valid tags and their values are listed in Table 4.3. Each tag byte must be followed by two or more bytes giving information about the specific constant. The format of the additional information varies with the tag value.

Table 4.3. Constant pool tags

Constant Type	Value
CONSTANT_Class	7
CONSTANT_Fieldref	9
CONSTANT_Methodref	10
CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref	11
CONSTANT_String	8
CONSTANT_Integer	3
CONSTANT_Float	4
CONSTANT_Long	5
CONSTANT_Double	6
CONSTANT_NameAndType	12
CONSTANT_Utf8	1
CONSTANT_MethodHandle	15
CONSTANT_MethodType	16
CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic	18

4.4.1 The CONSTANT_Class_info Structure

The CONSTANT_Class_info structure is used to represent a class or an interface:

```
CONSTANT_Class_info {
   u1 tag;
   u2 name_index;
}
```

The items of the CONSTANT_Class_info structure are the following:

tag

The tag item has the value CONSTANT_Class (7).

name_index

The value of the name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a valid binary class or interface name encoded in internal form (§4.2.1).

Because arrays are objects, the opcodes *anewarray* and *multianewarray* can reference array "classes" via CONSTANT_Class_info structures in the constant_pool table. For such array classes, the name of the class is the descriptor of the array type.

For example, the class name representing a two-dimensional int array type

```
int[][]
is

[[I
The class name representing the type array of class Thread
Thread[]
is

[Ljava/lang/Thread;
```

An array type descriptor is valid only if it represents 255 or fewer dimensions.

4.4.2 The CONSTANT_Fieldref_info, CONSTANT_Methodref_info, and CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref_info Structures

Fields, methods, and interface methods are represented by similar structures:

```
CONSTANT_Fieldref_info {
    u1 tag;
    u2 class_index;
    u2 name_and_type_index;
}

CONSTANT_Methodref_info {
    u1 tag;
    u2 class_index;
    u2 name_and_type_index;
}

CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref_info {
    u1 tag;
    u2 class_index;
    u2 name_and_type_index;
}
```

The items of these structures are as follows:

tag

The tag item of a CONSTANT_Fieldref_info structure has the value CONSTANT_Fieldref (9).

The tag item of a CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure has the value CONSTANT_Methodref (10).

The tag item of a CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref_info structure has the value CONSTANT InterfaceMethodref (11).

```
class_index
```

The value of the class_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Class_info (§4.4.1) structure representing a class or interface type that has the field or method as a member.

The class_index item of a CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure must be a class type, not an interface type.

The class_index item of a CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref_info structure must be an interface type.

The class_index item of a CONSTANT_Fieldref_info structure may be either a class type or an interface type.

```
name_and_type_index
```

The value of the name_and_type_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a

CONSTANT_NameAndType_info (§4.4.6) structure. This constant_pool entry indicates the name and descriptor of the field or method.

In a CONSTANT_Fieldref_info, the indicated descriptor must be a field descriptor (§4.3.2). Otherwise, the indicated descriptor must be a method descriptor (§4.3.3).

If the name of the method of a CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure begins with a '<' ('\u003c'), then the name must be the special name <init>, representing an instance initialization method (§2.9). The return type of such a method must be void.

4.4.3 The CONSTANT_String_info Structure

The CONSTANT_String_info structure is used to represent constant objects of the type String:

```
CONSTANT_String_info {
   u1 tag;
   u2 string_index;
}
```

The items of the CONSTANT_String_info structure are as follows:

tag

The tag item of the CONSTANT_String_info structure has the value CONSTANT_String (8).

```
string_index
```

The value of the string_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the sequence of Unicode code points to which the String object is to be initialized.

4.4.4 The CONSTANT_Integer_info and CONSTANT_Float_info Structures

The CONSTANT_Integer_info and CONSTANT_Float_info structures represent 4-byte numeric (int and float) constants:

```
CONSTANT_Integer_info {
    u1 tag;
    u4 bytes;
}

CONSTANT_Float_info {
    u1 tag;
    u4 bytes;
}
```

The items of these structures are as follows:

tag

The tag item of the CONSTANT_Integer_info structure has the value CONSTANT_Integer (3).

The tag item of the CONSTANT_Float_info structure has the value CONSTANT_Float (4).

bytes

The bytes item of the CONSTANT_Integer_info structure represents the value of the int constant. The bytes of the value are stored in big-endian (high byte first) order.

The bytes item of the CONSTANT_Float_info structure represents the value of the float constant in IEEE 754 floating-point single format (§2.3.2). The bytes of the single format representation are stored in big-endian (high byte first) order.

The value represented by the CONSTANT_Float_info structure is determined as follows. The bytes of the value are first converted into an int constant *bits*. Then:

- If bits is 0x7f800000, the float value will be positive infinity.
- If *bits* is 0xff800000, the float value will be negative infinity.
- If *bits* is in the range 0x7f800001 through 0x7fffffff or in the range 0xff800001 through 0xffffffff, the float value will be NaN.
- In all other cases, let s, e, and m be three values that might be computed from *bits*:

Then the float value equals the result of the mathematical expression $s \cdot m \cdot 2^{e-150}$.

4.4.5 The CONSTANT Long info and CONSTANT Double info Structures

The CONSTANT_Long_info and CONSTANT_Double_info represent 8-byte numeric (long and double) constants:

```
CONSTANT_Long_info {
    u1 tag;
    u4 high_bytes;
    u4 low_bytes;
}

CONSTANT_Double_info {
    u1 tag;
    u4 high_bytes;
    u4 low_bytes;
}
```

All 8-byte constants take up two entries in the constant_pool table of the class file. If a CONSTANT_Long_info or CONSTANT_Double_info structure is the item in the constant_pool table at index n, then the next usable item in the pool is located at index n+2. The constant_pool index n+1 must be valid but is considered unusable.

In retrospect, making 8-byte constants take two constant pool entries was a poor choice.

The items of these structures are as follows:

tag

The tag item of the CONSTANT_Long_info structure has the value CONSTANT_Long (5).

The tag item of the CONSTANT_Double_info structure has the value CONSTANT_Double (6).

```
high_bytes, low_bytes
```

The unsigned high_bytes and low_bytes items of the CONSTANT_Long_info structure together represent the value of the long constant

```
((long) high_bytes << 32) + low_bytes
```

where the bytes of each of high_bytes and low_bytes are stored in big-endian (high byte first) order.

The high_bytes and low_bytes items of the CONSTANT_Double_info structure together represent the double value in IEEE 754 floating-point double format (§2.3.2). The bytes of each item are stored in big-endian (high byte first) order.

The value represented by the CONSTANT_Double_info structure is determined as follows. The high_bytes and low_bytes items are converted into the long constant *bits*, which is equal to

```
((long) high_bytes << 32) + low_bytes
```

Then:

- If bits is 0x7ff0000000000000, the double value will be positive infinity.
- If bits is 0xfff0000000000000, the double value will be negative infinity.
- In all other cases, let s, e, and m be three values that might be computed from *bits*:

Then the floating-point value equals the double value of the mathematical expression $s \cdot m \cdot 2^{e-1075}$.

4.4.6 The CONSTANT_NameAndType_info Structure

The CONSTANT_NameAndType_info structure is used to represent a field or method, without indicating which class or interface type it belongs to:

```
CONSTANT_NameAndType_info {
   u1 tag;
   u2 name_index;
   u2 descriptor_index;
}
```

The items of the CONSTANT_NameAndType_info structure are as follows:

tag

The tag item of the CONSTANT_NameAndType_info structure has the value CONSTANT_NameAndType (12).

name index

The value of the name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing either the special method name <init> (§2.9) or a valid unqualified name (§4.2.2) denoting a field or method.

```
descriptor_index
```

The value of the descriptor_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a valid field descriptor (§4.3.2) or method descriptor (§4.3.3).

4.4.7 The CONSTANT_Utf8_info Structure

The CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure is used to represent constant string values:

```
CONSTANT_Utf8_info {
   u1 tag;
   u2 length;
   u1 bytes[length];
}
```

The items of the CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure are the following:

tag

The tag item of the CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure has the value CONSTANT_Utf8 (1).

length

The value of the length item gives the number of bytes in the bytes array (not the length of the resulting string). The strings in the CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure are not null-terminated.

```
bytes[]
```

The bytes array contains the bytes of the string. No byte may have the value (byte)0 or lie in the range (byte)0xf0 - (byte)0xff.

String content is encoded in modified UTF-8. Modified UTF-8 strings are encoded so that code point sequences that contain only non-null ASCII characters can be

represented using only 1 byte per code point, but all code points in the Unicode codespace can be represented.

• Code points in the range '\u0001' to '\u007F' are represented by a single byte:

The 7 bits of data in the byte give the value of the code point represented.

• The null code point ('\u0000') and code points in the range '\u0080' to '\u07FF' are represented by a pair of bytes x and y:

x:	1	1	0	bits 10-6
λ:	1	0		bits 5-0

The bytes represent the code point with the value:

```
((x \& 0x1f) << 6) + (y \& 0x3f)
```

Code points in the range '\u0800' to '\uFFFF' are represented by 3 bytes x, y, and z:

x:	1	1	1	0		bits 15-12
À:	1	0			bits	11-6
z:	1	0			bits	5-0

The three bytes represent the code point with the value:

```
((x \& 0xf) << 12) + ((y \& 0x3f) << 6) + (z \& 0x3f)
```

• Characters with code points above U+FFFF (so-called *supplementary characters*) are represented by separately encoding the two surrogate code units of their UTF-16 representation. Each of the surrogate code units is represented by three bytes. This means supplementary characters are represented by six bytes, u, v, w, x, y, and z:

u:	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1
v:	1	0	1	0	(bits 20-16)-1			
w:	1	0	bits 15-10					
x:	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1
λ:	1	0	1 1 bits 9-6					
z:	1	0	bits 5-0					

The six bytes represent the code point with the value:

```
0x10000 + ((v \& 0x0f) << 16) + ((w \& 0x3f) << 10) + ((v \& 0x0f) << 6) + (z & 0x3f)
```

The bytes of multibyte characters are stored in the class file in big-endian (high byte first) order.

There are two differences between this format and the "standard" UTF-8 format. First, the null character (char) 0 is encoded using the 2-byte format rather than the 1-byte format, so that modified UTF-8 strings never have embedded nulls. Second, only the 1-byte, 2-byte, and 3-byte formats of standard UTF-8 are used. The Java Virtual Machine does not recognize the four-byte format of standard UTF-8; it uses its own two-times-three-byte format instead.

For more information regarding the standard UTF-8 format, see Section 3.9 *Unicode Encoding Forms* of *The Unicode Standard, Version 6.0.0*.

4.4.8 The CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info Structure

The CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info structure is used to represent a method handle:

```
CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info {
    u1 tag;
    u1 reference_kind;
    u2 reference_index;
}
```

The items of the CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info structure are the following:

taq

The tag item of the CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info structure has the value CONSTANT_MethodHandle (15).

reference_kind

The value of the reference_kind item must be in the range 1 to 9. The value denotes the *kind* of this method handle, which characterizes its bytecode behavior (§5.4.3.5).

```
reference_index
```

The value of the reference_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table.

If the value of the reference_kind item is 1 (REF_getField), 2 (REF_getStatic), 3 (REF_putField), or 4 (REF_putStatic), then the constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Fieldref_info (§4.4.2) structure representing a field for which a method handle is to be created.

If the value of the reference_kind item is 5 (REF_invokeVirtual), 6 (REF_invokeStatic), 7 (REF_invokeSpecial), or 8 (REF_newInvokeSpecial), then the constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure (§4.4.2) representing a class's method or constructor (§2.9) for which a method handle is to be created.

If the value of the reference_kind item is 9 (REF_invokeInterface), then the constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref_info ($\S4.4.2$) structure representing an interface's method for which a method handle is to be created.

If the value of the reference_kind item is 5 (REF_invokeVirtual), 6 (REF_invokeStatic), 7 (REF_invokeSpecial), or 9 (REF_invokeInterface), the name of the method represented by a CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure must not be <init> or <clinit>.

If the value is 8 (REF_newInvokeSpecial), the name of the method represented by a CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure must be <init>.

4.4.9 The CONSTANT_MethodType_info Structure

The CONSTANT MethodType info structure is used to represent a method type:

```
CONSTANT_MethodType_info {
   u1 tag;
   u2 descriptor_index;
}
```

The items of the CONSTANT_MethodType_info structure are as follows:

tag

The tag item of the CONSTANT_MethodType_info structure has the value CONSTANT_MethodType (16).

```
descriptor_index
```

The value of the descriptor_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a method descriptor (§4.3.3).

4.4.10 The CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info Structure

The CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info structure is used by an *invokedynamic* instruction (§*invokedynamic*) to specify a bootstrap method, the dynamic invocation name, the argument and return types of the call, and optionally, a sequence of additional constants called *static arguments* to the bootstrap method.

```
CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info {
   u1 tag;
   u2 bootstrap_method_attr_index;
   u2 name_and_type_index;
}
```

The items of the CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info structure are as follows:

tag

The tag item of the CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info structure has the value CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic (18).

```
bootstrap_method_attr_index
```

The value of the bootstrap_method_attr_index item must be a valid index into the bootstrap_methods array of the bootstrap method table (§4.7.21) of this class file.

```
name_and_type_index
```

The value of the name_and_type_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_NameAndType_info (§4.4.6) structure representing a method name and method descriptor (§4.3.3).

4.5 Fields

Each field is described by a field_info structure. No two fields in one class file may have the same name and descriptor (§4.3.2).

The structure has the following format:

The items of the field info structure are as follows:

```
access_flags
```

The value of the access_flags item is a mask of flags used to denote access permission to and properties of this field. The interpretation of each flag, when set, is as shown in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4. Field access and property flags

Flag Name	Value	Interpretation
ACC_PUBLIC	0x0001	Declared public; may be accessed from outside its package.
ACC_PRIVATE	0x0002	Declared private; usable only within the defining class.
ACC_PROTECTED	0x0004	Declared protected; may be accessed within subclasses.
ACC_STATIC	0x0008	Declared static.
ACC_FINAL	0x0010	Declared final; never directly assigned to after object construction (JLS §17.5).
ACC_VOLATILE	0x0040	Declared volatile; cannot be cached.
ACC_TRANSIENT	0x0080	Declared transient; not written or read by a persistent object manager.
ACC_SYNTHETIC	0x1000	Declared synthetic; not present in the source code.
ACC_ENUM	0x4000	Declared as an element of an enum.

A field may be marked with the ACC_SYNTHETIC flag to indicate that it was generated by a compiler and does not appear in source code.

The ACC_ENUM flag indicates that this field is used to hold an element of an enumerated type.

Fields of classes may set any of the flags in Table 4.4. However, a specific field of a class may have at most one of its ACC_PRIVATE, ACC_PROTECTED, and ACC_PUBLIC flags set (JLS §8.3.1) and must not have both its ACC_FINAL and ACC_VOLATILE flags set (JLS §8.3.1.4).

All fields of interfaces must have their ACC_PUBLIC, ACC_STATIC, and ACC_FINAL flags set; they may have their ACC_SYNTHETIC flag set and must not have any of the other flags in Table 4.4 set (JLS §9.3).

All bits of the access_flags item not assigned in Table 4.4 are reserved for future use. They should be set to zero in generated class files and should be ignored by Java Virtual Machine implementations.

name index

The value of the name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure which must represent a valid unqualified name (§4.2.2) denoting a field.

descriptor_index

The value of the descriptor_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure that must represent a valid field descriptor (§4.3.2).

attributes count

The value of the attributes_count item indicates the number of additional attributes (§4.7) of this field.

attributes[]

Each value of the attributes table must be an attribute structure (§4.7). A field can have any number of attributes associated with it.

The attributes defined by this specification as appearing the attributes table of a field info structure Constant Value $(\S4.7.2)$, Synthetic $(\S4.7.8)$, Signature (§4.7.9),Deprecated (§4.7.15), RuntimeVisibleAnnotations (§4.7.16)RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations (§4.7.17).

A Java Virtual Machine implementation must recognize and correctly read ConstantValue (§4.7.2) attributes found in the attributes table of a field_info structure. If a Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes

class files whose version number is 49.0 or above, it must recognize and correctly read Signature (§4.7.9), RuntimeVisibleAnnotations (§4.7.16) and RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations (§4.7.17) attributes found in the attributes table of a field_info structure of a class file whose version number is 49.0 or above.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation is required to silently ignore any or all attributes that it does not recognize in the attributes table of a field_info structure. Attributes not defined in this specification are not allowed to affect the semantics of the class file, but only to provide additional descriptive information (§4.7.1).

4.6 Methods

Each method, including each instance initialization method (§2.9) and the class or interface initialization method (§2.9), is described by a method_info structure. No two methods in one class file may have the same name and descriptor (§4.3.3).

The structure has the following format:

The items of the method_info structure are as follows:

```
access_flags
```

The value of the access_flags item is a mask of flags used to denote access permission to and properties of this method. The interpretation of each flag, when set, is as shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5. Method access and property flags

Flag Name	Value	Interpretation
ACC_PUBLIC	0x0001	Declared public; may be accessed from outside its package.
ACC_PRIVATE	0x0002	Declared private; accessible only within the defining class.
ACC_PROTECTED	0x0004	Declared protected; may be accessed within subclasses.
ACC_STATIC	0x0008	Declared static.
ACC_FINAL	0x0010	Declared final; must not be overridden (§5.4.5).
ACC_SYNCHRONIZED	0x0020	Declared synchronized; invocation is wrapped by a monitor use.
ACC_BRIDGE	0x0040	A bridge method, generated by the compiler.
ACC_VARARGS	0x0080	Declared with variable number of arguments.
ACC_NATIVE	0x0100	Declared native; implemented in a language other than Java.
ACC_ABSTRACT	0x0400	Declared abstract; no implementation is provided.
ACC_STRICT	0x0800	Declared strictfp; floating-point mode is FP-strict.
ACC_SYNTHETIC	0x1000	Declared synthetic; not present in the source code.

The ACC_VARARGS flag indicates that this method takes a variable number of arguments at the source code level. A method declared to take a variable number of arguments must be compiled with the ACC_VARARGS flag set to 1. All other methods must be compiled with the ACC_VARARGS flag set to 0.

The ACC_BRIDGE flag is used to indicate a bridge method generated by a Java compiler.

A method may be marked with the ACC_SYNTHETIC flag to indicate that it was generated by a compiler and does not appear in source code, unless it is one of the methods named in §4.7.8.

Methods of classes may set any of the flags in Table 4.5. However, a specific method of a class may have at most one of its ACC_PRIVATE, ACC_PROTECTED and ACC_PUBLIC flags set (JLS §8.4.3). If a specific method has its ACC_ABSTRACT flag set, it must not have any of its ACC_FINAL,

ACC_NATIVE, ACC_PRIVATE, ACC_STATIC, ACC_STRICT OF ACC_SYNCHRONIZED flags set (JLS §8.4.3.1, JLS §8.4.3.3, JLS §8.4.3.4).

All interface methods must have their ACC_ABSTRACT and ACC_PUBLIC flags set; they may have their ACC_VARARGS, ACC_BRIDGE and ACC_SYNTHETIC flags set and must not have any of the other flags in Table 4.5 set (JLS §9.4).

A specific instance initialization method (§2.9) may have at most one of its ACC_PRIVATE, ACC_PROTECTED, and ACC_PUBLIC flags set, and may also have its ACC_STRICT, ACC_VARARGS and ACC_SYNTHETIC flags set, but must not have any of the other flags in Table 4.5 set.

Class and interface initialization methods (§2.9) are called implicitly by the Java Virtual Machine. The value of their access_flags item is ignored except for the setting of the ACC_STRICT flag.

All bits of the access_flags item not assigned in Table 4.5 are reserved for future use. They should be set to zero in generated class files and should be ignored by Java Virtual Machine implementations.

name_index

The value of the name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing either one of the special method names (§2.9) <init> or <clinit>, or a valid unqualified name (§4.2.2) denoting a method.

descriptor_index

The value of the descriptor_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a valid method descriptor (§4.3.3).

A future edition of this specification may require that the last parameter descriptor of the method descriptor is an array type if the ACC_VARARGS flag is set in the access_flags item.

attributes count

The value of the attributes_count item indicates the number of additional attributes (§4.7) of this method.

attributes[]

Each value of the attributes table must be an attribute structure (§4.7). A method can have any number of optional attributes associated with it.

The attributes defined by this specification as appearing in the attributes table of a method_info structure are the Code ($\S4.7.3$), Exceptions ($\S4.7.5$), Synthetic ($\S4.7.8$), Signature ($\S4.7.9$), Deprecated ($\S4.7.15$), RuntimeVisibleAnnotations ($\S4.7.16$), RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations ($\S4.7.17$), RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations ($\S4.7.18$), RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations ($\S4.7.19$), and AnnotationDefault ($\S4.7.20$) attributes.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation must recognize and correctly read code (§4.7.3) and Exceptions (§4.7.5) attributes found in the attributes table of a method_info structure. If a Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes class files whose version number is 49.0 or above, it must recognize and correctly read Signature (§4.7.9), RuntimeVisibleAnnotations (§4.7.16), RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations (§4.7.17), RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations (§4.7.18), RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations (§4.7.19) and AnnotationDefault (§4.7.20) attributes found in the attributes table of a method_info structure of a class file whose version number is 49.0 or above.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation is required to silently ignore any or all attributes in the attributes table of a method_info structure that it does not recognize. Attributes not defined in this specification are not allowed to affect the semantics of the class file, but only to provide additional descriptive information (§4.7.1).

4.7 Attributes

Attributes are used in the ClassFile, field_info, method_info, and Code_attribute structures (§4.1, §4.5, §4.6, §4.7.3) of the class file format. All attributes have the following general format:

```
attribute_info {
   u2 attribute_name_index;
   u4 attribute_length;
   u1 info[attribute_length];
}
```

For all attributes, the attribute_name_index must be a valid unsigned 16-bit index into the constant pool of the class. The constant_pool entry at attribute_name_index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing the name of the attribute. The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the subsequent information in bytes. The length does

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not include the initial six bytes that contain the attribute_name_index and attribute_length items.

Certain attributes are predefined as part of the class file specification. They are listed in Table 4.6, accompanied by the version of the Java SE platform and the version of the class file format in which each first appeared. Within the context of their use in this specification, that is, in the attributes tables of the class file structures in which they appear, the names of these predefined attributes are reserved. Of the predefined attributes:

- The ConstantValue, Code and Exceptions attributes must be recognized and correctly read by a class file reader for correct interpretation of the class file by a Java Virtual Machine implementation.
- The InnerClasses, EnclosingMethod and Synthetic attributes must be recognized and correctly read by a class file reader in order to properly implement the Java SE platform class libraries (§2.12).
- The RuntimeVisibleAnnotations, RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations, RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations, RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations and AnnotationDefault attributes must be recognized and correctly read by a class file reader in order to properly implement the Java SE platform class libraries (§2.12), if the class file's version number is 49.0 or above and the Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes class files whose version number is 49.0 or above.
- The Signature attribute must be recognized and correctly read by a class file reader if the class file's version number is 49.0 or above and the Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes class files whose version number is 49.0 or above.
- The StackMapTable attribute must be recognized and correctly read by a class file reader if the class file's version number is 50.0 or above and the Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes class files whose version number is 50.0 or above.
- The BootstrapMethods attribute must be recognized and correctly read by a class file reader if the class file's version number is 51.0 or above and the Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes class files whose version number is 51.0 or above.

Use of the remaining predefined attributes is optional; a class file reader may use the information they contain, or otherwise must silently ignore those attributes.

Table 4.6. Predefined class file attributes

Attribute	Section	Java SE	class file
ConstantValue	§4.7.2	1.0.2	45.3
Code	§4.7.3	1.0.2	45.3
StackMapTable	§4.7.4	6	50.0
Exceptions	§4.7.5	1.0.2	45.3
InnerClasses	§4.7.6	1.1	45.3
EnclosingMethod	§4.7.7	5.0	49.0
Synthetic	§4.7.8	1.1	45.3
Signature	§4.7.9	5.0	49.0
SourceFile	§4.7.10	1.0.2	45.3
SourceDebugExtension	§4.7.11	5.0	49.0
LineNumberTable	§4.7.12	1.0.2	45.3
LocalVariableTable	§4.7.13	1.0.2	45.3
LocalVariableTypeTable	§4.7.14	5.0	49.0
Deprecated	§4.7.15	1.1	45.3
RuntimeVisibleAnnotations	§4.7.16	5.0	49.0
RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations	§4.7.17	5.0	49.0
RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations	§4.7.18	5.0	49.0
RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations	§4.7.19	5.0	49.0
AnnotationDefault	§4.7.20	5.0	49.0
BootstrapMethods	§4.7.21	7	51.0

4.7.1 Defining and Naming New Attributes

Compilers are permitted to define and emit class files containing new attributes in the attributes tables of class file structures. Java Virtual Machine implementations are permitted to recognize and use new attributes found in the attributes tables of class file structures. However, any attribute not defined as part of this Java Virtual Machine specification must not affect the semantics of class or interface types. Java Virtual Machine implementations are required to silently ignore attributes they do not recognize.

For instance, defining a new attribute to support vendor-specific debugging is permitted. Because Java Virtual Machine implementations are required to ignore attributes they do not recognize, class files intended for that particular Java Virtual Machine implementation will be usable by other implementations even if those implementations cannot make use of the additional debugging information that the class files contain.

Java Virtual Machine implementations are specifically prohibited from throwing an exception or otherwise refusing to use class files simply because of the presence of some new attribute. Of course, tools operating on class files may not run correctly if given class files that do not contain all the attributes they require.

Two attributes that are intended to be distinct, but that happen to use the same attribute name and are of the same length, will conflict on implementations that recognize either attribute. Attributes defined other than in this specification must have names chosen according to the package naming convention described in *The Java Language Specification*, *Java SE 7 Edition* (JLS §6.1).

Future versions of this specification may define additional attributes.

4.7.2 The Constant Value Attribute

The ConstantValue attribute is a fixed-length attribute in the attributes table of a field_info structure (§4.5). A ConstantValue attribute represents the value of a constant field. There can be no more than one ConstantValue attribute in the attributes table of a given field_info structure. If the field is static (that is, the ACC_STATIC flag (Table 4.4) in the access_flags item of the field_info structure is set) then the constant field represented by the field_info structure is assigned the value referenced by its ConstantValue attribute as part of the initialization of the class or interface declaring the constant field (§5.5). This occurs prior to the invocation of the class or interface initialization method (§2.9) of that class or interface.

If a field_info structure representing a non-static field has a ConstantValue attribute, then that attribute must silently be ignored. Every Java Virtual Machine implementation must recognize ConstantValue attributes.

The Constant Value attribute has the following format:

```
ConstantValue_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 constantvalue_index;
}
```

4.7

4.7 Attributes THE CLASS FILE FORMAT

The items of the Constant Value attribute structure are as follows:

attribute_name_index

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "ConstantValue".

attribute_length

The value of the attribute_length item of a ConstantValue_attribute structure must be 2.

constantvalue index

The value of the constantvalue_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index gives the constant value represented by this attribute. The constant_pool entry must be of a type appropriate to the field, as shown by Table 4.7.

Field Type	Entry Type
long	CONSTANT_Long
float	CONSTANT_Float
double	CONSTANT_Double
int, short, char, byte, boolean	CONSTANT_Integer
String	CONSTANT_String

Table 4.7. Constant value attribute types

4.7.3 The Code Attribute

The code attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a method_info (§4.6) structure. A code attribute contains the Java Virtual Machine instructions and auxiliary information for a single method, instance initialization method (§2.9), or class or interface initialization method (§2.9). Every Java Virtual Machine implementation must recognize code attributes. If the method is either native or abstract, its method_info structure must not have a code attribute. Otherwise, its method_info structure must have exactly one code attribute.

The code attribute has the following format:

```
Code_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 max_stack;
    u2 max_locals;
    u4 code_length;
    u1 code[code_length];
    u2 exception_table_length;
        u2 start_pc;
        u2 end_pc;
        u2 handler_pc;
        u2 catch type;
    } exception_table[exception_table_length];
    u2 attributes_count;
    attribute info attributes[attributes count];
}
```

The items of the Code_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "code".

```
attribute length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

```
max_stack
```

The value of the max_stack item gives the maximum depth of the operand stack of this method (§2.6.2) at any point during execution of the method.

```
max_locals
```

The value of the max_locals item gives the number of local variables in the local variable array allocated upon invocation of this method (§2.6.1), including the local variables used to pass parameters to the method on its invocation.

The greatest local variable index for a value of type long or double is max_locals - 2. The greatest local variable index for a value of any other type is max_locals - 1.

```
code_length
```

The value of the code_length item gives the number of bytes in the code array for this method. The value of code_length must be greater than zero; the code array must not be empty.

code[]

The code array gives the actual bytes of Java Virtual Machine code that implement the method.

When the code array is read into memory on a byte-addressable machine, if the first byte of the array is aligned on a 4-byte boundary, the *tableswitch* and *lookupswitch* 32-bit offsets will be 4-byte aligned. (Refer to the descriptions of those instructions for more information on the consequences of code array alignment.)

The detailed constraints on the contents of the code array are extensive and are given in a separate section (§4.9).

```
exception_table_length
```

The value of the exception_table_length item gives the number of entries in the exception_table table.

```
exception_table[]
```

Each entry in the exception_table array describes one exception handler in the code array. The order of the handlers in the exception_table array is significant (§2.10).

Each exception_table entry contains the following four items:

```
start_pc, end_pc
```

The values of the two items start_pc and end_pc indicate the ranges in the code array at which the exception handler is active. The value of start_pc must be a valid index into the code array of the opcode of an instruction. The value of end_pc either must be a valid index into the code array of the opcode of an instruction or must be equal to code_length, the length of the code array. The value of start_pc must be less than the value of end_pc.

The start_pc is inclusive and end_pc is exclusive; that is, the exception handler must be active while the program counter is within the interval [start_pc, end_pc).

The fact that end_pc is exclusive is a historical mistake in the design of the Java Virtual Machine: if the Java Virtual Machine code for a method is exactly 65535 bytes long and ends with an instruction that is 1 byte long, then that instruction cannot be protected by an exception handler. A compiler writer can work around this bug by limiting the maximum size of the generated Java Virtual Machine code for any method, instance initialization method, or static initializer (the size of any code array) to 65534 bytes.

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handler_pc

The value of the handler_pc item indicates the start of the exception handler. The value of the item must be a valid index into the code array and must be the index of the opcode of an instruction.

catch_type

If the value of the <code>catch_type</code> item is nonzero, it must be a valid index into the <code>constant_pool</code> table. The <code>constant_pool</code> entry at that index must be a <code>constant_Class_info</code> structure (§4.4.1) representing a class of exceptions that this exception handler is designated to catch. The exception handler will be called only if the thrown exception is an instance of the given class or one of its subclasses.

If the value of the catch_type item is zero, this exception handler is called for all exceptions. This is used to implement finally (§3.13).

attributes count

The value of the attributes_count item indicates the number of attributes of the code attribute.

attributes[]

Each value of the attributes table must be an attribute structure (§4.7). A code attribute can have any number of optional attributes associated with it.

The only attributes defined by this specification as appearing in the attributes table of a Code attribute are the LineNumberTable (§4.7.12), LocalVariableTable (§4.7.13), LocalVariableTypeTable (§4.7.14), and StackMapTable (§4.7.4) attributes.

If a Java Virtual Machine implementation recognizes class files whose version number is 50.0 or above, it must recognize and correctly read StackMapTable (§4.7.4) attributes found in the attributes table of a Code attribute of a class file whose version number is 50.0 or above.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation is required to silently ignore any or all attributes in the attributes table of a Code attribute that it does not recognize. Attributes not defined in this specification are not allowed to affect the semantics of the class file, but only to provide additional descriptive information (§4.7.1).

4.7.4 The StackMapTable Attribute

The StackMapTable attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a Code (§4.7.3) attribute. This attribute is used during the process of verification

by type checking (§4.10.1). A method's Code attribute may have at most one StackMapTable attribute.

A StackMapTable attribute consists of zero or more *stack map frames*. Each stack map frame specifies (either explicitly or implicitly) a bytecode offset, the verification types (§4.10.1.2) for the local variables, and the verification types for the operand stack.

The type checker deals with and manipulates the expected types of a method's local variables and operand stack. Throughout this section, a *location* refers to either a single local variable or to a single operand stack entry.

We will use the terms *stack map frame* and *type state* interchangeably to describe a mapping from locations in the operand stack and local variables of a method to verification types. We will usually use the term *stack map frame* when such a mapping is provided in the class file, and the term *type state* when the mapping is used by the type checker.

In a class file whose version number is greater than or equal to 50.0, if a method's code attribute does not have a StackMapTable attribute, it has an *implicit stack map attribute*. This implicit stack map attribute is equivalent to a StackMapTable attribute with number_of_entries equal to zero.

The StackMapTable attribute has the following format:

The items of the StackMapTable_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "StackMapTable".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

```
number_of_entries
```

The value of the number_of_entries item gives the number of stack_map_frame entries in the entries table.

entries

The entries array gives the method's stack_map_frame structures.

Each stack_map_frame structure specifies the type state at a particular bytecode offset. Each frame type specifies (explicitly or implicitly) a value, offset_delta, that is used to calculate the actual bytecode offset at which a frame applies. The bytecode offset at which a frame applies is calculated by adding offset_delta + 1 to the bytecode offset of the previous frame, unless the previous frame is the initial frame of the method, in which case the bytecode offset is offset_delta.

By using an offset delta rather than the actual bytecode offset we ensure, by definition, that stack map frames are in the correctly sorted order. Furthermore, by consistently using the formula offset_delta + 1 for all explicit frames, we guarantee the absence of duplicates.

We say that an instruction in the bytecode has a corresponding stack map frame if the instruction starts at offset i in the code array of a code attribute, and the code attribute has a StackMapTable attribute whose entries array has a stack_map_frame structure that applies at bytecode offset i.

The stack_map_frame structure consists of a one-byte tag followed by zero or more bytes, giving more information, depending upon the tag.

A stack map frame may belong to one of several frame types:

```
union stack_map_frame {
    same_frame;
    same_locals_1_stack_item_frame;
    same_locals_1_stack_item_frame_extended;
    chop_frame;
    same_frame_extended;
    append_frame;
    full_frame;
}
```

All frame types, even full_frame, rely on the previous frame for some of their semantics. This raises the question of what is the very first frame? The initial frame is implicit, and computed from the method descriptor. (See the Prolog predicate methodInitialStackFrame (§4.10.1.6).)

• The frame type same_frame is represented by tags in the range [0-63]. If the frame type is same_frame, it means the frame has exactly the same locals as

the previous stack map frame and that the number of stack items is zero. The offset_delta value for the frame is the value of the tag item, frame_type.

```
same_frame {
    u1 frame_type = SAME; /* 0-63 */
}
```

• The frame type same_locals_1_stack_item_frame is represented by tags in the range [64, 127]. If the frame_type is same_locals_1_stack_item_frame, it means the frame has exactly the same locals as the previous stack map frame and that the number of stack items is 1. The offset_delta value for the frame is the value (frame_type - 64). There is a verification_type_info following the frame_type for the one stack item.

```
same_locals_1_stack_item_frame {
   ul frame_type = SAME_LOCALS_1_STACK_ITEM; /* 64-127 */
   verification_type_info stack[1];
}
```

Tags in the range [128-246] are reserved for future use.

• The frame type same_locals_1_stack_item_frame_extended is represented by the tag 247. The frame type same_locals_1_stack_item_frame_extended indicates that the frame has exactly the same locals as the previous stack map frame and that the number of stack items is 1. The offset_delta value for the frame is given explicitly. There is a verification_type_info following the frame_type for the one stack item.

```
same_locals_1_stack_item_frame_extended {
   u1 frame_type = SAME_LOCALS_1_STACK_ITEM_EXTENDED; /* 247 */
   u2 offset_delta;
   verification_type_info stack[1];
}
```

• The frame type <code>chop_frame</code> is represented by tags in the range [248-250]. If the <code>frame_type</code> is <code>chop_frame</code>, it means that the operand stack is empty and the current locals are the same as the locals in the previous frame, except that the <code>k</code> last locals are absent. The value of <code>k</code> is given by the formula 251 - <code>frame_type</code>.

```
chop_frame {
    u1 frame_type = CHOP; /* 248-250 */
    u2 offset_delta;
}
```

• The frame type same_frame_extended is represented by the tag value 251. If the frame type is same_frame_extended, it means the frame has exactly the same locals as the previous stack map frame and that the number of stack items is zero.

```
same_frame_extended {
    u1 frame_type = SAME_FRAME_EXTENDED; /* 251 */
    u2 offset_delta;
}
```

• The frame type append_frame is represented by tags in the range [252-254]. If the frame_type is append_frame, it means that the operand stack is empty and the current locals are the same as the locals in the previous frame, except that k additional locals are defined. The value of k is given by the formula frame_type - 251.

```
append_frame {
    u1 frame_type = APPEND; /* 252-254 */
    u2 offset_delta;
    verification_type_info locals[frame_type - 251];
}
```

The 0th entry in locals represents the type of the first additional local variable. If locals[M] represents local variable N, then locals[M+1] represents local variable N+1 if locals[M] is one of:

- Top_variable_info
- Integer_variable_info
- Float_variable_info
- Null_variable_info
- UninitializedThis_variable_info
- * Object_variable_info
- Uninitialized_variable_info

Otherwise locals[M+1] represents local variable N+2.

It is an error if, for any index i, locals[i] represents a local variable whose index is greater than the maximum number of local variables for the method.

• The frame type full_frame is represented by the tag value 255.

```
full_frame {
    u1 frame_type = FULL_FRAME; /* 255 */
    u2 offset_delta;
    u2 number_of_locals;
    verification_type_info locals[number_of_locals];
    u2 number_of_stack_items;
    verification_type_info stack[number_of_stack_items];
}
```

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The 0th entry in locals represents the type of local variable 0. If locals[M] represents local variable N, then locals[M+1] represents local variable N+1 if locals[M] is one of:

- Top_variable_info
- Integer_variable_info
- Float_variable_info
- * Null_variable_info
- UninitializedThis_variable_info
- * Object_variable_info
- Uninitialized variable info

Otherwise locals[M+1] represents local variable N+2.

It is an error if, for any index i, locals[i] represents a local variable whose index is greater than the maximum number of local variables for the method.

The 0th entry in stack represents the type of the bottom of the stack, and subsequent entries represent types of stack elements closer to the top of the operand stack. We shall refer to the bottom element of the stack as stack element 0, and to subsequent elements as stack element 1, 2 etc. If stack[M] represents stack element N, then stack[M+1] represents stack element N+1 if stack[M] is one of:

- Top_variable_info
- Integer_variable_info
- Float variable info
- * Null_variable_info
- UninitializedThis_variable_info
- Object_variable_info
- Uninitialized_variable_info

Otherwise, stack[M+1] represents stack element N+2.

It is an error if, for any index i, stack[i] represents a stack entry whose index is greater than the maximum operand stack size for the method.

The verification_type_info structure consists of a one-byte tag followed by zero or more bytes, giving more information about the tag. Each

verification_type_info structure specifies the verification type of one or two locations.

```
union verification_type_info {
    Top_variable_info;
    Integer_variable_info;
    Float_variable_info;
    Long_variable_info;
    Double_variable_info;
    Null_variable_info;
    UninitializedThis_variable_info;
    Uninitialized_variable_info;
}
```

• The Top_variable_info type indicates that the local variable has the verification type top.

```
Top_variable_info {
    ul tag = ITEM_Top; /* 0 */
}
```

• The Integer_variable_info type indicates that the location contains the verification type int.

```
Integer_variable_info {
    u1 tag = ITEM_Integer; /* 1 */
}
```

• The Float_variable_info type indicates that the location contains the verification type float.

```
Float_variable_info {
   u1 tag = ITEM_Float; /* 2 */
}
```

• The Long_variable_info type indicates that the location contains the verification type long.

```
Long_variable_info {
   u1 tag = ITEM_Long; /* 4 */
}
```

This structure gives the contents of two locations in the operand stack or in the local variable array.

If the location is a local variable, then:

- It must not be the local variable with the highest index.
- The next higher numbered local variable contains the verification type top.

If the location is an operand stack entry, then:

- The current location must not be the topmost location of the operand stack.
- The next location closer to the top of the operand stack contains the verification type top.
- The Double_variable_info type indicates that the location contains the verification type double.

```
Double_variable_info {
   u1 tag = ITEM_Double; /* 3 */
}
```

This structure gives the contents of two locations in the operand stack or in the local variable array.

If the location is a local variable, then:

- It must not be the local variable with the highest index.
- The next higher numbered local variable contains the verification type top.

If the location is an operand stack entry, then:

- The current location must not be the topmost location of the operand stack.
- The next location closer to the top of the operand stack contains the verification type top.
- The Null_variable_info type indicates that location contains the verification type null.

```
Null_variable_info {
    u1 tag = ITEM_Null; /* 5 */
}
```

• The UninitializedThis_variable_info type indicates that the location contains the verification type uninitializedThis.

```
UninitializedThis_variable_info {
   u1 tag = ITEM_UninitializedThis; /* 6 */
}
```

• The Object_variable_info type indicates that the location contains an instance of the class represented by the CONSTANT_Class_info (§4.4.1) structure found in the constant_pool table at the index given by cpool_index.

```
Object_variable_info {
    ul tag = ITEM_Object; /* 7 */
    u2 cpool_index;
```

 The Uninitialized variable info type indicates that the location contains the verification type uninitialized (offset). The offset item indicates the offset, in the code array of the code attribute (§4.7.3) that contains this StackMapTable attribute, of the *new* instruction (\{\}new\)) that created the object being stored in the location.

```
Uninitialized_variable_info {
    u1 tag = ITEM_Uninitialized /* 8 */
    u2 offset;
}
```

4.7.5 The Exceptions Attribute

The Exceptions attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a method_info structure (§4.6). The Exceptions attribute indicates which checked exceptions a method may throw. There may be at most one Exceptions attribute in each method_info structure.

The Exceptions attribute has the following format:

```
Exceptions_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 number_of_exceptions;
    u2 exception_index_table[number_of_exceptions];
}
```

The items of the Exceptions_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be the CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "Exceptions".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the attribute length, excluding the initial six bytes.

```
number_of_exceptions
```

The value of the number_of_exceptions item indicates the number of entries in the exception index table.

```
exception_index_table[]
```

Each value in the exception_index_table array must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry referenced by each table item must be a CONSTANT_Class_info structure (§4.4.1) representing a class type that this method is declared to throw.

A method should throw an exception only if at least one of the following three criteria is met:

- The exception is an instance of RuntimeException or one of its subclasses.
- The exception is an instance of Error or one of its subclasses.
- The exception is an instance of one of the exception classes specified in the exception_index_table just described, or one of their subclasses.

These requirements are not enforced in the Java Virtual Machine; they are enforced only at compile-time.

4.7.6 The InnerClasses Attribute

The InnerClasses attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile structure (§4.1). If the constant pool of a class or interface \mathcal{C} contains a CONSTANT_Class_info entry which represents a class or interface that is not a member of a package, then \mathcal{C} 's ClassFile structure must have exactly one InnerClasses attribute in its attributes table.

The InnerClasses attribute has the following format:

```
InnerClasses_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 number_of_classes;
    {     u2 inner_class_info_index;
          u2 outer_class_info_index;
          u2 inner_name_index;
          u2 inner_class_access_flags;
    } classes[number_of_classes];
}
```

The items of the InnerClasses attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute name index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "InnerClasses".

attribute_length

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

number_of_classes

The value of the number_of_classes item indicates the number of entries in the classes array.

classes[]

Every CONSTANT_Class_info entry in the constant_pool table which represents a class or interface *c* that is not a package member must have exactly one corresponding entry in the classes array.

If a class has members that are classes or interfaces, its <code>constant_pool</code> table (and hence its <code>InnerClasses</code> attribute) must refer to each such member, even if that member is not otherwise mentioned by the class. These rules imply that a nested class or interface member will have <code>InnerClasses</code> information for each enclosing class and for each immediate member.

Each classes array entry contains the following four items:

```
inner_class_info_index
```

The value of the inner_class_info_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Class_info structure ($\S4.4.1$) representing c. The remaining items in the classes array entry give information about c.

```
outer_class_info_index
```

If c is not a member of a class or an interface (that is, if c is a top-level class or interface (JLS §7.6) or a local class (JLS §14.3) or an anonymous class (JLS §15.9.5)), the value of the outer_class_info_index item must be zero.

Otherwise, the value of the outer_class_info_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table, and the entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Class_info ($\S4.4.1$) structure representing the class or interface of which c is a member.

```
inner_name_index
```

If c is anonymous (JLS §15.9.5), the value of the <code>inner_name_index</code> item must be zero.

Otherwise, the value of the inner_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table, and the entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure that represents the original simple

name of C, as given in the source code from which this class file was compiled.

inner_class_access_flags

The value of the inner_class_access_flags item is a mask of flags used to denote access permissions to and properties of class or interface c as declared in the source code from which this class file was compiled. It is used by a compiler to recover the original information when source code is not available. The flags are shown in Table 4.8.

Flag Name Value Interpretation ACC_PUBLIC 0x0001 Marked or implicitly public in source. ACC_PRIVATE 0x0002 Marked private in source. ACC_PROTECTED 0x0004 Marked protected in source. ACC_STATIC 0x0008 Marked or implicitly static in source. ACC_FINAL 0x0010 Marked final in source. 0x0200 ACC INTERFACE Was an interface in source. ACC_ABSTRACT 0x0400 Marked or implicitly abstract in source. 0x1000 ACC_SYNTHETIC Declared synthetic; not present in the source code. ACC ANNOTATION 0x2000 Declared as an annotation type. ACC_ENUM 0x4000Declared as an enum type.

Table 4.8. Nested class access and property flags

All bits of the inner_class_access_flags item not assigned in Table 4.8 are reserved for future use. They should be set to zero in generated class files and should be ignored by Java Virtual Machine implementations.

If a class file has a version number that is greater than or equal to 51.0, and has an InnerClasses attribute in its attributes table, then for all entries in the classes array of the InnerClasses attribute, the value of the outer_class_info_index item must be zero if the value of the inner_name_index item is zero.

Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation does not check the consistency of an InnerClasses attribute against a class file representing a class or interface referenced by the attribute.

4.7.7 The Enclosing Method Attribute

The EnclosingMethod attribute is an optional fixed-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile structure (§4.1). A class must have an EnclosingMethod attribute if and only if it is a local class or an anonymous class. A class may have no more than one EnclosingMethod attribute.

The EnclosingMethod attribute has the following format:

```
EnclosingMethod_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 class_index;
    u2 method_index;
}
```

The items of the EnclosingMethod_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "EnclosingMethod".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item is four.

```
class_index
```

The value of the class_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Class_info (§4.4.1) structure representing the innermost class that encloses the declaration of the current class.

```
method_index
```

If the current class is not immediately enclosed by a method or constructor, then the value of the method_index item must be zero.

Otherwise, the value of the method_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_NameAndType_info structure (§4.4.6) representing the name and type of a method in the class referenced by the class_index attribute above.

It is the responsibility of a Java compiler to ensure that the method identified via the method_index is indeed the closest lexically enclosing method of the class that contains this EnclosingMethod attribute.

4.7.8 The Synthetic Attribute

The Synthetic attribute is a fixed-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile, field_info, or method_info structure (§4.1, §4.5, §4.6). A class member that does not appear in the source code must be marked using a Synthetic attribute, or else it must have its ACC_SYNTHETIC flag set. The only exceptions to this requirement are compiler-generated methods which are not considered implementation artifacts, namely the instance initialization method representing a default constructor of the Java programming language (§2.9), the class initialization method (§2.9), and the Enum.values() and Enum.valueOf() methods.

The Synthetic attribute was introduced in JDK release 1.1 to support nested classes and interfaces.

The Synthetic attribute has the following format:

```
Synthetic_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
}
```

The items of the Synthetic_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "Synthetic".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute length item is zero.

4.7.9 The Signature Attribute

The Signature attribute is an optional fixed-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile, field_info, or method_info structure (§4.1, §4.5, §4.6). The Signature attribute records generic signature information for any class, interface, constructor or member whose generic signature in the Java programming language would include references to type variables or parameterized types.

The Signature attribute has the following format:

```
Signature_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 signature_index;
}
```

The items of the Signature_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "Signature".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item of a Signature_attribute structure must be 2.

```
signature_index
```

The value of the signature_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a class signature (§4.3.4) if this Signature attribute is an attribute of a ClassFile structure; a method signature if this Signature attribute is an attribute of a method_info structure; or a field type signature otherwise.

4.7.10 The SourceFile Attribute

The SourceFile attribute is an optional fixed-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile structure (§4.1). There can be no more than one SourceFile attribute in the attributes table of a given ClassFile structure.

The SourceFile attribute has the following format:

```
SourceFile_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 sourcefile_index;
}
```

The items of the SourceFile_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "SourceFile".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item of a SourceFile_attribute structure must be 2.

sourcefile_index

The value of the sourcefile_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a string.

The string referenced by the <code>sourcefile_index</code> item will be interpreted as indicating the name of the source file from which this <code>class</code> file was compiled. It will not be interpreted as indicating the name of a directory containing the file or an absolute path name for the file; such platform-specific additional information must be supplied by the run-time interpreter or development tool at the time the file name is actually used.

4.7.11 The SourceDebugExtension Attribute

The SourceDebugExtension attribute is an optional attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile structure (§4.1). There can be no more than one SourceDebugExtension attribute in the attributes table of a given ClassFile structure.

The SourceDebugExtension attribute has the following format:

```
SourceDebugExtension_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u1 debug_extension[attribute_length];
}
```

The items of the SourceDebugExtension_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "SourceDebugExtension".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

The value of the attribute_length item is thus the number of bytes in the debug_extension[] item.

```
debug_extension[]
```

The debug_extension array holds extended debugging information which has no semantic effect on the Java Virtual Machine. The information is represented using a modified UTF-8 string (§4.4.7) with no terminating zero byte.

Note that the debug_extension array may denote a string longer than that which can be represented with an instance of class String.

4.7.12 The LineNumberTable Attribute

The LineNumberTable attribute is an optional variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a Code (§4.7.3) attribute. It may be used by debuggers to determine which part of the Java Virtual Machine code array corresponds to a given line number in the original source file.

If LineNumberTable attributes are present in the attributes table of a given Code attribute, then they may appear in any order. Furthermore, multiple LineNumberTable attributes may together represent a given line of a source file; that is, LineNumberTable attributes need not be one-to-one with source lines.

The LineNumberTable attribute has the following format:

```
LineNumberTable_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 line_number_table_length;
    {    u2 start_pc;
        u2 line_number;
    } line_number_table[line_number_table_length];
}
```

The items of the LineNumberTable_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "LineNumberTable".

```
attribute length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

```
line_number_table_length
```

The value of the line_number_table_length item indicates the number of entries in the line_number_table array.

```
line_number_table[]
```

Each entry in the line_number_table array indicates that the line number in the original source file changes at a given point in the code array. Each line_number_table entry must contain the following two items:

```
start_pc
```

The value of the start_pc item must indicate the index into the code array at which the code for a new line in the original source file begins.

The value of start_pc must be less than the value of the code_length item of the Code attribute of which this LineNumberTable is an attribute.

```
line number
```

The value of the line_number item must give the corresponding line number in the original source file.

4.7.13 The Local Variable Table Attribute

The LocalVariable table attribute is an optional variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a code (§4.7.3) attribute. It may be used by debuggers to determine the value of a given local variable during the execution of a method.

If LocalVariableTable attributes are present in the attributes table of a given Code attribute, then they may appear in any order. There may be no more than one LocalVariableTable attribute per local variable in the Code attribute.

The LocalVariableTable attribute has the following format:

```
LocalVariableTable_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 local_variable_table_length;
    {
        u2 start_pc;
        u2 length;
        u2 name_index;
        u2 descriptor_index;
        u2 index;
    } local_variable_table[local_variable_table_length];
}
```

The items of the LocalVariableTable_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index

must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "LocalVariableTable".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

```
local_variable_table_length
```

The value of the local_variable_table_length item indicates the number of entries in the local_variable_table array.

```
local_variable_table[]
```

Each entry in the local_variable_table array indicates a range of code array offsets within which a local variable has a value. It also indicates the index into the local variable array of the current frame at which that local variable can be found. Each entry must contain the following five items:

```
start_pc, length
```

The given local variable must have a value at indices into the code array in the interval [start_pc, start_pc + length), that is, between start_pc inclusive and start_pc + length exclusive.

The value of start_pc must be a valid index into the code array of this code attribute and must be the index of the opcode of an instruction.

The value of start_pc + length must either be a valid index into the code array of this code attribute and be the index of the opcode of an instruction, or it must be the first index beyond the end of that code array.

```
name index
```

The value of the name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must contain a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a valid unqualified name (§4.2.2) denoting a local variable.

```
descriptor index
```

The value of the descriptor_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must contain a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing a field descriptor (§4.3.2) encoding the type of a local variable in the source program.

index

The given local variable must be at index in the local variable array of the current frame.

If the local variable at index is of type double or long, it occupies both index and index + 1.

4.7.14 The LocalVariableTypeTable Attribute

The LocalVariableTypeTable attribute is an optional variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a code (§4.7.3) attribute. It may be used by debuggers to determine the value of a given local variable during the execution of a method.

If LocalVariableTypeTable attributes are present in the attributes table of a given Code attribute, then they may appear in any order. There may be no more than one LocalVariableTypeTable attribute per local variable in the Code attribute.

The LocalVariableTypeTable attribute differs from the LocalVariableTable attribute in that it provides signature information rather than descriptor information. This difference is only significant for variables whose type is a generic reference type. Such variables will appear in both tables, while variables of other types will appear only in LocalVariableTable.

The Local Variable Type Table attribute has the following format:

```
LocalVariableTypeTable_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 local_variable_type_table_length;
    {
        u2 start_pc;
        u2 length;
        u2 name_index;
        u2 signature_index;
        u2 index;
    } local_variable_type_table[local_variable_type_table_length];
}
```

The items of the LocalVariableTypeTable_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "LocalVariableTypeTable".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

local_variable_type_table_length

The value of the local_variable_type_table_length item indicates the number of entries in the local_variable_type_table array.

local_variable_type_table[]

Each entry in the local_variable_type_table array indicates a range of code array offsets within which a local variable has a value. It also indicates the index into the local variable array of the current frame at which that local variable can be found. Each entry must contain the following five items:

start_pc, length

The given local variable must have a value at indices into the code array in the interval [start_pc, start_pc + length), that is, between start_pc inclusive and start_pc + length exclusive.

The value of start_pc must be a valid index into the code array of this code attribute and must be the index of the opcode of an instruction.

The value of start_pc + length must either be a valid index into the code array of this code attribute and be the index of the opcode of an instruction, or it must be the first index beyond the end of that code array.

name index

The value of the name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must contain a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a valid unqualified name (§4.2.2) denoting a local variable.

signature_index

The value of the signature_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must contain a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing a field type signature (§4.3.4) encoding the type of a local variable in the source program.

index

The given local variable must be at index in the local variable array of the current frame.

If the local variable at index is of type double or long, it occupies both index and index + 1.

4.7.15 The Deprecated Attribute

The Deprecated attribute is an optional fixed-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile, field_info, or method_info structure (§4.1, §4.5, §4.6). A class, interface, method, or field may be marked using a Deprecated attribute to indicate that the class, interface, method, or field has been superseded.

A run-time interpreter or tool that reads the class file format, such as a compiler, can use this marking to advise the user that a superceded class, interface, method, or field is being referred to. The presence of a Deprecated attribute does not alter the semantics of a class or interface.

The Deprecated attribute has the following format:

```
Deprecated_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
}
```

The items of the Deprecated_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "Deprecated".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item is zero.

4.7.16 The RuntimeVisibleAnnotations attribute

The RuntimeVisibleAnnotations attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile, field_info, or method_info structure (§4.1, §4.5, §4.6). The RuntimeVisibleAnnotations attribute records run-time-visible Java programming language annotations on the corresponding class, field, or method.

Each ClassFile, field_info, and method_info structure may contain at most one RuntimeVisibleAnnotations attribute, which records all the run-time-visible Java programming language annotations on the corresponding program element. The Java Virtual Machine must make these annotations available so they can be returned by the appropriate reflective APIs.

The RuntimeVisibleAnnotations attribute has the following format:

```
RuntimeVisibleAnnotations_attribute {
    u2          attribute_name_index;
    u4          attribute_length;
    u2          num_annotations;
    annotation annotations[num_annotations];
}
```

The items of the RuntimeVisibleAnnotations_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "RuntimeVisibleAnnotations".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

The value of the attribute_length item is thus dependent on the number of run-time-visible annotations represented by the structure, and their values.

```
num_annotations
```

The value of the num_annotations item gives the number of run-time-visible annotations represented by the structure.

Note that a maximum of 65535 run-time-visible Java programming language annotations may be directly attached to a program element.

```
annotations
```

Each value of the annotations table represents a single run-time-visible annotation on a program element. The annotation structure has the following format:

The items of the annotation structure are as follows:

type_index

The value of the type_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing a field descriptor representing the annotation type corresponding to the annotation represented by this annotation structure.

```
num_element_value_pairs
```

The value of the num_element_value_pairs item gives the number of element-value pairs of the annotation represented by this annotation structure.

Note that a maximum of 65535 element-value pairs may be contained in a single annotation

```
element_value_pairs
```

Each value of the element_value_pairs table represents a single element-value pair in the annotation represented by this annotation structure. Each element_value_pairs entry contains the following two items:

```
element_name_index
```

The value of the element_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing a valid field descriptor (§4.3.2) that denotes the name of the annotation type element represented by this element_value_pairs entry.

value

The value of the value item represents the value of the element-value pair represented by this element_value_pairs entry.

4.7.16.1 *The* element_value *structure*

The element_value structure is a discriminated union representing the value of an element-value pair. It is used to represent element values in all attributes that describe annotations (RuntimeVisibleAnnotations, RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations, RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations, and RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations).

The element_value structure has the following format:

The items of the element_value structure are as follows:

tag

The tag item indicates the type of this annotation element-value pair.

The letters B, C, D, F, I, J, S, and z indicate a primitive type. These letters are interpreted as if they were field descriptors ($\S4.3.2$).

The other legal values for tag are listed with their interpretations in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. Interpretation of additional tag values

tag Value	Element Type
s	String
е	enum constant
С	class
@	annotation type
1	array

value

The value item represents the value of this annotation element. This item is a union. The tag item, above, determines which item of the union is to be used:

```
const_value_index
```

The const_value_index item is used if the tag item is one of B, C, D, F, I, J, S, Z, or s.

The value of the <code>const_value_index</code> item must be a valid index into the <code>constant_pool</code> table. The <code>constant_pool</code> entry at that index must be of the correct entry type for the field type designated by the tag item, as specified in Table 4.9.

enum_const_value

The enum_const_value item is used if the tag item is e.

The enum_const_value item consists of the following two items:

type_name_index

The value of the type_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing a valid field descriptor (§4.3.2) that denotes the internal form of the binary name (§4.2.1) of the type of the enum constant represented by this element_value structure.

const_name_index

The value of the <code>const_name_index</code> item must be a valid index into the <code>constant_pool</code> table. The <code>constant_pool</code> entry at that index must be a <code>constant_utf8_info</code> structure (§4.4.7) representing the simple name of the enum constant represented by this <code>element_value</code> structure.

class_info_index

The class_info_index item is used if the tag item is c.

The class_info_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the return descriptor (§4.3.3) of the type that is reified by the class represented by this element_value structure.

For example, V for Void. class, Ljava/lang/Object; for Object, etc.

annotation_value

The annotation_value item is used if the tag item is @.

The element_value structure represents a "nested" annotation.

array_value

The array_value item is used if the tag item is [.

The array_value item consists of the following two items:

num_values

The value of the num_values item gives the number of elements in the array-typed value represented by this element_value structure.

Note that a maximum of 65535 elements are permitted in an array-typed element

values

Each value of the values table gives the value of an element of the array-typed value represented by this element_value structure.

4.7.17 The RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations attribute

The attribute similar RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations is to the RuntimeVisibleAnnotations attribute, except that the annotations represented by a RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations attribute must not be made available for return by reflective APIs, unless the Java Virtual Machine has been instructed to retain these annotations via some implementation-specific mechanism such as a command line flag. In the absence of such instructions, the Java Virtual Machine ignores this attribute.

The RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile, field info, or method info structure (§4.1, §4.5, §4.6). The RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations attribute records run-timeinvisible Java programming language annotations on the corresponding class, method, or field.

Each ClassFile, field_info, and method_info structure may contain at most one RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations attribute, which records all the run-time-invisible Java programming language annotations on the corresponding program element.

The RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations attribute has the following format:

```
RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations_attribute {
    u2
               attribute_name_index;
    u4
               attribute_length;
               num_annotations;
    annotation annotations[num annotations];
```

The items of the RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations_attribute structure are as follows:

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attribute_name_index

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info (§4.4.7) structure representing the string "RuntimeInvisibleAnnotations".

attribute_length

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

The value of the attribute_length item is thus dependent on the number of run-time-invisible annotations represented by the structure, and their values.

num annotations

The value of the num_annotations item gives the number of run-time-invisible annotations represented by the structure.

Note that a maximum of 65535 run-time-invisible Java programming language annotations may be directly attached to a program element.

annotations

Each value of the annotations table represents a single run-time-invisible annotation on a program element.

4.7.18 The RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations attribute

The RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of the method_info structure (§4.6). The RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations attribute records run-time-visible Java programming language annotations on the parameters of the corresponding method.

Each method_info structure may contain at most one RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations attribute, which records all the runtime-visible Java programming language annotations on the parameters of the corresponding method. The Java Virtual Machine must make these annotations available so they can be returned by the appropriate reflective APIs.

The RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations attribute has the following format:

The items of the RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing the string "RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

The value of the attribute_length item is thus dependent on the number of parameters, the number of run-time-visible annotations on each parameter, and their values.

```
num_parameters
```

The value of the num_parameters item gives the number of parameters of the method represented by the method_info structure on which the annotation occurs. (This duplicates information that could be extracted from the method descriptor (§4.3.3).)

```
parameter_annotations
```

Each value of the parameter_annotations table represents all of the runtime-visible annotations on a single parameter. The sequence of values in the table corresponds to the sequence of parameters in the method descriptor. Each parameter_annotations entry contains the following two items:

```
num_annotations
```

The value of the num_annotations item indicates the number of run-time-visible annotations on the parameter corresponding to the sequence number of this parameter_annotations element.

annotations

Each value of the annotations table represents a single run-time-visible annotation on the parameter corresponding to the sequence number of this parameter_annotations element.

4.7.19 The RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations attribute

The RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations attribute is similar to the RuntimeVisibleParameterAnnotations attribute, except that the annotations represented by a RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations attribute must not be made available for return by reflective APIs, unless the Java Virtual Machine has specifically been instructed to retain these annotations via some implementation-specific mechanism such as a command line flag. In the absence of such instructions, the Java Virtual Machine ignores this attribute.

The RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a method_info structure (§4.6). The RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations attribute records run-time-invisible Java programming language annotations on the parameters of the corresponding method.

Each method_info structure may contain at most one RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations attribute, which records all the runtime-invisible Java programming language annotations on the parameters of the corresponding method.

The RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations attribute has the following format:

The items of the RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index

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must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing the string "RuntimeInvisibleParameterAnnotations".

attribute_length

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

The value of the attribute_length item is thus dependent on the number of parameters, the number of run-time-invisible annotations on each parameter, and their values

num_parameters

The value of the num_parameters item gives the number of parameters of the method represented by the method_info structure on which the annotation occurs. (This duplicates information that could be extracted from the method descriptor (§4.3.3).)

parameter_annotations

Each value of the parameter_annotations table represents all of the runtime-invisible annotations on a single parameter. The sequence of values in the table corresponds to the sequence of parameters in the method descriptor. Each parameter_annotations entry contains the following two items:

num annotations

The value of the num_annotations item indicates the number of runtime-invisible annotations on the parameter corresponding to the sequence number of this parameter_annotations element.

annotations

Each value of the annotations table represents a single run-time-invisible annotation on the parameter corresponding to the sequence number of this parameter_annotations element.

4.7.20 The AnnotationDefault attribute

The AnnotationDefault attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of certain method_info structures (§4.6), namely those representing elements of annotation types. The AnnotationDefault attribute records the default value for the element represented by the method_info structure.

Each method_info structure representing an element of an annotation type may contain at most one AnnotationDefault attribute. The Java Virtual Machine must make this default value available so it can be applied by appropriate reflective APIs.

The AnnotationDefault attribute has the following format:

```
AnnotationDefault_attribute {
    u2          attribute_name_index;
    u4          attribute_length;
    element_value default_value;
}
```

The items of the AnnotationDefault_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing the string "AnnotationDefault".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

The value of the attribute_length item is thus dependent on the default value.

```
default_value
```

The default_value item represents the default value of the annotation type element whose default value is represented by this AnnotationDefault attribute.

4.7.21 The BootstrapMethods attribute

The BootstrapMethods attribute is a variable-length attribute in the attributes table of a ClassFile structure (§4.1). The BootstrapMethods attribute records bootstrap method specifiers referenced by *invokedynamic* instructions (§invokedynamic).

There must be exactly one BootstrapMethods attribute in the attributes table of a given ClassFile structure if the constant_pool table of the ClassFile structure has at least one CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info entry (§4.4.10). There can be no more than one BootstrapMethods attribute in the attributes table of a given ClassFile structure.

The BootstrapMethods attribute has the following format:

```
BootstrapMethods_attribute {
    u2 attribute_name_index;
    u4 attribute_length;
    u2 num_bootstrap_methods;
    {    u2 bootstrap_method_ref;
        u2 num_bootstrap_arguments;
        u2 bootstrap_arguments[num_bootstrap_arguments];
    } bootstrap_methods[num_bootstrap_methods];
}
```

The items of the BootstrapMethods_attribute structure are as follows:

```
attribute_name_index
```

The value of the attribute_name_index item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7) representing the string "BootstrapMethods".

```
attribute_length
```

The value of the attribute_length item indicates the length of the attribute, excluding the initial six bytes.

The value of the attribute_length item is thus dependent on the number of *invokedynamic* instructions in this ClassFile structure.

```
num_bootstrap_methods
```

The value of the num_bootstrap_methods item determines the number of bootstrap method specifiers in the bootstrap_methods array.

```
bootstrap_methods[]
```

Each entry in the bootstrap_methods array contains an index to a CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info structure (§4.4.8) which specifies a bootstrap method, and a sequence (perhaps empty) of indexes to *static arguments* for the bootstrap method.

Each bootstrap_methods entry must contain the following three items:

```
bootstrap_method_ref
```

The value of the bootstrap_method_ref item must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info structure (§4.4.8).

The reference_kind item of the CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info structure should have the value 6 (REF_invokeStatic) or 8 (REF_newInvokeSpecial) (§5.4.3.5) or else invocation of the bootstrap method handle during call site specifier resolution for an *invokedynamic* instruction will complete abruptly.

num_bootstrap_arguments

The value of the num_bootstrap_arguments item gives the number of items in the bootstrap_arguments array.

bootstrap_arguments

Each entry in the bootstrap_arguments array must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant_pool entry at that index must be a CONSTANT_String_info, CONSTANT_Class_info, CONSTANT_Integer_info, CONSTANT_Long_info, CONSTANT_Float_info, CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info, or CONSTANT_MethodType_info structure (§4.4.3, §4.4.1, §4.4.4, §4.4.5), §4.4.8, §4.4.9).

4.8 Format Checking

When a prospective class file is loaded (§5.3) by the Java Virtual Machine, the Java Virtual Machine first ensures that the file has the basic format of a class file (§4.1). This process is known as *format checking*. The first four bytes must contain the right magic number. All recognized attributes must be of the proper length. The class file must not be truncated or have extra bytes at the end. The constant pool must not contain any superficially unrecognizable information.

This check for basic class file integrity is necessary for any interpretation of the class file contents.

Format checking is distinct from bytecode verification. Both are part of the verification process. Historically, format checking has been confused with bytecode verification, because both are a form of integrity check.

4.9 Constraints on Java Virtual Machine code

The Java Virtual Machine code for a method, instance initialization method, or class or interface initialization method (§2.9) is stored in the code array of the Code attribute of a method_info structure of a class file (§4.6, §4.7.3). This section describes the constraints associated with the contents of the Code_attribute structure.

4.9.1 Static Constraints

The *static constraints* on a class file are those defining the well-formedness of the file. With the exception of the static constraints on the Java Virtual Machine code of the class file, these constraints have been given in the previous sections. The static constraints on the Java Virtual Machine code in a class file specify how Java Virtual Machine instructions must be laid out in the code array and what the operands of individual instructions must be.

The static constraints on the instructions in the code array are as follows:

- The code array must not be empty, so the code_length item cannot have the value 0.
- The value of the code_length item must be less than 65536.
- The opcode of the first instruction in the code array begins at index 0.
- Only instances of the instructions documented in §6.5 may appear in the code array. Instances of instructions using the reserved opcodes (§6.2) or any opcodes not documented in this specification must not appear in the code array.
- If the class file version number is 51.0 or above, then neither the *jsr* opcode or the *jsr_w* opcode may appear in the code array.
- For each instruction in the code array except the last, the index of the opcode of the next instruction equals the index of the opcode of the current instruction plus the length of that instruction, including all its operands.
 - The *wide* instruction is treated like any other instruction for these purposes; the opcode specifying the operation that a *wide* instruction is to modify is treated as one of the operands of that *wide* instruction. That opcode must never be directly reachable by the computation.
- The last byte of the last instruction in the code array must be the byte at index code_length 1.

The static constraints on the operands of instructions in the code array are as follows:

• The target of each jump and branch instruction (jsr, jsr_w, goto, goto_w, ifeq, ifne, ifle, iflt, ifge, ifgt, ifnull, ifnonnull, if_icmpeq, if_icmpne, if_icmple, if_icmplt, if_icmpge, if_icmpgt, if_acmpeq, if_acmpne) must be the opcode of an instruction within this method.

The target of a jump or branch instruction must never be the opcode used to specify the operation to be modified by a *wide* instruction; a jump or branch target may be the *wide* instruction itself.

• Each target, including the default, of each *tableswitch* instruction must be the opcode of an instruction within this method.

Each *tableswitch* instruction must have a number of entries in its jump table that is consistent with the value of its *low* and *high* jump table operands, and its *low* value must be less than or equal to its *high* value.

No target of a *tableswitch* instruction may be the opcode used to specify the operation to be modified by a *wide* instruction; a *tableswitch* target may be a *wide* instruction itself.

• Each target, including the default, of each *lookupswitch* instruction must be the opcode of an instruction within this method.

Each *lookupswitch* instruction must have a number of *match-offset* pairs that is consistent with the value of its *npairs* operand. The *match-offset* pairs must be sorted in increasing numerical order by signed match value.

No target of a *lookupswitch* instruction may be the opcode used to specify the operation to be modified by a *wide* instruction; a *lookupswitch* target may be a *wide* instruction itself.

- The operand of each *ldc* instruction and each *ldc_w* instruction must be a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant pool entry referenced by that index must be of type:
 - CONSTANT_Integer, CONSTANT_Float, or CONSTANT_String if the class file version number is less than 49.0.
 - * CONSTANT_Integer, CONSTANT_Float, CONSTANT_String, or CONSTANT_Class if the class file version number is 49.0 or 50.0.
 - CONSTANT_Integer, CONSTANT_Float, CONSTANT_String, CONSTANT_Class, CONSTANT_MethodType, or CONSTANT_MethodHandle if the class file version number is 51.0.
- The operands of each *ldc2_w* instruction must represent a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant pool entry referenced by that index must be of type CONSTANT_Long or CONSTANT_Double.

In addition, the subsequent constant pool index must also be a valid index into the constant pool, and the constant pool entry at that index must not be used.

- The operands of each *getfield*, *putfield*, *getstatic*, and *putstatic* instruction must represent a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant pool entry referenced by that index must be of type CONSTANT_Fieldref.
- The *indexbyte* operands of each *invokevirtual*, *invokespecial*, and *invokestatic* instruction must represent a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant pool entry referenced by that index must be of type CONSTANT Methodref.
- The *indexbyte* operands of each *invokedynamic* instruction must represent a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant pool entry referenced by that index must be of type CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic.

The third and fourth operand bytes of each *invokedynamic* instruction must have the value zero.

• Only the *invokespecial* instruction is allowed to invoke an instance initialization method (§2.9).

No other method whose name begins with the character '<' ('\u003c') may be called by the method invocation instructions. In particular, the class or interface initialization method specially named <clinit> is never called explicitly from Java Virtual Machine instructions, but only implicitly by the Java Virtual Machine itself.

• The *indexbyte* operands of each *invokeinterface* instruction must represent a valid index into the constant_pool table. The constant pool entry referenced by that index must be of type CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref.

The value of the *count* operand of each *invokeinterface* instruction must reflect the number of local variables necessary to store the arguments to be passed to the interface method, as implied by the descriptor of the <code>constant_NameAndType_info</code> structure referenced by the <code>constant_InterfaceMethodref</code> constant pool entry.

The fourth operand byte of each *invokeinterface* instruction must have the value zero.

- The operands of each *instanceof*, *checkcast*, *new*, and *anewarray* instruction and the *indexbyte* operands of each *multianewarray* instruction must represent a valid index into the <code>constant_pool</code> table. The constant pool entry referenced by that index must be of type <code>constant_class</code>.
- No anewarray instruction may be used to create an array of more than 255 dimensions.

- No *new* instruction may reference a CONSTANT_Class constant_pool table entry representing an array class. The *new* instruction cannot be used to create an array.
- A *multianewarray* instruction must be used only to create an array of a type that has at least as many dimensions as the value of its *dimensions* operand. That is, while a *multianewarray* instruction is not required to create all of the dimensions of the array type referenced by its *indexbyte* operands, it must not attempt to create more dimensions than are in the array type.

The dimensions operand of each multianewarray instruction must not be zero.

- The *atype* operand of each *newarray* instruction must take one of the values T_BOOLEAN (4), T_CHAR (5), T_FLOAT (6), T_DOUBLE (7), T_BYTE (8), T_SHORT (9), T_INT (10), or T_LONG (11).
- The *index* operand of each *iload*, *fload*, *aload*, *istore*, *fstore*, *astore*, *iinc*, and *ret* instruction must be a non-negative integer no greater than max_locals 1.
- The implicit index of each *iload_*<*n*>, *fload_*<*n*>, *aload_*<*n*>, *istore_*<*n*>, *fstore_*<*n*>, and *astore_*<*n*> instruction must be no greater than the value of max locals 1.
- The *index* operand of each *lload*, *dload*, *lstore*, and *dstore* instruction must be no greater than the value of max_locals 2.
- The implicit index of each *lload_*<*n*>, *dload_*<*n*>, *lstore_*<*n*>, and *dstore_*<*n*> instruction must be no greater than the value of max_locals 2.
- The *indexbyte* operands of each *wide* instruction modifying an *iload*, *fload*, *aload*, *istore*, *fstore*, *astore*, *ret*, or *iinc* instruction must represent a non-negative integer no greater than max_locals 1.

The *indexbyte* operands of each *wide* instruction modifying an *lload*, *dload*, *lstore*, or *dstore* instruction must represent a non-negative integer no greater than max_locals - 2.

4.9.2 Structural Constraints

The structural constraints on the code array specify constraints on relationships between Java Virtual Machine instructions. The structural constraints are as follows:

• Each instruction must only be executed with the appropriate type and number of arguments in the operand stack and local variable array, regardless of the execution path that leads to its invocation.

An instruction operating on values of type int is also permitted to operate on values of type boolean, byte, char, and short. (As noted in §2.3.4 and §2.11.1, the Java Virtual Machine internally converts values of types boolean, byte, char, and short to type int.)

- If an instruction can be executed along several different execution paths, the operand stack must have the same depth (§2.6.2) prior to the execution of the instruction, regardless of the path taken.
- At no point during execution can the order of the local variable pair holding a value of type long or double be reversed or the pair split up.

At no point can the local variables of such a pair be operated on individually.

- No local variable (or local variable pair, in the case of a value of type long or double) can be accessed before it is assigned a value.
- At no point during execution can the operand stack grow to a depth (§2.6.2) greater than that implied by the max_stack item.
- At no point during execution can more values be popped from the operand stack than it contains.
- Each *invokespecial* instruction must name an instance initialization method (§2.9), a method in the current class, or a method in a superclass of the current class.

If an *invokespecial* instruction names an instance initialization method from a class that is not the current class or a superclass, and the target reference on the operand stack is a class instance created by an earlier *new* instruction, then *invokespecial* must name an instance initialization method from the class of that class instance.

• When the instance initialization method (§2.9) is invoked, an uninitialized class instance must be in an appropriate position on the operand stack.

An instance initialization method must never be invoked on an initialized class instance.

- When any instance method is invoked or when any instance variable is accessed, the class instance that contains the instance method or instance variable must already be initialized.
- There must never be an uninitialized class instance on the operand stack or in a local variable at the target of a backwards branch unless the special type of the uninitialized class instance at the branch instruction is merged with itself at the target of the branch (§4.10.2.4).

- There must never be an uninitialized class instance in a local variable in code protected by an exception handler (§4.10.2.4).
- There must never be an uninitialized class instance on the operand stack or in a local variable when a *jsr* or *jsr_w* instruction is executed.
- Each instance initialization method (§2.9), except for the instance initialization method derived from the constructor of class object, must call either another instance initialization method of this or an instance initialization method of its direct superclass super before its instance members are accessed.
 - However, instance fields of this that are declared in the current class may be assigned before calling any instance initialization method.
- The arguments to each method invocation must be method invocation compatible (JLS §5.3) with the method descriptor (§4.3.3).
- The type of every class instance that is the target of a method invocation instruction must be assignment compatible (JLS §5.2) with the class or interface type specified in the instruction.
 - In addition, the type of the target of an *invokespecial* instruction must be assignment compatible with the current class, unless an instance initialization method is being invoked.
- Each return instruction must match its method's return type:
 - If the method returns a boolean, byte, char, short, or int, only the *ireturn* instruction may be used.
 - If the method returns a float, long, or double, only an *freturn*, *lreturn*, or *dreturn* instruction, respectively, may be used.
 - If the method returns a reference type, it must do so using an *areturn* instruction, and the type of the returned value must be assignment compatible (JLS §5.2) with the return descriptor (§4.3.3) of the method.
 - All instance initialization methods, class or interface initialization methods, and methods declared to return void must use only the *return* instruction.
- If *getfield* or *putfield* is used to access a protected field declared in a superclass that is a member of a different run-time package than the current class, then the type of the class instance being accessed must be the same as or a subclass of the current class.

If *invokevirtual* or *invokespecial* is used to access a protected method declared in a superclass that is a member of a different run-time package than the current

class, then the type of the class instance being accessed must be the same as or a subclass of the current class.

- The type of every class instance accessed by a *getfield* instruction or modified by a *putfield* instruction must be assignment compatible (JLS §5.2) with the class type specified in the instruction.
- The type of every value stored by a *putfield* or *putstatic* instruction must be compatible with the descriptor of the field (§4.3.2) of the class instance or class being stored into:
 - If the descriptor type is boolean, byte, char, short, or int, then the value must be an int.
 - If the descriptor type is float, long, or double, then the value must be a float, long, or double, respectively.
 - If the descriptor type is a reference type, then the value must be of a type that is assignment compatible (JLS §5.2) with the descriptor type.
- The type of every value stored into an array by an *aastore* instruction must be a reference type.
 - The component type of the array being stored into by the *aastore* instruction must also be a reference type.
- Each *athrow* instruction must throw only values that are instances of class Throwable or of subclasses of Throwable.
 - Each class mentioned in a catch_type item of a method's exception table must be Throwable or a subclass of Throwable.
- Execution never falls off the bottom of the code array.
- No return address (a value of type returnAddress) may be loaded from a local variable.
- The instruction following each *jsr* or *jsr_w* instruction may be returned to only by a single *ret* instruction.
- No *jsr* or *jsr_w* instruction that is returned to may be used to recursively call a subroutine if that subroutine is already present in the subroutine call chain. (Subroutines can be nested when using try-finally constructs from within a finally clause.)
- Each instance of type returnAddress can be returned to at most once.

If a *ret* instruction returns to a point in the subroutine call chain above the *ret* instruction corresponding to a given instance of type returnAddress, then that instance can never be used as a return address.

4.10 Verification of class Files

Even though a compiler for the Java programming language must only produce class files that satisfy all the static and structural constraints in the previous sections, the Java Virtual Machine has no guarantee that any file it is asked to load was generated by that compiler or is properly formed. Applications such as web browsers do not download source code, which they then compile; these applications download already-compiled class files. The browser needs to determine whether the class file was produced by a trustworthy compiler or by an adversary attempting to exploit the Java Virtual Machine.

An additional problem with compile-time checking is version skew. A user may have successfully compiled a class, say PurchaseStockOptions, to be a subclass of TradingClass. But the definition of TradingClass might have changed since the time the class was compiled in a way that is not compatible with pre-existing binaries. Methods might have been deleted or had their return types or modifiers changed. Fields might have changed types or changed from instance variables to class variables. The access modifiers of a method or variable may have changed from public to private. For a discussion of these issues, see Chapter 13, "Binary Compatibility," in *The Java Language Specification, Java SE 7 Edition*.

Because of these potential problems, the Java Virtual Machine needs to verify for itself that the desired constraints are satisfied by the class files it attempts to incorporate. A Java Virtual Machine implementation verifies that each class file satisfies the necessary constraints at linking time (§5.4).

Linking-time verification enhances the performance of the interpreter. Expensive checks that would otherwise have to be performed to verify constraints at run time for each interpreted instruction can be eliminated. The Java Virtual Machine can assume that these checks have already been performed. For example, the Java Virtual Machine will already know the following:

- There are no operand stack overflows or underflows.
- All local variable uses and stores are valid.
- The arguments to all the Java Virtual Machine instructions are of valid types.

The verifier also performs verification that can be done without looking at the code array of the code attribute (§4.7.3). The checks performed include the following:

- Ensuring that final classes are not subclassed and that final methods are not overridden (§5.4.5).
- Checking that every class (except Object) has a direct superclass.
- Ensuring that the constant pool satisfies the documented static constraints; for example, that each CONSTANT_Class_info structure in the constant pool contains in its name_index item a valid constant pool index for a CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure.
- Checking that all field references and method references in the constant pool have valid names, valid classes, and a valid type descriptor.

Note that these checks do not ensure that the given field or method actually exists in the given class, nor do they check that the type descriptors given refer to real classes. They ensure only that these items are well formed. More detailed checking is performed when the bytecodes themselves are verified, and during resolution.

There are two strategies that Java Virtual Machine implementations may use for verification:

- Verification by type checking must be used to verify class files whose version number is greater than or equal to 50.0.
- Verification by type inference must be supported by all Java Virtual Machine implementations, except those conforming to the Java ME CLDC and Java Card profiles, in order to verify class files whose version number is less than 50.0.

Verification on Java Virtual Machine implementations supporting the Java ME CLDC and Java Card profiles is governed by their respective specifications.

4.10.1 Verification by Type Checking

A class file whose version number is greater than or equal to 50.0 (§4.1) must be verified using the type checking rules given in this section.

If, and only if, a class file's version number equals 50.0, then if the type checking fails, a Java Virtual Machine implementation may choose to attempt to perform verification by type inference (§4.10.2).

This is a pragmatic adjustment, designed to ease the transition to the new verification discipline. Many tools that manipulate class files may alter the bytecodes of a method in a manner that requires adjustment of the method's stack map frames. If a tool does not make the necessary adjustments to the stack map frames, type checking may fail even

though the bytecode is in principle valid (and would consequently verify under the old type inference scheme). To allow implementors time to adapt their tools, Java Virtual Machine implementations may fall back to the older verification discipline, but only for a limited time.

In cases where type checking fails but type inference is invoked and succeeds, a certain performance penalty is expected. Such a penalty is unavoidable. It also should serve as a signal to tool vendors that their output needs to be adjusted, and provides vendors with additional incentive to make these adjustments.

In summary, failover to verification by type inference supports both the gradual addition of stack map frames to the Java SE platform (if they are not present in a version 50.0 class file, failover is allowed) and the gradual removal of the *jsr* and *jsr_w* instructions from the Java SE platform (if they are present in a version 50.0 class file, failover is allowed).

If a Java Virtual Machine implementation ever attempts to perform verification by type inference on version 50.0 class files, it must do so in all cases where verification by type checking fails.

This means that a Java Virtual Machine implementation cannot choose to resort to type inference in once case and not in another. It must either reject class files that do not verify via type checking, or else consistently failover to the type inferencing verifier whenever type checking fails.

The type checker enforces type rules that are specified by means of Prolog clauses. English language text is used to describe the type rules in an informal way, while the Prolog clauses provide a formal specification.

The type checker requires a list of stack map frames for each method with a code attribute (§4.7.3). A list of stack map frames is given by the StackMapTable attribute (§4.7.4) of a code attribute. The intent is that a stack map frame must appear at the beginning of each basic block in a method. The stack map frame specifies the verification type of each operand stack entry and of each local variable at the start of each basic block. The type checker reads the stack map frames for each method with a code attribute and uses these maps to generate a proof of the type safety of the instructions in the code attribute.

A class is type safe if all its methods are type safe, and it does not subclass a final class.

```
classIsTypeSafe(Class) :-
    classClassName(Class, Name),
    classDefiningLoader(Class, L),
    superclassChain(Name, L, Chain),
    Chain \= [],
    classSuperClassName(Class, SuperclassName),
    loadedClass(SuperclassName, L, Superclass),
    classIsNotFinal(Superclass),
    classMethods(Class, Methods),
    checklist(methodIsTypeSafe(Class), Methods).
classIsTypeSafe(Class) :-
    classClassName(Class, 'java/lang/Object'),
    classDefiningLoader(Class, L),
    isBootstrapLoader(L),
    classMethods(Class, Methods),
    checklist(methodIsTypeSafe(Class), Methods).
```

The Prolog predicate classistypesafe assumes that class is a Prolog term representing a binary class that has been successfully parsed and loaded. This specification does not mandate the precise structure of this term, but does require that certain predicates be defined upon it.

For example, we assume a predicate classMethods(Class, Methods) that, given a term representing a class as described above as its first argument, binds its second argument to a list comprising all the methods of the class, represented in a convenient form described later.

Iff the predicate classIsTypeSafe is not true, the type checker must throw the exception VerifyError to indicate that the class file is malformed. Otherwise, the class file has type checked successfully and bytecode verification has completed successfully.

The rest of this section explains the process of type checking in detail:

- First, we give Prolog predicates for core Java Virtual Machine artifacts like classes and methods (§4.10.1.1).
- Second, we specify the type system known to the type checker (§4.10.1.2).
- Third, we specify the Prolog representation of instructions and stack map frames (§4.10.1.3, §4.10.1.4).
- Fourth, we specify how a method is type checked, for methods without code (§4.10.1.5) and methods with code (§4.10.1.6).

- Fifth, we discuss type checking issues common to all load and store instructions (§4.10.1.7), and also issues of access to protected members (§4.10.1.8).
- Finally, we specify the rules to type check each instruction (§4.10.1.9).

4.10.1.1 Accessors for Java Virtual Machine Artifacts

We stipulate the existence of 22 Prolog predicates ("accessors") that have certain expected behavior but whose formal definitions are not given in this specification.

```
classClassName(Class, ClassName)
```

Extracts the name, ClassName, of the class Class.

```
classIsInterface(Class)
```

True iff the class, class, is an interface.

```
classIsNotFinal(Class)
```

True iff the class, Class, is not a final class.

```
classSuperClassName(Class, SuperClassName)
```

Extracts the name, SuperClassName, of the superclass of class Class.

```
classInterfaces(Class, Interfaces)
```

Extracts a list, Interfaces, of the direct superinterfaces of the class class.

```
classMethods(Class, Methods)
```

Extracts a list, Methods, of the methods declared in the class class.

```
classAttributes(Class, Attributes)
```

Extracts a list, Attributes, of the attributes of the class class.

Each attribute is represented as a functor application of the form attribute(AttributeName, AttributeContents), where AttributeName is the name of the attribute. The format of the attribute's contents is unspecified.

```
classDefiningLoader(Class, Loader)
```

Extracts the defining class loader, Loader, of the class Class.

```
isBootstrapLoader(Loader)
```

True iff the class loader Loader is the bootstrap class loader.

```
loadedClass(Name, InitiatingLoader, ClassDefinition)
```

True iff there exists a class named Name whose representation (in accordance with this specification) when loaded by the class loader InitiatingLoader is ClassDefinition.

methodName(Method, Name)

Extracts the name, Name, of the method Method.

methodAccessFlags(Method, AccessFlags)

Extracts the access flags, AccessFlags, of the method Method.

methodDescriptor(Method, Descriptor)

Extracts the descriptor, Descriptor, of the method Method.

methodAttributes(Method, Attributes)

Extracts a list, Attributes, of the attributes of the method Method.

isNotFinal(Method, Class)

True iff Method in class Class is not final.

isProtected(MemberClass, MemberName, MemberDescriptor)

True iff there is a member named MemberName with descriptor MemberDescriptor in the class MemberClass and it is protected.

isNotProtected(MemberClass, MemberName, MemberDescriptor)

True iff there is a member named MemberName with descriptor MemberDescriptor in the class MemberClass and it is not protected.

parseFieldDescriptor(Descriptor, Type)

Converts a field descriptor, Descriptor, into the corresponding verification type Type (§4.10.1.2).

parseMethodDescriptor(Descriptor, ArgTypeList, ReturnType)

Converts a method descriptor, Descriptor, into a list of verification types, ArgTypeList, corresponding to the method argument types, and a verification type, ReturnType, corresponding to the return type.

parseCodeAttribute(Class, Method, FrameSize, MaxStack, ParsedCode, Handlers, StackMap)

Extracts the instruction stream, ParsedCode, of the method Method in Class, as well as the maximum operand stack size, MaxStack, the maximal number of local variables, FrameSize, the exception handlers, Handlers, and the stack map StackMap.

The representation of the instruction stream and stack map attribute must be as specified in §4.10.1.3 and §4.10.1.4.

```
samePackageName(Class1, Class2)
```

True iff the package names of Class1 and Class2 are the same.

```
differentPackageName(Class1, Class2)
```

True iff the package names of Class1 and Class2 are different.

When type checking a method's body, it is convenient to access information about the method. For this purpose, we define an *environment*, a six-tuple consisting of:

- a class
- · a method
- the declared return type of the method
- the instructions in a method
- the maximal size of the operand stack
- a list of exception handlers

We specify accessors to extract information from the environment.

```
allInstructions(Environment, Instructions) :-
    Environment = environment(_Class, _Method, _ReturnType,
                              Instructions, _, _).
exceptionHandlers(Environment, Handlers) :-
    Environment = environment(_Class, _Method, _ReturnType,
                              _Instructions, _, Handlers).
maxOperandStackLength(Environment, MaxStack) :-
    Environment = environment(_Class, _Method, _ReturnType,
                              _Instructions, MaxStack, _Handlers).
thisClass(Environment, class(ClassName, L)) :-
    Environment = environment(Class, _Method, _ReturnType,
                              _Instructions, _, _),
    classDefiningLoader(Class, L),
    classClassName(Class, ClassName).
thisMethodReturnType(Environment, ReturnType) :-
    Environment = environment(_Class, _Method, ReturnType,
                              _Instructions, _, _).
```

We specify additional predicates to extract higher-level information from the environment.

```
offsetStackFrame(Environment, Offset, StackFrame) :-
    allInstructions(Environment, Instructions),
    member(stackMap(Offset, StackFrame), Instructions).

currentClassLoader(Environment, Loader) :-
    thisClass(Environment, class(_, Loader)).
```

Finally, we specify a general predicate used throughout the type rules:

```
notMember(\_, []).

notMember(X, [A | More]) :- X \setminus= A, notMember(X, More).
```

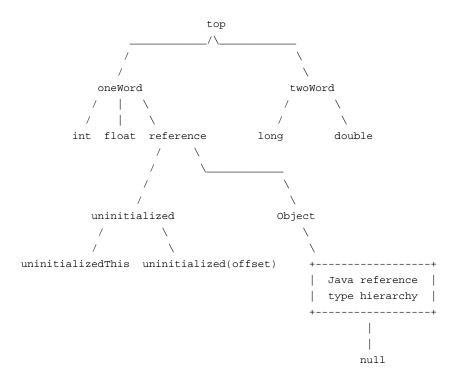
The principle guiding the determination as to which accessors are stipulated and which are fully specified is that we do not want to over-specify the representation of the class file. Providing specific accessors to the Class or Method term would force us to completely specify the format for a Prolog term representing the class file.

4.10.1.2 *Verification Type System*

The type checker enforces a type system based upon a hierarchy of *verification types*, illustrated below.

Most verification types have a direct correspondence with the types represented by field descriptors (§4.3.2) in Table 4.2. The only exceptions are the field descriptors B, C, S, and Z, all of which correspond to the verification type int.

Verification type hierarchy:



Subtyping is reflexive.

```
isAssignable(X, X).
```

The verification types which are not reference types in the Java programming language have subtype rules of the form:

```
isAssignable(v, X) :- isAssignable(the_direct_supertype_of_v, X).
```

That is, v is a subtype of x if the direct supertype of v is a subtype of x. The rules are:

```
isAssignable(oneWord, top).
isAssignable(twoWord, top).
isAssignable(int, X) :- isAssignable(oneWord, X).
isAssignable(float, X) :- isAssignable(oneWord, X).
isAssignable(long, X) :- isAssignable(twoWord, X).
isAssignable(double, X) :- isAssignable(twoWord, X).
isAssignable(reference, X) :- isAssignable(oneWord, X).
isAssignable(class(_, _), X) :- isAssignable(reference, X).
isAssignable(arrayOf(_), X) :- isAssignable(reference, X).
isAssignable(uninitialized, X) :- isAssignable(reference, X).
isAssignable(uninitializedThis, X) :- isAssignable(uninitialized, X).
isAssignable(uninitialized(_), X) :- isAssignable(uninitialized, X).
isAssignable(null, class(_, _)).
isAssignable(null, arrayOf(_)).
isAssignable(null, X) :- isAssignable(class('java/lang/Object', BL), X),
                        isBootstrapLoader(BL).
```

These subtype rules are not necessarily the most obvious formulation of subtyping. There is a clear split between subtyping rules for reference types in the Java programming language, and rules for the remaining verification types. The split allows us to state general subtyping relations between Java programming language reference types and other verification types. These relations hold independently of a Java reference type's position in the type hierarchy, and help to prevent excessive class loading by a Java Virtual Machine implementation. For example, we do not want to start climbing the Java superclass hierarchy in response to a query of the form class(foo, L) <: twoWord.

We also have a rule that says subtyping is reflexive, so together these rules cover most verification types that are not reference types in the Java programming language.

Subtype rules for the reference types in the Java programming language are specified recursively with isJavaAssignable.

```
isAssignable(class(X, Lx), class(Y, Ly)) :-
    isJavaAssignable(class(X, Lx), class(Y, Ly)).

isAssignable(arrayOf(X), class(Y, L)) :-
    isJavaAssignable(arrayOf(X), class(Y, L)).

isAssignable(arrayOf(X), arrayOf(Y)) :-
    isJavaAssignable(arrayOf(X), arrayOf(Y)).
```

For assignments, interfaces are treated like object.

```
isJavaAssignable(class(_, _), class(To, L)) :-
    loadedClass(To, L, ToClass),
    classIsInterface(ToClass).

isJavaAssignable(From, To) :-
    isJavaSubclassOf(From, To).
```

Array types are subtypes of Object. The intent is also that array types are subtypes of Cloneable and java.io.Serializable.

```
isJavaAssignable(arrayOf(_), class('java/lang/Object', BL)) :-
    isBootstrapLoader(BL).

isJavaAssignable(arrayOf(_), X) :-
    isArrayInterface(X).

isArrayInterface(class('java/lang/Cloneable', BL)) :-
    isBootstrapLoader(BL).

isArrayInterface(class('java/io/Serializable', BL)) :-
    isBootstrapLoader(BL).
```

Subtyping between arrays of primitive type is the identity relation.

```
isJavaAssignable(arrayOf(X), arrayOf(Y)) :-
   atom(X),
   atom(Y),
   X = Y.
```

Subtyping between arrays of reference type is covariant.

```
isJavaAssignable(arrayOf(X), arrayOf(Y)) :-
   compound(X), compound(Y), isJavaAssignable(X, Y).
```

Subclassing is reflexive.

```
isJavaSubclassOf(class(SubclassName, L), class(SubclassName, L)).

isJavaSubclassOf(class(SubclassName, LSub), class(SuperclassName, LSuper)) :-
    superclassChain(SubclassName, LSub, Chain),
    member(class(SuperclassName, L), Chain),
    loadedClass(SuperclassName, L, Sup),
    loadedClass(SuperclassName, LSuper, Sup).

superclassChain(ClassName, L, [class(SuperclassName, Ls) | Rest]) :-
    loadedClass(ClassName, L, Class),
    classSuperclassName(Class, SuperclassName),
    classDefiningLoader(Class, Ls),
    superclassChain(SuperclassName, Ls, Rest).

superclassChain('java/lang/Object', L, []) :-
    loadedClass('java/lang/Object', L, Class),
    classDefiningLoader(Class, BL),
    isBootstrapLoader(BL).
```

4.10.1.3 Instruction Representation

Individual bytecode instructions are represented in Prolog as terms whose functor is the name of the instruction and whose arguments are its parsed operands.

For example, an *aload* instruction is represented as the term aload(N), which includes the index N that is the operand of the instruction.

The instructions as a whole are represented as a list of terms of the form:

```
instruction(Offset, AnInstruction)
For example, instruction(21, aload(1)).
```

The order of instructions in this list must be the same as in the class file.

A few instructions have operands that are constant pool entries representing fields, methods, and dynamic call sites. In the constant pool, a field is represented by a CONSTANT_Fieldref_info structure, a method is represented by a CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref_info structure (for an interface's method) or a CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure (for a class's method), and a dynamic call site is represented by a CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info structure (§4.4.2, §4.4.10). Such structures are represented as functor applications of the form:

• field(FieldClassName, FieldName, FieldDescriptor) for a field, where FieldClassName is the name of the class referenced by the

class_index item in the CONSTANT_Fieldref_info structure, and FieldName and FieldDescriptor correspond to the name and field descriptor referenced by the name_and_type_index item of the CONSTANT_Fieldref_info structure.

- imethod(MethodIntfName, MethodName, MethodDescriptor) interface's method. where is the of MethodIntfName name the interface referenced by the class index item of the CONSTANT InterfaceMethodref info structure, and MethodName and MethodDescriptor correspond to the name and method descriptor referenced by the name and type index item of the CONSTANT InterfaceMethodref info structure;
- method(MethodClassName, MethodName, MethodDescriptor) for a class's method, where MethodClassName is the name of the class referenced by the class_index item of the CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure, and MethodName and MethodDescriptor correspond to the name and method descriptor referenced by the name_and_type_index item of the CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure; and
- dmethod(CallSiteName, MethodDescriptor) for a dynamic call site, where CallSiteName and MethodDescriptor correspond to the name and method descriptor referenced by the name_and_type_index item of the CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info structure.

For clarity, we assume that field and method descriptors ($\S4.3.2$) are mapped into more readable names: the leading \bot and trailing ; are dropped from class names, and the *BaseType* characters used for primitive types are mapped to the names of those types.

For example, a *getfield* instruction whose operand was an index into the constant pool that refers to a field foo of type F in class Bar would be represented as getfield(field('Bar', 'foo', 'F')).

Constant pool entries that refer to constant values, such as CONSTANT_String, CONSTANT_Integer, CONSTANT_Float, CONSTANT_Long, CONSTANT_Double, and CONSTANT_Class, are encoded via the functors whose names are string, int, float, long, double, and classConstant respectively.

For example, an ldc instruction for loading the integer 91 would be encoded as ldc(int(91)).

4.10.1.4 Stack Map Frame Representation

Stack map frames are represented in Prolog as a list of terms of the form:

```
stackMap(Offset, TypeState)
```

where Offset is an integer indicating the offset of the instruction the frame map applies to, and TypeState is the expected incoming type state (§4.7.4) for that instruction.

The order of stack map frames in this list must be the same as in the class file.

TypeState has the form:

```
frame(Locals, OperandStack, Flags)
```

where:

• Locals is a list of verification types, such that the Nth element of the list (with 0-based indexing) represents the type of local variable N.

If any local variable in Locals has the type uninitializedThis, then Flags has the single element flagThisUninit, otherwise it is an empty list.

• OperandStack is a list of types, such that the first element represents the type of the top of the operand stack, and the elements below the top follow in the appropriate order.

Types of size 2 (long and double) are represented by two entries, with the first entry being top and the second one being the type itself.

```
For example, a stack with a double, an int, and a long would be represented as [top, double, int, top, long].
```

Reference types other than array types are represented using the functor class. class(N, L) represents the class whose binary name is N as loaded by the loader L. Note that L is an initiating loader (§5.3) of the class represented by class(N, L) and may, or may not, be the class's defining loader.

Array types are represented by applying the functor arrayof to an argument denoting the component type of the array.

The verification type uninitialized(offset) is represented by applying the functor uninitialized to an argument representing the numerical value of the offset.

Other verification types are represented in prolog as atoms whose name denotes the verification type in question.

The class Object would be represented as class('java/lang/Object', BL), where BL is the bootstrap loader.

```
The types int[] and Object[] would be represented by arrayOf(int) and arrayOf(class('java/lang/Object', BL)) respectively.
```

• Flags is a list which may either be empty or have the single element flagThisUninit.

This flag is used in constructors, to mark type states where initialization of this has not yet been completed. In such type states, it is illegal to return from the method.

Subtyping (§4.10.1.2) is extended pointwise to type states.

The local variable array of a method has a fixed length by construction (see methodInitialStackFrame in §4.10.1.6) while the operand stack grows and shrinks. Therefore, we require an explicit check on the length of the operand stacks whose assignability is desired.

The length of the operand stack must not exceed the declared maximum stack length.

```
operandStackHasLegalLength(Environment, OperandStack) :-
   length(OperandStack, Length),
   maxOperandStackLength(Environment, MaxStack),
   Length =< MaxStack.</pre>
```

Certain array instructions (§aaload, §arraylength, §baload, §bastore) peek at the types of values on the operand stack in order to check they are array types. The following clause accesses the I'th element of the operand stack from a type state.

```
nth1OperandStackIs(I, frame(_Locals, OperandStack, _Flags), Element) :-
nth1(I, OperandStack, Element).
```

Manipulation of the operand stack by load and store instructions (§4.10.1.7) is complicated by the fact that some types occupy two entries on the stack. The predicates given below take this into account, allowing the rest of the specification to abstract from this issue.

Pop a list of types off the stack.

Pop an individual type off the stack. More precisely, if the logical top of the stack is some subtype of the specified type, Type, then pop it. If a type occupies two stack slots, the logical top of stack type is really the type just below the top, and the top of stack is the unusable type top.

Push a logical type onto the stack. The exact behavior varies with the size of the type. If the pushed type is of size 1, we just push it onto the stack. If the pushed type is of size 2, we push it, and then push top.

```
pushOperandStack(OperandStack, 'void', OperandStack).
pushOperandStack(OperandStack, Type, [Type | OperandStack]) :-
    sizeOf(Type, 1).
pushOperandStack(OperandStack, Type, [top, Type | OperandStack]) :-
    sizeOf(Type, 2).
```

Push a list of types onto the stack if there is space.

Manipulation of the operand stack by the *dup* instructions is specified entirely in terms of the *category* of types for values on the stack (§2.11.1).

Category 1 types occupy a single stack slot. Popping a logical type of category 1, Type, off the stack is possible if the top of the stack is Type and Type is not top (otherwise it could denote the upper half of a category 2 type). The result is the incoming stack, with the top slot popped off.

```
popCategory1([Type | Rest], Type, Rest) :-
   Type \= top,
   sizeOf(Type, 1).
```

Category 2 types occupy two stack slots. Popping a logical type of category 2, Type, off the stack is possible if the top of the stack is type top, and the slot directly below it is Type. The result is the incoming stack, with the top 2 slots popped off.

```
popCategory2([top, Type | Rest], Type, Rest) :-
    sizeOf(Type, 2).
```

Most of the type rules for individual instructions (§4.10.1.9) depend on the notion of a valid *type transition*. A type transition is *valid* if one can pop a list of expected types off the incoming type state's operand stack and replace them with an expected result type, resulting in a new valid type state. In particular, the size of the operand stack in the new type state must not exceed its maximum declared size.

4.10.1.5 Type Checking Abstract and Native Methods

Abstract methods and native methods are considered to be type safe if they do not override a final method.

```
methodIsTypeSafe(Class, Method) :-
    doesNotOverrideFinalMethod(Class, Method),
   methodAccessFlags(Method, AccessFlags),
   member(abstract, AccessFlags).
methodIsTypeSafe(Class, Method) :-
    doesNotOverrideFinalMethod(Class, Method),
   methodAccessFlags(Method, AccessFlags),
   member(native, AccessFlags).
doesNotOverrideFinalMethod(class('java/lang/Object', L), Method) :-
    isBootstrapLoader(L).
doesNotOverrideFinalMethod(Class, Method) :-
    classSuperClassName(Class, SuperclassName),
    classDefiningLoader(Class, L),
    loadedClass(SuperclassName, L, Superclass),
    classMethods(Superclass, MethodList),
    finalMethodNotOverridden(Method, Superclass, MethodList).
finalMethodNotOverridden(Method, Superclass, MethodList) :-
   methodName(Method, Name),
   methodDescriptor(Method, Descriptor),
   member(method(_, Name, Descriptor), MethodList),
    isNotFinal(Method, Superclass).
finalMethodNotOverridden(Method, Superclass, MethodList) :-
    methodName(Method, Name),
   methodDescriptor(Method, Descriptor),
   notMember(method(_, Name, Descriptor), MethodList),
    doesNotOverrideFinalMethod(Superclass, Method).
```

4.10.1.6 *Type Checking Methods with Code*

Non-abstract, non-native methods are type correct if they have code and the code is type correct.

```
methodIsTypeSafe(Class, Method) :-
   doesNotOverrideFinalMethod(Class, Method),
   methodAccessFlags(Method, AccessFlags),
   methodAttributes(Method, Attributes),
   notMember(native, AccessFlags),
   notMember(abstract, AccessFlags),
   member(attribute('Code', _), Attributes),
   methodWithCodeIsTypeSafe(Class, Method).
```

A method with code is type safe if it is possible to merge the code and the stack map frames into a single stream such that each stack map frame precedes the instruction it corresponds to, and the merged stream is type correct. The method's exception handlers, if any, must also be legal.

Let us consider exception handlers first.

An exception handler is represented by a functor application of the form:

```
handler(Start, End, Target, ClassName)
```

whose arguments are, respectively, the start and end of the range of instructions covered by the handler, the first instruction of the handler code, and the name of the exception class that this handler is designed to handle.

An exception handler is *legal* if its start (Start) is less than its end (End), there exists an instruction whose offset is equal to Start, there exists an instruction whose offset equals End, and the handler's exception class is assignable to the class Throwable. The exception class of a handler is Throwable if the handler's class entry is 0, otherwise it is the class named in the handler.

```
handlersAreLegal(Environment) :-
    exceptionHandlers(Environment, Handlers),
    checklist(handlerIsLegal(Environment), Handlers).
handlerIsLegal(Environment, Handler) :-
    Handler = handler(Start, End, Target, _),
    Start < End,
    allInstructions(Environment, Instructions),
    member(instruction(Start, _), Instructions),
    offsetStackFrame(Environment, Target, ),
    instructionsIncludeEnd(Instructions, End),
    currentClassLoader(Environment, CurrentLoader),
    handlerExceptionClass(Handler, ExceptionClass, CurrentLoader),
    isBootstrapLoader(BL),
    isAssignable(ExceptionClass, class('java/lang/Throwable', BL)).
instructionsIncludeEnd(Instructions, End) :-
    member(instruction(End, _), Instructions).
instructionsIncludeEnd(Instructions, End) :-
    member(endOfCode(End), Instructions).
handlerExceptionClass(handler(_, _, _, 0),
                      class('java/lang/Throwable', BL), _) :-
    isBootstrapLoader(BL).
handlerExceptionClass(handler(_, _, _, Name),
                      class(Name, L), L) :-
   Name \ \ \
```

Let us now turn to the stream of instructions and stack map frames.

Merging instructions and stack map frames into a single stream involves four cases:

 Merging an empty StackMap and a list of instructions yields the original list of instructions.

```
mergeStackMapAndCode([], CodeList, CodeList).
```

• Given a list of stack map frames beginning with the type state for the instruction at Offset, and a list of instructions beginning at Offset, the merged list is the head of the stack frame list, followed by the head of the instruction list, followed by the merge of the tails of the two lists.

Otherwise, given a list of stack frames beginning with the type state for the
instruction at OffsetM, and a list of instructions beginning at OffsetP, then, if
OffsetP < OffsetM, the merged list consists of the head of the instruction list,
followed by the merge of the stack frame list and the tail of the instruction list.

• Otherwise, the merge of the two lists is undefined. Since the instruction list has monotonically increasing offsets, the merge of the two lists is not defined unless every stack map frame offset has a corresponding instruction offset and the stack map frames are in monotonically increasing order.

To determine if the merged stream for a method is type correct, we first infer the method's initial type state.

The initial type state of a method consists of an empty operand stack and local variable types derived from the type of this and the arguments, as well as the appropriate flag, depending on whether this is an <init> method.

Given a list of types, the following clause produces a list where every type of size 2 has been substituted by two entries: one for itself, and one top entry. The result then corresponds to the representation of the list as 32-bit words in the Java Virtual Machine.

```
expandTypeList([], []).
expandTypeList([Item | List], [Item | Result]) :-
    sizeOf(Item, 1),
    expandTypeList(List, Result).
expandTypeList([Item | List], [Item, top | Result]) :-
    sizeOf(Item, 2),
    expandTypeList(List, Result).
flags([uninitializedThis], [flagThisUninit]).
flags(X, []) :- X = [uninitializedThis].
expandToLength(List, Size, _Filler, List) :-
    length(List, Size).
expandToLength(List, Size, Filler, Result) :-
    length(List, ListLength),
    ListLength < Size,
    Delta is Size - ListLength,
    length(Extra, Delta),
    checklist(=(Filler), Extra),
    append(List, Extra, Result).
```

For the initial type state of an instance method, we compute the type of this and put it in a list. The type of this in the <init> method of Object is Object; in other <init> methods, the type of this is uninitializedThis; otherwise, the type of this in an instance method is class(N, L) where N is the name of the class containing the method and L is its defining class loader.

For the initial type state of a static method, this is irrelevant, so the list is empty.

```
methodInitialThisType(_Class, Method, []) :-
    methodAccessFlags(Method, AccessFlags),
   member(static, AccessFlags),
   methodName(Method, MethodName),
   MethodName \= '<init>'.
methodInitialThisType(Class, Method, [This]) :-
   methodAccessFlags(Method, AccessFlags),\
    notMember(static, AccessFlags),\
    instanceMethodInitialThisType(Class, Method, This).
instanceMethodInitialThisType(Class, Method, class('java/lang/Object', L)) :-
   methodName(Method, '<init>'),
    classDefiningLoader(Class, L),
    isBootstrapLoader(L),
    classClassName(Class, 'java/lang/Object').
instanceMethodInitialThisType(Class, Method, uninitializedThis) :-
    methodName(Method, '<init>'),
    classClassName(Class, ClassName),
    classDefiningLoader(Class, CurrentLoader),
    superclassChain(ClassName, CurrentLoader, Chain),
    Chain \= [].
instanceMethodInitialThisType(Class, Method, class(ClassName, L)) :-
   methodName(Method, MethodName),
   MethodName \= '<init>',
    classDefiningLoader(Class, L),
    classClassName(Class, ClassName).
```

We now compute whether the merged stream for a method is type correct, using the method's initial type state:

• If we have a stack map frame and an incoming type state, the type state must be assignable to the one in the stack map. We may then proceed to type check the rest of the stream with the type state given in the stack map.

• A merged code stream is type safe relative to an incoming type state T if it begins with an instruction I that is type safe relative to T, and I satisfies its exception handlers (see below), and the tail of the stream is type safe given the type state following that execution of I.

NextStackFrame indicates what falls through to the following instruction. For an unconditional branch instruction, it will have the special value afterGoto. ExceptionStackFrame indicates what is passed to exception handlers.

• After an unconditional branch (indicated by an incoming type state of afterGoto), if we have a stack map giving the type state for the following instructions, we can proceed and type check them using the type state provided by the stack map.

• It is illegal to have code after an unconditional branch without a stack map frame being provided for it.

• If we have an unconditional branch at the end of the code, stop.

Branching to a target is type safe if the target has an associated stack frame, Frame, and the current stack frame, StackFrame, is assignable to Frame.

```
targetIsTypeSafe(Environment, StackFrame, Target) :-
   offsetStackFrame(Environment, Target, Frame),
   frameIsAssignable(StackFrame, Frame).
```

An instruction *satisfies its exception handlers* if it satisfies every exception handler that is applicable to the instruction.

An exception handler is *applicable* to an instruction if the offset of the instruction is greater or equal to the start of the handler's range and less than the end of the handler's range.

```
isApplicableHandler(Offset, handler(Start, End, _Target, _ClassName)) :-
   Offset >= Start,
   Offset < End.</pre>
```

An instruction *satisfies* an exception handler if its incoming type state is StackFrame, and the handler's target (the initial instruction of the handler code) is type safe assuming an incoming type state T. The type state T is derived from StackFrame by replacing the operand stack with a stack whose sole element is the handler's exception class.

```
instructionSatisfiesHandler(Environment, StackFrame, Handler) :-
    Handler = handler(_, _, Target, _),
    currentClassLoader(Environment, CurrentLoader),
    handlerExceptionClass(Handler, ExceptionClass, CurrentLoader),
    /* The stack consists of just the exception. */
    StackFrame = frame(Locals, _, Flags),
    ExcStackFrame = frame(Locals, [ ExceptionClass ], Flags),
    operandStackHasLegalLength(Environment, ExcStackFrame),
    targetIsTypeSafe(Environment, ExcStackFrame, Target).
```

4.10.1.7 Type Checking Load and Store Instructions

All load instructions are variations on a common pattern, varying the type of the value that the instruction loads.

Loading a value of type Type from local variable Index is type safe, if the type of that local variable is ActualType, ActualType is assignable to Type, and pushing ActualType onto the incoming operand stack is a valid type transition (§4.10.1.4) that yields a new type state NextStackFrame. After execution of the load instruction, the type state will be NextStackFrame.

All store instructions are variations on a common pattern, varying the type of the value that the instruction stores.

In general, a store instruction is type safe if the local variable it references is of a type that is a supertype of Type, and the top of the operand stack is of a subtype of Type, where Type is the type the instruction is designed to store.

More precisely, the store is type safe if one can pop a type ActualType that "matches" Type (that is, is a subtype of Type) off the operand stack (§4.10.1.4), and then legally assign that type the local variable L_{Index} .

Given local variables Locals, modifying Index to have type Type results in the local variable list NewLocals. The modifications are somewhat involved, because some values (and their corresponding types) occupy two local variables. Hence, modifying L_N may require modifying L_{N+1} (because the type will occupy both the N and N+1 slots) or L_{N-1} (because local N used to be the upper half of the two word value/type starting at local N-1, and so local N-1 must be invalidated), or both. This is described further below. We start at L_0 and count up.

```
modifyLocalVariable(Index, Type, Locals, NewLocals) :-
   modifyLocalVariable(0, Index, Type, Locals, NewLocals).
```

Given LocalsRest, the suffix of the local variable list starting at index I, modifying local variable Index to have type Type results in the local variable list suffix NextLocalsRest.

If I < Index-1, just copy the input to the output and recurse forward. If I = Index-1, the type of local I = Index-1, the type of local I = Index-1, the type of local I = Index-1 to the new type (and the corresponding value), the type/value of I = Index-1 will be invalidated, as its upper half will be trashed. Then we recurse forward.

When we find the variable, and it only occupies one word, we change it to Type and we're done. When we find the variable, and it occupies two words, we change its type to Type and the next word to top.

We refer to a local whose index immediately precedes a local whose type will be modified as a *pre-index variable*. The future type of a pre-index variable of type InputType is Result. If the type, Type, of the pre-index local is of size 1, it doesn't change. If the type of the pre-index local, Type, is 2, we need to mark the lower half of its two word value as unusable, by setting its type to top.

```
modifyPreIndexVariable(Type, Type) :- sizeOf(Type, 1).
modifyPreIndexVariable(Type, top) :- sizeOf(Type, 2).
```

4.10.1.8 Type Checking for protected Members

All instructions that access members must contend with the rules concerning protected members. This section describes the protected check that corresponds to JLS §6.6.2.1.

The protected check applies only to protected members of superclasses of the current class. protected members in other classes will be caught by the access checking done at resolution (§5.4.4). There are four cases:

• If the name of a class is not the name of any superclass, it cannot be a superclass, and so it can safely be ignored.

• If the MemberClassName is the same as the name of a superclass, the class being resolved may indeed be a superclass. In this case, if no superclass named MemberClassName in a different run-time package has a protected member named MemberName with descriptor MemberDescriptor, the protected check does not apply.

This is because the actual class being resolved will either be one of these superclasses, in which case we know that it is either in the same run-time package, and the access is legal; or the member in question is not protected and the check does not apply; or it will be a subclass, in which case the check would succeed anyway; or it will be some other class in the same run-time package, in which case the access is legal and the check need not take place; or the verifier need not flag this as a problem, since it will be caught anyway because resolution will per force fail.

• If there does exist a protected superclass member in a different run-time package, then load MemberClassName; if the member in question is not protected, the check does not apply. (Using a superclass member that is not protected is trivially correct.)

• Otherwise, use of a member of an object of type Target requires that Target be assignable to the type of the current class.

The predicate classesInOtherPkgWithProtectedMember(Class, MemberName, MemberDescriptor, MemberClassName, Chain, List) is true if List is the set of classes in Chain with name MemberClassName that are in a different run-time package than Class which have a protected member named MemberName with descriptor MemberDescriptor.

```
classesInOtherPkgWithProtectedMember(_, _, _, _, [], []).
classesInOtherPkgWithProtectedMember(Class, MemberName,
                                     MemberDescriptor, MemberClassName,
                                     [class(MemberClassName, L) | Tail],
                                     [class(MemberClassName, L) | T]) :-
    differentRuntimePackage(Class, class(MemberClassName, L)),
    loadedClass(MemberClassName, L, Super),
    isProtected(Super, MemberName, MemberDescriptor),
   classesInOtherPkgWithProtectedMember(
      Class, MemberName, MemberDescriptor, MemberClassName, Tail, T).
classesInOtherPkgWithProtectedMember(Class, MemberName,
                                     MemberDescriptor, MemberClassName,
                                     [class(MemberClassName, L) | Tail],
                                     T):-
    differentRuntimePackage(Class, class(MemberClassName, L)),
    loadedClass(MemberClassName, L, Super),
    isNotProtected(Super, MemberName, MemberDescriptor),
    classesInOtherPkgWithProtectedMember(
      Class, MemberName, MemberDescriptor, MemberClassName, Tail, T).
classesInOtherPkgWithProtectedMember(Class, MemberName,
                                     MemberDescriptor, MemberClassName,
                                     [class(MemberClassName, L) | Tail],
                                     Tl:-
    sameRuntimePackage(Class, class(MemberClassName, L)),
    classesInOtherPkgWithProtectedMember(
      Class, MemberName, MemberDescriptor, MemberClassName, Tail, T).
sameRuntimePackage(Class1, Class2) :-
    classDefiningLoader(Class1, L),
    classDefiningLoader(Class2, L),
    samePackageName(Class1, Class2).
differentRuntimePackage(Class1, Class2) :-
    classDefiningLoader(Class1, L1),
    classDefiningLoader(Class2, L2),
   L1 \= L2.
differentRuntimePackage(Class1, Class2) :-
    differentPackageName(Class1, Class2).
```

4.10.1.9 Type Checking Instructions

In general, the type rule for an instruction is given relative to an environment Environment that defines the class and method in which the instruction occurs (§4.10.1.1), and the offset offset within the method at which the instruction occurs. The rule states that if the incoming type state StackFrame fulfills certain requirements, then:

- The instruction is type safe.
- It is provable that the type state after the instruction completes normally has a particular form given by NextStackFrame, and that the type state after the instruction completes abruptly is given by ExceptionStackFrame.

The type state after an instruction completes abruptly is the same as the incoming type state, except that the operand stack is empty.

```
exceptionStackFrame(StackFrame, ExceptionStackFrame) :-
    StackFrame = frame(Locals, _OperandStack, Flags),
    ExceptionStackFrame = frame(Locals, [], Flags).
```

Many instructions have type rules that are completely isomorphic to the rules for other instructions. If an instruction b1 is isomorphic to another instruction b2, then the type rule for b1 is the same as the type rule for b2.

The English language description of each rule is intended to be readable, intuitive, and concise. As such, the description avoids repeating all the contextual assumptions given above. In particular:

- The description does not explicitly mention the environment.
- When the description speaks of the operand stack or local variables in the following, it is referring to the operand stack and local variable components of a type state: either the incoming type state or the outgoing one.
- The type state after the instruction completes abruptly is almost always identical to the incoming type state. The description only discusses the type state after the instruction completes abruptly when that is not the case.

- The description speaks of popping and pushing types onto the operand stack, and does not explicitly discuss issues of stack underflow or overflow. The description assumes these operations can be completed successfully, but the Prolog clauses for operand stack manipulation ensure that the necessary checks are made.
- The description discusses only the manipulation of logical types. In practice, some types take more than one word. The description abstracts from these representation details, but the Prolog clauses that manipulate data do not.

Any ambiguities can be resolved by referring to the formal Prolog clauses.

aaload aaload

An *aaload* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and an array type with component type ComponentType where ComponentType is a subtype of Object, with ComponentType yielding the outgoing type state.

The component type of an array of x is x. We define the component type of null to be null.

```
arrayComponentType(arrayOf(X), X).
arrayComponentType(null, null).
```

aastore aastore

An *aastore* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching <code>Object</code>, <code>int</code>, and an array of <code>Object</code> off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

aconst_null

aconst null

An *aconst_null* instruction is type safe if one can validly push the type null onto the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

aload aload

An *aload* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a load instruction with operand Index and type reference is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

aload_<n> aload_<n>

The instructions $aload_ < n >$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are type safe iff the equivalent aload instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(aload_0, aload(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(aload_1, aload(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(aload_2, aload(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(aload_3, aload(3)).
```

anewarray

anewarray

An *anewarray* instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting either a class type or an array type, and one can legally replace a type matching int on the incoming operand stack with an array with component type CP yielding the outgoing type state.

areturn areturn

An *areturn* instruction is type safe iff the enclosing method has a declared return type, ReturnType, that is a reference type, and one can validly pop a type matching ReturnType off the incoming operand stack.

arraylength

arraylength

An *arraylength* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace an array type on the incoming operand stack with the type int yielding the outgoing type state.

astore astore

An *astore* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a store instruction with operand Index and type reference is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

astore_<n>

astore <n>

The instructions $astore_< n>$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are type safe iff the equivalent astore instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(astore_0, astore(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(astore_1, astore(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(astore_2, astore(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(astore_3, astore(3)).
```

athrow athrow

An *athrow* instruction is type safe iff the top of the operand stack matches Throwable.

baload baload

A *baload* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and a small array type on the incoming operand stack with int yielding the outgoing type state.

An array type is a *small array type* if it is an array of byte, an array of boolean, or a subtype thereof (null).

```
isSmallArray(arrayOf(byte)).
isSmallArray(arrayOf(boolean)).
isSmallArray(null).
```

bastore bastore

A *bastore* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching int, int and a small array type off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

4.10

bipush bipush

A *bipush* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *sipush* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(bipush(Value), sipush(Value)).

caload caload

A caload instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and array of char on the incoming operand stack with int yielding the outgoing type state.

castore castore

A *castore* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching int, int and array of char off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

checkcast checkcast

A *checkcast* instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting either a class or an array, and one can validly replace the type Object on top of the incoming operand stack with the type denoted by CP yielding the outgoing type state.

d2f d2f

A d2f instruction is type safe if one can validly pop double off the incoming operand stack and replace it with float, yielding the outgoing type state.

d2i d2i

A d2i instruction is type safe if one can validly pop double off the incoming operand stack and replace it with int, yielding the outgoing type state.

d2l d2l

A *d2l* instruction is type safe if one can validly pop double off the incoming operand stack and replace it with long, yielding the outgoing type state.

dadd dadd

A *dadd* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching double and double on the incoming operand stack with double yielding the outgoing type state.

daload daload

A *daload* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and array of double on the incoming operand stack with double yielding the outgoing type state.

dastore dastore

A *dastore* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching double, int and array of double off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

dcmp<op> dcmp<op>

A *dcmpg* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching double and double on the incoming operand stack with int yielding the outgoing type state.

A *dcmpl* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *dcmpg* instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dcmpl, dcmpg).
```

dconst <d>

dconst < d>

A *dconst_0* instruction is type safe if one can validly push the type double onto the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

A *dconst_1* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *dconst_0* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dconst_1, dconst_0).

ddiv ddiv

A *ddiv* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *dadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ddiv, dadd).

dload dload

A *dload* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a load instruction with operand Index and type double is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

dload_<n> dload_<n>

The instructions $dload_ < n >$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are typesafe iff the equivalent dload instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dload_0, dload(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dload_1, dload(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dload_2, dload(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dload_3, dload(3)).
```

dmul dmul

A *dmul* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *dadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dmul, dadd).

dneg dneg

A *dneg* instruction is type safe iff there is a type matching double on the incoming operand stack. The *dneg* instruction does not alter the type state.

drem drem

A *drem* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *dadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(drem, dadd).

dreturn dreturn

A *dreturn* instruction is type safe if the enclosing method has a declared return type of double, and one can validly pop a type matching double off the incoming operand stack.

dstore dstore

A *dstore* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a store instruction with operand Index and type double is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

dstore_<n> dstore_<n>

The instructions $dstore_< n>$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are type safe iff the equivalent dstore instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dstore_0, dstore(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dstore_1, dstore(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dstore_2, dstore(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dstore_3, dstore(3)).
```

dsub dsub

A dsub instruction is type safe iff the equivalent dadd instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(dsub, dadd).

dup dup

A *dup* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace a category 1 type, Type, with the types Type, Type, yielding the outgoing type state.

 dup_x1 dup_x1

A *dup_x1* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace two category 1 types, Type1, and Type2, on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type1, yielding the outgoing type state.

 dup_x2 dup_x2

A *dup_x2* instruction is type safe iff it is a *type safe form* of the *dup_x2* instruction.

A dup_x2 instruction is a type safe form of the dup_x2 instruction iff it is a type safe form 1 dup_x2 instruction or a type safe form 2 dup_x2 instruction.

```
dup_x2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup_x2Form1IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).

dup_x2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup_x2Form2IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).
```

A *dup_x2* instruction is a *type safe form 1 dup_x2* instruction iff one can validly replace three category 1 types, Type1, Type2, Type3 on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type3, Type1, yielding the outgoing type state.

A *dup_x2* instruction is a *type safe form 2 dup_x2* instruction iff one can validly replace a category 1 type, Type1, and a category 2 type, Type2, on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type1, yielding the outgoing type state.

dup2 dup2

A dup2 instruction is type safe iff it is a type safe form of the dup2 instruction.

A dup2 instruction is a type safe form of the dup2 instruction iff it is a type safe form 1 dup2 instruction or a type safe form 2 dup2 instruction.

```
dup2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup2Form1IsTypeSafe(Environment,InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).

dup2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup2Form2IsTypeSafe(Environment,InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).
```

A *dup2* instruction is a *type safe form 1 dup2* instruction iff one can validly replace two category 1 types, Type1 and Type2 on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type1, Type2, yielding the outgoing type state.

A *dup2* instruction is a *type safe form 2 dup2* instruction iff one can validly replace a category 2 type, Type on the incoming operand stack with the types Type, Type, yielding the outgoing type state.

```
dup2Form2IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack):-
    popCategory2(InputOperandStack, Type, _),
    canSafelyPush(Environment, InputOperandStack, Type, OutputOperandStack).
```

 $dup2_x1$ $dup2_x1$

A $dup2_x1$ instruction is type safe iff it is a type safe form of the $dup2_x1$ instruction.

A $dup2_x1$ instruction is a type safe form of the $dup2_x1$ instruction iff it is a type safe form 1 $dup2_x1$ instruction or a type safe form 2 dup_x2 instruction.

```
dup2_x1SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup2_x1Form1IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).

dup2_x1SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup2_x1Form2IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).
```

A $dup2_x1$ instruction is a type safe $form 1 <math>dup2_x1$ instruction iff one can validly replace three category 1 types, type1, type2, type3, on the incoming operand stack with the types type1, type2, type3, type3, type2, type3, type3,

A *dup2_x1* instruction is a *type safe form 2 dup2_x1* instruction iff one can validly replace a category 2 type, Type1, and a category 1 type, Type2, on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type1, yielding the outgoing type state.

 $dup2_x2$ $dup2_x2$

A dup2_x2 instruction is type safe iff it is a type safe form of the dup2_x2 instruction.

A *dup2_x2* instruction is a *type safe form* of the *dup2_x2* instruction iff one of the following holds:

- it is a *type safe form 1 dup2_x2* instruction.
- it is a *type safe form 2 dup2_x2* instruction.
- it is a *type safe form 3 dup2_x2* instruction.
- it is a *type safe form 4 dup2_x2* instruction.

```
dup2_x2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup2_x2Form1IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).

dup2_x2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup2_x2Form2IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).

dup2_x2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack) :-
    dup2_x2Form3IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).

dup2_x2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack):-
```

dup2_x2Form4IsTypeSafe(Environment, InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).

A *dup2_x2* instruction is a *type safe form 1 dup2_x2* instruction iff one can validly replace four category 1 types, Type1, Type2, Type3, Type4, on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type3, Type4, Type1, Type2, yielding the outgoing type state.

A *dup2_x2* instruction is a *type safe form 2 dup2_x2* instruction iff one can validly replace a category 2 type, Type1, and two category 1 types, Type2, Type3, on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type3, Type1, yielding the outgoing type state.

A *dup2_x2* instruction is a *type safe form 3 dup2_x2* instruction iff one can validly replace two category 1 types, Type1, Type2, and a category 2 type, Type3, on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type2, Type3, Type1, Type2, yielding the outgoing type state.

A dup2_x2 instruction is a type safe form 4 dup2_x2 instruction iff one can validly replace two category 2 types, Type1, Type2, on the incoming operand stack with the types Type1, Type2, Type1, yielding the outgoing type state.

f2d f2d

An f2d instruction is type safe if one can validly pop float off the incoming operand stack and replace it with double, yielding the outgoing type state.

f2i

An f2i instruction is type safe if one can validly pop float off the incoming operand stack and replace it with int, yielding the outgoing type state.

f2l

An f2l instruction is type safe if one can validly pop float off the incoming operand stack and replace it with long, yielding the outgoing type state.

fadd fadd

An *fadd* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching float and float on the incoming operand stack with float yielding the outgoing type state.

faload faload

An *faload* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and array of float on the incoming operand stack with float yielding the outgoing type state.

fastore fastore

An *fastore* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching float, int and array of float off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

fcmp<op> fcmp<op>

An *fcmpg* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching float and float on the incoming operand stack with int yielding the outgoing type state.

An *fcmpl* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *fcmpg* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fcmpl, fcmpg).

fconst_<f>

fconst_<f>

An *fconst_0* instruction is type safe if one can validly push the type float onto the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

The rules for the other variants of *fconst* are equivalent.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fconst_1, fconst_0).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fconst_2, fconst_0).
```

fdiv fdiv

An *fdiv* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *fadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fdiv, fadd).

fload fload

An *fload* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a load instruction with operand Index and type float is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

 $fload_ < n >$

 $fload_< n>$

The instructions $fload_{<}n>$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are typesafe iff the equivalent fload instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fload_0, fload(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fload_1, fload(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fload_2, fload(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fload_3, fload(3)).
```

fmul fmul

An fmul instruction is type safe iff the equivalent fadd instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fmul, fadd).

fneg fneg

An *fneg* instruction is type safe iff there is a type matching float on the incoming operand stack. The *fneg* instruction does not alter the type state.

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frem frem

An *frem* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *fadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(frem, fadd).

freturn freturn

An *freturn* instruction is type safe if the enclosing method has a declared return type of float, and one can validly pop a type matching float off the incoming operand stack.

fstore fstore

An *fstore* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a store instruction with operand Index and type float is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

fstore_<n> fstore_<n>

The instructions $fstore_ < n >$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are typesafe iff the equivalent fstore instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fstore_0, fstore(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fstore_1, fstore(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fstore_2, fstore(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fstore_3, fstore(3)).
```

fsub fsub

An *fsub* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *fadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(fsub, fadd).

getfield getfield

A *getfield* instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting a field whose declared type is FieldType, declared in a class FieldClass, and one can validly replace a type matching FieldClass with type FieldType on the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state. FieldClass must not be an array type. protected fields are subject to additional checks (§4.10.1.8).

getstatic getstatic

A *getstatic* instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting a field whose declared type is FieldType, and one can validly push FieldType on the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

goto

A goto instruction is type safe iff its target operand is a valid branch target.

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goto_w goto_w

A *goto_w* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *goto* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(goto_w(Target), goto(Target)).

i2b i2b

An *i2b* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ineg* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(i2b, ineg).

i2c i2c

An i2c instruction is type safe iff the equivalent ineg instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(i2c, ineg).

i2d i2d

An *i2d* instruction is type safe if one can validly pop int off the incoming operand stack and replace it with double, yielding the outgoing type state.

i2f i2f

An *i2f* instruction is type safe if one can validly pop int off the incoming operand stack and replace it with float, yielding the outgoing type state.

i2l

An *i2l* instruction is type safe if one can validly pop int off the incoming operand stack and replace it with long, yielding the outgoing type state.

i2s

An *i2s* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ineg* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(i2s, ineg).

iadd iadd

An *iadd* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and int on the incoming operand stack with int yielding the outgoing type state.

iaload iaload

An *iaload* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and array of int on the incoming operand stack with int yielding the outgoing type state.

iand iand

An *iand* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(iand, iadd).

iastore iastore

An *iastore* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching int, int and array of int off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

if_acmp<cond>

if_acmp<cond>

An *if_acmpeq* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching reference and reference on the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state NextStackFrame, and the operand of the instruction, Target, is a valid branch target assuming an incoming type state of NextStackFrame.

The rule for *if_acmpne* is identical.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(if_acmpne(Target), if_acmpeq(Target)).
```

if_icmp<cond>

if_icmp<cond>

An *if_icmpeq* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching int and int on the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state NextStackFrame, and the operand of the instruction, Target, is a valid branch target assuming an incoming type state of NextStackFrame.

The rules for all other variants of the *if_icmp*<*cond*> instruction are identical.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(if_icmpge(Target), if_icmpeq(Target)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(if_icmpgt(Target), if_icmpeq(Target)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(if_icmple(Target), if_icmpeq(Target)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(if_icmplt(Target), if_icmpeq(Target)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(if_icmpne(Target), if_icmpeq(Target)).
```

if<cond> if<cond>

An *ifeq* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop a type matching int off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state NextStackFrame, and the operand of the instruction, Target, is a valid branch target assuming an incoming type state of NextStackFrame.

The rules for all other variations of the *if*<*cond*> instruction are identical.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ifge(Target), ifeq(Target)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ifgt(Target), ifeq(Target)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ifle(Target), ifeq(Target)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(iflt(Target), ifeq(Target)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ifne(Target), ifeq(Target)).
```

ifnonnull ifnonnull

An *ifnonnull* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop a type matching reference off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state NextStackFrame, and the operand of the instruction, Target, is a valid branch target assuming an incoming type state of NextStackFrame.

ifnull ifnull

An *ifnull* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ifnonnull* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ifnull(Target), ifnonnull(Target)).

iinc iinc

An *iinc* instruction with first operand Index is type safe iff L_{Index} has type int. The *iinc* instruction does not change the type state.

iload iload

An *iload* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a load instruction with operand Index and type int is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

The instructions $iload_ < n >$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are typesafe iff the equivalent iload instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(iload_0, iload(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(iload_1, iload(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(iload_2, iload(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(iload_3, iload(3)).
```

imul imul

An *imul* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(imul, iadd).

ineg ineg

An *ineg* instruction is type safe iff there is a type matching int on the incoming operand stack. The *ineg* instruction does not alter the type state.

instanceof

instanceof

An *instanceof* instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting either a class or an array, and one can validly replace the type Object on top of the incoming operand stack with type int yielding the outgoing type state.

invokedynamic

invokedynamic

An *invokedynamic* instruction is type safe iff all of the following conditions hold:

- Its first operand, CP, refers to a constant pool entry denoting an dynamic call site with name CallSiteName with descriptor Descriptor.
- CallSiteName is not <init>.
- CallSiteName is not <clinit>.
- One can validly replace types matching the argument types given in Descriptor on the incoming operand stack with the return type given in Descriptor, yielding the outgoing type state.

invokeinterface

invokeinterface

An *invokeinterface* instruction is type safe iff all of the following conditions hold:

- Its first operand, CP, refers to a constant pool entry denoting an interface method named MethodName with descriptor Descriptor that is a member of an interface MethodIntfName.
- MethodName is not <init>.
- MethodName is not <clinit>.
- Its second operand, count, is a valid count operand (see below).
- One can validly replace types matching the type MethodIntfName and the argument types given in Descriptor on the incoming operand stack with the return type given in Descriptor, yielding the outgoing type state.

The Count operand of an *invokeinterface* instruction is valid if it equals the size of the arguments to the instruction. This is equal to the difference between the size of InputFrame and OutputFrame.

```
countIsValid(Count, InputFrame, OutputFrame) :-
   InputFrame = frame(_Locals1, OperandStack1, _Flags1),
   OutputFrame = frame(_Locals2, OperandStack2, _Flags2),
   length(OperandStack1, Length1),
   length(OperandStack2, Length2),
   Count =:= Length1 - Length2.
```

invokespecial

invokespecial

An *invokespecial* instruction is type safe iff all of the following conditions hold:

- Its first operand, CP, refers to a constant pool entry denoting a method named MethodName with descriptor Descriptor that is a member of a class MethodClassName.
- Either:
 - MethodName is not <init>.
 - MethodName is not <clinit>.
 - One can validly replace types matching the current class and the argument types given in Descriptor on the incoming operand stack with the return type given in Descriptor, yielding the outgoing type state.
 - One can validly replace types matching the class MethodClassName and the argument types given in Descriptor on the incoming operand stack with the return type given in Descriptor.

```
instructionIsTypeSafe(invokespecial(CP), Environment, _Offset, StackFrame,
                     NextStackFrame, ExceptionStackFrame) :-
   CP = method(MethodClassName, MethodName, Descriptor),
   MethodName \= '<init>',
   MethodName \= '<clinit>',
   parseMethodDescriptor(Descriptor, OperandArgList, ReturnType),
   thisClass(Environment, CurrentClass),
   reverse([CurrentClass | OperandArgList], StackArgList),
   validTypeTransition(Environment, StackArgList, ReturnType,
                        StackFrame, NextStackFrame),
   currentClassLoader(Environment, L),
   reverse([class(MethodClassName, L) | OperandArgList], StackArgList2),
   validTypeTransition(Environment, StackArgList2, ReturnType,
                        StackFrame, _ResultStackFrame),
   isAssignable(class(CurrentClassName, L), class(MethodClassName, L)).
   exceptionStackFrame(StackFrame, ExceptionStackFrame).
```

• Or:

- MethodName is <init>.
- Descriptor specifies a void return type.

- One can validly pop types matching the argument types given in Descriptor and an uninitialized type, UninitializedArg, off the incoming operand stack, yielding OperandStack.
- The outgoing type state is derived from the incoming type state by first replacing the incoming operand stack with OperandStack and then replacing all instances of UninitializedArq with the type of instance being initialized.

```
instructionIsTypeSafe(invokespecial(CP), Environment, _Offset, StackFrame,
                      NextStackFrame, ExceptionStackFrame) :-
    CP = method(MethodClassName, '<init>', Descriptor),
   parseMethodDescriptor(Descriptor, OperandArgList, void),
    reverse(OperandArgList, StackArgList),
    canPop(StackFrame, StackArgList, TempFrame),
    TempFrame = frame(Locals, FullOperandStack, Flags),
    FullOperandStack = [UninitializedArg | OperandStack],
    currentClassLoader(Environment, CurrentLoader),
    rewrittenUninitializedType(UninitializedArg, Environment,
                               class(MethodClassName, CurrentLoader), This),
    rewrittenInitializationFlags(UninitializedArg, Flags, NextFlags),
    substitute(UninitializedArg, This, OperandStack, NextOperandStack),
    substitute(UninitializedArg, This, Locals, NextLocals),
   NextStackFrame = frame(NextLocals, NextOperandStack, NextFlags),
    ExceptionStackFrame = frame(NextLocals, [], Flags),
    passesProtectedCheck(Environment, MethodClassName, '<init>',
                         Descriptor, NextStackFrame).
rewrittenUninitializedType(uninitializedThis, Environment,
                           MethodClass, This) :-
    thisClass(Environment, This).
rewrittenUninitializedType(uninitialized(Address), Environment,
                           MethodClass, MethodClass) :-
    allInstructions(Environment, Instructions),
    member(instruction(Address, new(MethodClass)), Instructions).
substitute(_Old, _New, [], []).
substitute(Old, New, [Old | FromRest], [New | ToRest]) :-
    substitute(Old, New, FromRest, ToRest).
substitute(Old, New, [From1 | FromRest], [From1 | ToRest]) :-
   From1 \= Old,
    substitute(Old, New, FromRest, ToRest).
```

To compute what type the uninitialized argument's type needs to be rewritten to, there are two cases:

- If we are initializing an object within its constructor, its type is initially uninitializedThis. This type will be rewritten to the type of the class of the <init> method.
- The second case arises from initialization of an object created by *new*. The uninitialized arg type is rewritten to MethodClass, the type of the method holder of <init>. We check whether there really is a *new* instruction at Address.

```
rewrittenInitializationFlags(uninitializedThis, _Flags, []).
rewrittenInitializationFlags(uninitialized(_), Flags, Flags).
```

The rule for *invokespecial* of an <init> method is the sole motivation for passing back a distinct exception stack frame. The concern is that *invokespecial* can cause a superclass <init> method to be invoked, and that invocation could fail, leaving this uninitialized. This situation cannot be created using source code in the Java programming language, but can be created by programming in bytecode directly.

The original frame holds an uninitialized object in a local and has flag uninitializedThis. Normal termination of *invokespecial* initializes the uninitialized object and turns off the uninitializedThis flag. But if the invocation of an <init>method throws an exception, the uninitialized object might be left in a partially initialized state, and needs to be made permanently unusable. This is represented by an exception frame containing the broken object (the new value of the local) and the uninitializedThis flag (the old flag). There is no way to get from an apparently-initialized object bearing the uninitializedThis flag to a properly initialized object, so the object is permanently unusable. If not for this case, the exception stack frame could be the same as the input stack frame.

invokestatic invokestatic

An *invokestatic* instruction is type safe iff all of the following conditions hold:

- Its first operand, CP, refers to a constant pool entry denoting a method named MethodName with descriptor Descriptor.
- MethodName is not <init>.
- MethodName is not <clinit>.
- One can validly replace types matching the argument types given in Descriptor on the incoming operand stack with the return type given in Descriptor, yielding the outgoing type state.

invokevirtual

invokevirtual

An *invokevirtual* instruction is type safe iff all of the following conditions hold:

- Its first operand, CP, refers to a constant pool entry denoting a method named MethodName with descriptor Descriptor that is a member of a class MethodClassName.
- MethodName is not <init>.
- MethodName is not <clinit>.
- One can validly replace types matching the class MethodClassName and the argument types given in Descriptor on the incoming operand stack with the return type given in Descriptor, yielding the outgoing type state.
- If the method is protected, the usage conforms to the special rules governing access to protected members (§4.10.1.8).

ior

An *ior* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ior, iadd).

4.10

irem irem

An *irem* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(irem, iadd).

ireturn ireturn

An *ireturn* instruction is type safe if the enclosing method has a declared return type of int, and one can validly pop a type matching int off the incoming operand stack.

4.10

ishl ishl

An *ishl* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ishl, iadd).

ishr

An *ishr* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ishr, iadd).

istore istore

An *istore* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a store instruction with operand Index and type int is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

istore_<n> istore_<n>

The instructions $istore_ < n >$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are type safe iff the equivalent istore instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(istore_0, istore(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(istore_1, istore(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(istore_2, istore(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(istore_3, istore(3)).
```

4.10

isub isub

An *isub* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(isub, iadd).

iushr iushr

An *iushr* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(iushr, iadd).

4.10

ixor ixor

An *ixor* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *iadd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ixor, iadd).

12d

An l2d instruction is type safe if one can validly pop long off the incoming operand stack and replace it with double, yielding the outgoing type state.

l2f

An *l2f* instruction is type safe if one can validly pop long off the incoming operand stack and replace it with float, yielding the outgoing type state.

*l*2*i*

An *l2i* instruction is type safe if one can validly pop long off the incoming operand stack and replace it with int, yielding the outgoing type state.

ladd ladd

An *ladd* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching long and long on the incoming operand stack with long yielding the outgoing type state.

laload laload

An *laload* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and array of long on the incoming operand stack with long yielding the outgoing type state.

4.10

land land

An *land* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ladd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(land, ladd).

lastore lastore

An *lastore* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching long, int and array of long off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

lcmp lcmp

A *lcmp* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching long and long on the incoming operand stack with int yielding the outgoing type state.

lconst_<l> lconst_<l>

An *lconst_0* instruction is type safe if one can validly push the type long onto the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

An *lconst_1* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *lconst_0* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lconst_1, lconst_0).

ldc ldc

An ldc instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting an entity of type Type, where Type is either int, float, String, Class, java.lang.invoke.MethodType, or java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle, and one can validly push Type onto the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

 ldc_w ldc_w

An *ldc_w* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ldc* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ldc_w(CP), ldc(CP))

 $ldc2_w$ $ldc2_w$

An $ldc2_w$ instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting an entity of type Tag, where Tag is either long or double, and one can validly push Tag onto the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

ldiv

An *ldiv* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ladd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(ldiv, ladd).

lload lload

An *lload* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a load instruction with operand Index and type long is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

The instructions $lload_< n>$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are type safe iff the equivalent lload instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lload_0, lload(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lload_1, lload(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lload_2, lload(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lload_3, lload(3)).
```

4.10

lmul lmul

An *lmul* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ladd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lmul, ladd).

lneg lneg

An *lneg* instruction is type safe iff there is a type matching long on the incoming operand stack. The *lneg* instruction does not alter the type state.

lookupswitch

lookupswitch

A *lookupswitch* instruction is type safe if its keys are sorted, one can validly pop int off the incoming operand stack yielding a new type state BranchStackFrame, and all of the instruction's targets are valid branch targets assuming BranchStackFrame as their incoming type state.

lor lor

A *lor* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ladd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lor, ladd).

4.10

lrem lrem

An *lrem* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ladd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lrem, ladd).

lreturn lreturn

An *lreturn* instruction is type safe if the enclosing method has a declared return type of long, and one can validly pop a type matching long off the incoming operand stack.

lshl

An *lshl* instruction is type safe if one can validly replace the types int and long on the incoming operand stack with the type long yielding the outgoing type state.

lshr

An *lshr* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *lshl* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lshr, lshl).

lstore lstore

An *lstore* instruction with operand Index is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame, if a store instruction with operand Index and type long is type safe and yields an outgoing type state NextStackFrame.

lstore_<n> lstore_<n>

The instructions $lstore_ < n >$, for $0 \le n \le 3$, are type safe iff the equivalent lstore instruction is type safe.

```
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lstore_0, lstore(0)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lstore_1, lstore(1)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lstore_2, lstore(2)).
instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lstore_3, lstore(3)).
```

lsub lsub

An *lsub* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ladd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lsub, ladd).

lushr lushr

An *lushr* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *lshl* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lushr, lshl).

4.10

lxor

An *lxor* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *ladd* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(lxor, ladd).

monitorenter

monitorenter

A *monitorenter* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop a type matching reference off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

monitorexit monitorexit

A *monitorexit* instruction is type safe iff the equivalent *monitorenter* instruction is type safe.

instructionHasEquivalentTypeRule(monitorexit, monitorenter).

multianewarray

multianewarray

A *multianewarray* instruction with operands CP and Dim is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting an array type whose dimension is greater or equal to Dim, Dim is strictly positive, and one can validly replace Dim int types on the incoming operand stack with the type denoted by CP yielding the outgoing type state.

The dimension of an array type whose component type is also an array type is one more than the dimension of its component type.

```
classDimension(arrayOf(X), Dimension) :-
    classDimension(X, Dimension1),
    Dimension is Dimension1 + 1.

classDimension(_, Dimension) :-
    Dimension = 0.
```

new new

A *new* instruction with operand CP at offset offset is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting a class type, the type uninitialized(Offset) does not appear in the incoming operand stack, and one can validly push uninitialized(Offset) onto the incoming operand stack and replace uninitialized(Offset) with top in the incoming local variables yielding the outgoing type state.

newarray newarray

A newarray instruction with operand TypeCode is type safe iff TypeCode corresponds to the primitive type ElementType, and one can validly replace the type int on the incoming operand stack with the type 'array of ElementType', yielding the outgoing type state.

The correspondence between type codes and primitive types is specified by the following predicate:

```
primitiveArrayInfo(4, 0'Z, boolean, int).
primitiveArrayInfo(5, 0'C, char, int).
primitiveArrayInfo(6, 0'F, float, float).
primitiveArrayInfo(7, 0'D, double, double).
primitiveArrayInfo(8, 0'B, byte, int).
primitiveArrayInfo(9, 0'S, short, int).
primitiveArrayInfo(10, 0'I, int, int).
primitiveArrayInfo(11, 0'J, long, long).
```

4.10

nop nop

A *nop* instruction is always type safe. The *nop* instruction does not affect the type state.

pop

A *pop* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop a category 1 type off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

pop2 pop2

A pop2 instruction is type safe iff it is a type safe form of the pop2 instruction.

A pop2 instruction is a type safe form of the pop2 instruction iff it is a type safe form 1 pop2 instruction or a type safe form 2 pop2 instruction.

```
pop2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack):-
    pop2Form1IsTypeSafe(InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).

pop2SomeFormIsTypeSafe(InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack):-
    pop2Form2IsTypeSafe(InputOperandStack, OutputOperandStack).
```

A *pop2* instruction is a *type safe form 1 pop2* instruction iff one can validly pop two types of size 1 off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

```
pop2Form1IsTypeSafe([Type1, Type2 | Rest], Rest) :-
    sizeOf(Type1, 1),
    sizeOf(Type2, 1).
```

A *pop2* instruction is a *type safe form 2 pop2* instruction iff one can validly pop a type of size 2 off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

```
pop2Form2IsTypeSafe([top, Type | Rest], Rest) :- sizeOf(Type, 2).
```

putfield putfield

A *putfield* instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting a field whose declared type is FieldType, declared in a class FieldClass, and one can validly pop types matching FieldType and FieldClass off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

putstatic putstatic

A *putstatic* instruction with operand CP is type safe iff CP refers to a constant pool entry denoting a field whose declared type is FieldType, and one can validly pop a type matching FieldType off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

return return

A *return* instruction is type safe if the enclosing method declares a void return type, and either:

- The enclosing method is not an <init> method, or
- this has already been completely initialized at the point where the instruction occurs.

saload saload

An *saload* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace types matching int and array of short on the incoming operand stack with int yielding the outgoing type state.

sastore sastore

An *sastore* instruction is type safe iff one can validly pop types matching int, int, and array of short off the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

sipush sipush

An *sipush* instruction is type safe iff one can validly push the type int onto the incoming operand stack yielding the outgoing type state.

swap swap

A *swap* instruction is type safe iff one can validly replace two category 1 types, Type1 and Type2, on the incoming operand stack with the types Type2 and Type1 yielding the outgoing type state.

tableswitch tableswitch

A *tableswitch* instruction is type safe if its keys are sorted, one can validly pop int off the incoming operand stack yielding a new type state BranchStackFrame, and all of the instruction's targets are valid branch targets assuming BranchStackFrame as their incoming type state.

wide wide

The wide instructions follow the same rules as the instructions they widen.

4.10.2 Verification by Type Inference

A class file that does not contain a StackMapTable attribute (which necessarily has a version number of 49.0 or below) must be verified using type inference.

4.10.2.1 The Process of Verification by Type Inference

During linking, the verifier checks the code array of the Code attribute for each method of the class file by performing data-flow analysis on each method. The verifier ensures that at any given point in the program, no matter what code path is taken to reach that point, the following is true:

- The operand stack is always the same size and contains the same types of values.
- No local variable is accessed unless it is known to contain a value of an appropriate type.
- Methods are invoked with the appropriate arguments.
- Fields are assigned only using values of appropriate types.
- All opcodes have appropriate type arguments on the operand stack and in the local variable array.
- There is never an uninitialized class instance in a local variable in code protected by an exception handler. However, an uninitialized class instance may be on the operand stack in code protected by an exception handler. When an exception is thrown, the contents of the operand stack are discarded.

For efficiency reasons, certain tests that could in principle be performed by the verifier are delayed until the first time the code for the method is actually invoked. In so doing, the verifier avoids loading class files unless it has to.

For example, if a method invokes another method that returns an instance of class A, and that instance is assigned only to a field of the same type, the verifier does not bother to check if the class A actually exists. However, if it is assigned to a field of the type B, the definitions of both A and B must be loaded in to ensure that A is a subclass of B.

4.10.2.2 The Bytecode Verifier

The code for each method is verified independently. First, the bytes that make up the code are broken up into a sequence of instructions, and the index into the code array of the start of each instruction is placed in an array. The verifier then goes through the code a second time and parses the instructions. During this pass a data structure is built to hold information about each Java Virtual Machine instruction in the method. The operands, if any, of each instruction are checked to make sure they are valid. For instance:

- Branches must be within the bounds of the code array for the method.
- The targets of all control-flow instructions are each the start of an instruction. In the case of a *wide* instruction, the *wide* opcode is considered the start of the instruction, and the opcode giving the operation modified by that *wide* instruction is not considered to start an instruction. Branches into the middle of an instruction are disallowed.
- No instruction can access or modify a local variable at an index greater than or
 equal to the number of local variables that its method indicates it allocates.
- All references to the constant pool must be to an entry of the appropriate type. (For example, the instruction *getfield* must reference a field.)
- The code does not end in the middle of an instruction.
- Execution cannot fall off the end of the code.
- For each exception handler, the starting and ending point of code protected by the handler must be at the beginning of an instruction or, in the case of the ending point, immediately past the end of the code. The starting point must be before the ending point. The exception handler code must start at a valid instruction, and it must not start at an opcode being modified by the *wide* instruction.

For each instruction of the method, the verifier records the contents of the operand stack and the contents of the local variable array prior to the execution of that instruction. For the operand stack, it needs to know the stack height and the type of each value on it. For each local variable, it needs to know either the type of the contents of that local variable or that the local variable contains an unusable or unknown value (it might be uninitialized). The bytecode verifier does not need to distinguish between the integral types (e.g., byte, short, char) when determining the value types on the operand stack.

Next, a data-flow analyzer is initialized. For the first instruction of the method, the local variables that represent parameters initially contain values of the types indicated by the method's type descriptor; the operand stack is empty. All other

local variables contain an illegal value. For the other instructions, which have not been examined yet, no information is available regarding the operand stack or local variables.

Finally, the data-flow analyzer is run. For each instruction, a "changed" bit indicates whether this instruction needs to be looked at. Initially, the "changed" bit is set only for the first instruction. The data-flow analyzer executes the following loop:

- 1. Select a Java Virtual Machine instruction whose "changed" bit is set. If no instruction remains whose "changed" bit is set, the method has successfully been verified. Otherwise, turn off the "changed" bit of the selected instruction.
- 2. Model the effect of the instruction on the operand stack and local variable array by doing the following:
 - If the instruction uses values from the operand stack, ensure that there are a sufficient number of values on the stack and that the top values on the stack are of an appropriate type. Otherwise, verification fails.
 - If the instruction uses a local variable, ensure that the specified local variable contains a value of the appropriate type. Otherwise, verification fails.
 - If the instruction pushes values onto the operand stack, ensure that there is sufficient room on the operand stack for the new values. Add the indicated types to the top of the modeled operand stack.
 - If the instruction modifies a local variable, record that the local variable now contains the new type.
- 3. Determine the instructions that can follow the current instruction. Successor instructions can be one of the following:
 - The next instruction, if the current instruction is not an unconditional control transfer instruction (for instance, *goto*, *return*, or *athrow*). Verification fails if it is possible to "fall off" the last instruction of the method.
 - The target(s) of a conditional or unconditional branch or switch.
 - Any exception handlers for this instruction.
- 4. Merge the state of the operand stack and local variable array at the end of the execution of the current instruction into each of the successor instructions.

In the special case of control transfer to an exception handler, the operand stack is set to contain a single object of the exception type indicated by the exception handler information. There must be sufficient room on the operand stack for this single value, as if an instruction had pushed it.

- If this is the first time the successor instruction has been visited, record that the operand stack and local variable values calculated in steps 2 and 3 are the state of the operand stack and local variable array prior to executing the successor instruction. Set the "changed" bit for the successor instruction.
- If the successor instruction has been seen before, merge the operand stack and local variable values calculated in steps 2 and 3 into the values already there. Set the "changed" bit if there is any modification to the values.

5. Continue at step 1.

To merge two operand stacks, the number of values on each stack must be identical. The types of values on the stacks must also be identical, except that differently typed reference values may appear at corresponding places on the two stacks. In this case, the merged operand stack contains a reference to an instance of the first common superclass of the two types. Such a reference type always exists because the type <code>Object</code> is a superclass of all class and interface types. If the operand stacks cannot be merged, verification of the method fails.

To merge two local variable array states, corresponding pairs of local variables are compared. If the two types are not identical, then unless both contain reference values, the verifier records that the local variable contains an unusable value. If both of the pair of local variables contain reference values, the merged state contains a reference to an instance of the first common superclass of the two types.

If the data-flow analyzer runs on a method without reporting a verification failure, then the method has been successfully verified by the class file verifier.

Certain instructions and data types complicate the data-flow analyzer. We now examine each of these in more detail.

4.10.2.3 Values of Types long and double

Values of the long and double types are treated specially by the verification process.

Whenever a value of type long or double is moved into a local variable at index n, index n+1 is specially marked to indicate that it has been reserved by the value at index n and must not be used as a local variable index. Any value previously at index n+1 becomes unusable.

Whenever a value is moved to a local variable at index n, the index n-1 is examined to see if it is the index of a value of type long or double. If so, the local variable at index n-1 is changed to indicate that it now contains an unusable value. Since

the local variable at index n has been overwritten, the local variable at index n-1 cannot represent a value of type long or double.

Dealing with values of types long or double on the operand stack is simpler; the verifier treats them as single values on the stack. For example, the verification code for the *dadd* opcode (add two double values) checks that the top two items on the stack are both of type double. When calculating operand stack length, values of type long and double have length two.

Untyped instructions that manipulate the operand stack must treat values of type long and double as atomic (indivisible). For example, the verifier reports a failure if the top value on the stack is a double and it encounters an instruction such as pop or dup. The instructions pop2 or dup2 must be used instead.

4.10.2.4 Instance Initialization Methods and Newly Created Objects

Creating a new class instance is a multistep process. The statement:

```
new myClass(i, j, k);
...
```

can be implemented by the following:

This instruction sequence leaves the newly created and initialized object on top of the operand stack. (Additional examples of compilation to the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine are given in §3.)

The instance initialization method (§2.9) for class myclass sees the new uninitialized object as its this argument in local variable 0. Before that method invokes another instance initialization method of myclass or its direct superclass on this, the only operation the method can perform on this is assigning fields declared within myclass.

When doing dataflow analysis on instance methods, the verifier initializes local variable 0 to contain an object of the current class, or, for instance initialization methods, local variable 0 contains a special type indicating an uninitialized object. After an appropriate instance initialization method is invoked (from the current

class or the current superclass) on this object, all occurrences of this special type on the verifier's model of the operand stack and in the local variable array are replaced by the current class type. The verifier rejects code that uses the new object before it has been initialized or that initializes the object more than once. In addition, it ensures that every normal return of the method has invoked an instance initialization method either in the class of this method or in the direct superclass.

Similarly, a special type is created and pushed on the verifier's model of the operand stack as the result of the Java Virtual Machine instruction *new*. The special type indicates the instruction by which the class instance was created and the type of the uninitialized class instance created. When an instance initialization method declared in the class of the uninitialized class instance is invoked on that class instance, all occurrences of the special type are replaced by the intended type of the class instance. This change in type may propagate to subsequent instructions as the dataflow analysis proceeds.

The instruction number needs to be stored as part of the special type, as there may be multiple not-yet-initialized instances of a class in existence on the operand stack at one time. For example, the Java Virtual Machine instruction sequence that implements:

```
new InputStream(new Foo(), new InputStream("foo"))
```

may have two uninitialized instances of InputStream on the operand stack at once. When an instance initialization method is invoked on a class instance, only those occurrences of the special type on the operand stack or in the local variable array that are the same object as the class instance are replaced.

A valid instruction sequence must not have an uninitialized object on the operand stack or in a local variable at the target of a backwards branch if the special type of the uninitialized object is merged with a special type other than itself, or in a local variable in code protected by an exception handler or a finally clause. Otherwise, a devious piece of code might fool the verifier into thinking it had initialized a class instance when it had, in fact, initialized a class instance created in a previous pass through a loop.

4.10.2.5 *Exceptions and* finally

To implement the try-finally construct, a compiler for the Java programming language that generates class files with version number 50.0 or below may use the exception-handling facilities together with two special instructions: *jsr* ("jump to subroutine") and *ret* ("return from subroutine"). The finally clause is compiled as a subroutine within the Java Virtual Machine code for its method, much like the

code for an exception handler. When a *jsr* instruction that invokes the subroutine is executed, it pushes its return address, the address of the instruction after the *jsr* that is being executed, onto the operand stack as a value of type returnAddress. The code for the subroutine stores the return address in a local variable. At the end of the subroutine, a *ret* instruction fetches the return address from the local variable and transfers control to the instruction at the return address.

Control can be transferred to the finally clause (the finally subroutine can be invoked) in several different ways. If the try clause completes normally, the finally subroutine is invoked via a *jsr* instruction before evaluating the next expression. A break or continue inside the try clause that transfers control outside the try clause executes a *jsr* to the code for the finally clause first. If the try clause executes a *return*, the compiled code does the following:

- 1. Saves the return value (if any) in a local variable.
- 2. Executes a *jsr* to the code for the finally clause.
- 3. Upon return from the finally clause, returns the value saved in the local variable.

The compiler sets up a special exception handler, which catches any exception thrown by the try clause. If an exception is thrown in the try clause, this exception handler does the following:

- 1. Saves the exception in a local variable.
- 2. Executes a *jsr* to the finally clause.
- 3. Upon return from the finally clause, rethrows the exception.

For more information about the implementation of the try-finally construct, see §3.13.

The code for the finally clause presents a special problem to the verifier. Usually, if a particular instruction can be reached via multiple paths and a particular local variable contains incompatible values through those multiple paths, then the local variable becomes unusable. However, a finally clause might be called from several different places, yielding several different circumstances:

- The invocation from the exception handler may have a certain local variable that contains an exception.
- The invocation to implement *return* may have some local variable that contains the return value.
- The invocation from the bottom of the try clause may have an indeterminate value in that same local variable.

The code for the finally clause itself might pass verification, but after completing the updating all the successors of the *ret* instruction, the verifier would note that the local variable that the exception handler expects to hold an exception, or that the return code expects to hold a return value, now contains an indeterminate value.

Verifying code that contains a finally clause is complicated. The basic idea is the following:

- Each instruction keeps track of the list of *jsr* targets needed to reach that instruction. For most code, this list is empty. For instructions inside code for the finally clause, it is of length one. For multiply nested finally code (extremely rare!), it may be longer than one.
- For each instruction and each *jsr* needed to reach that instruction, a bit vector is maintained of all local variables accessed or modified since the execution of the *jsr* instruction.
- When executing the *ret* instruction, which implements a return from a subroutine, there must be only one possible subroutine from which the instruction can be returning. Two different subroutines cannot "merge" their execution to a single *ret* instruction.
- To perform the data-flow analysis on a *ret* instruction, a special procedure is used. Since the verifier knows the subroutine from which the instruction must be returning, it can find all the *jsr* instructions that call the subroutine and merge the state of the operand stack and local variable array at the time of the *ret* instruction into the operand stack and local variable array of the instructions following the *jsr*. Merging uses a special set of values for local variables:
 - For any local variable that the bit vector (constructed above) indicates has been accessed or modified by the subroutine, use the type of the local variable at the time of the *ret*.
 - For other local variables, use the type of the local variable before the *jsr* instruction.

4.11 Limitations of the Java Virtual Machine

The following limitations of the Java Virtual Machine are implicit in the class file format:

- The per-class or per-interface constant pool is limited to 65535 entries by the 16-bit constant_pool_count field of the ClassFile structure (§4.1). This acts as an internal limit on the total complexity of a single class or interface.
- The number of fields that may be declared by a class or interface is limited to 65535 by the size of the fields_count item of the ClassFile structure (§4.1).
 - Note that the value of the fields_count item of the ClassFile structure does not include fields that are inherited from superclasses or superinterfaces.
- The number of methods that may be declared by a class or interface is limited to 65535 by the size of the methods_count item of the ClassFile structure (§4.1).
 - Note that the value of the methods_count item of the ClassFile structure does not include methods that are inherited from superclasses or superinterfaces.
- The number of direct superinterfaces of a class or interface is limited to 65535 by the size of the interfaces_count item of the ClassFile structure (§4.1).
- The greatest number of local variables in the local variables array of a frame created upon invocation of a method (§2.6) is limited to 65535 by the size of the max_locals item of the code attribute (§4.7.3) giving the code of the method, and by the 16-bit local variable indexing of the Java Virtual Machine instruction set.
 - Note that values of type long and double are each considered to reserve two local variables and contribute two units toward the max_locals value, so use of local variables of those types further reduces this limit.
- The size of an operand stack in a frame (§2.6) is limited to 65535 values by the max_stack field of the code attribute (§4.7.3).
 - Note that values of type long and double are each considered to contribute two units toward the max_stack value, so use of values of these types on the operand stack further reduces this limit.
- The number of method parameters is limited to 255 by the definition of a method descriptor (§4.3.3), where the limit includes one unit for this in the case of instance or interface method invocations.
 - Note that a method descriptor is defined in terms of a notion of method parameter length in which a parameter of type long or double contributes two units to the length, so parameters of these types further reduce the limit.
- The length of field and method names, field and method descriptors, and other constant string values (including those referenced by ConstantValue (§4.7.2)

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attributes) is limited to 65535 characters by the 16-bit unsigned length item of the CONSTANT_Utf8_info structure (§4.4.7).

Note that the limit is on the number of bytes in the encoding and not on the number of encoded characters. UTF-8 encodes some characters using two or three bytes. Thus, strings incorporating multibyte characters are further constrained.

• The number of dimensions in an array is limited to 255 by the size of the *dimensions* opcode of the *multianewarray* instruction and by the constraints imposed on the *multianewarray*, *anewarray*, and *newarray* instructions (§4.9.1, §4.9.2).

Loading, Linking, and Initializing

THE Java Virtual Machine dynamically loads, links and initializes classes and interfaces. Loading is the process of finding the binary representation of a class or interface type with a particular name and *creating* a class or interface from that binary representation. Linking is the process of taking a class or interface and combining it into the run-time state of the Java Virtual Machine so that it can be executed. Initialization of a class or interface consists of executing the class or interface initialization method <clinit>(§2.9).

In this chapter, §5.1 describes how the Java Virtual Machine derives symbolic references from the binary representation of a class or interface. §5.2 explains how the processes of loading, linking, and initialization are first initiated by the Java Virtual Machine. §5.3 specifies how binary representations of classes and interfaces are loaded by class loaders and how classes and interfaces are created. Linking is described in §5.4. §5.5 details how classes and interfaces are initialized. §5.6 introduces the notion of binding native methods. Finally, §5.7 describes when a Java Virtual Machine exits.

5.1 The Run-Time Constant Pool

The Java Virtual Machine maintains a per-type constant pool (§2.5.5), a run-time data structure that serves many of the purposes of the symbol table of a conventional programming language implementation.

The constant_pool table (§4.4) in the binary representation of a class or interface is used to construct the run-time constant pool upon class or interface creation (§5.3). All references in the run-time constant pool are initially symbolic. The

symbolic references in the run-time constant pool are derived from structures in the binary representation of the class or interface as follows:

- A symbolic reference to a class or interface is derived from a CONSTANT_Class_info structure (§4.4.1) in the binary representation of a class or interface. Such a reference gives the name of the class or interface in the form returned by the Class.getName method, that is:
 - For a nonarray class or an interface, the name is the binary name (§4.2.1) of the class or interface.
 - For an array class of *n* dimensions, the name begins with *n* occurrences of the ASCII "[" character followed by a representation of the element type:
 - * If the element type is a primitive type, it is represented by the corresponding field descriptor (§4.3.2).
 - * Otherwise, if the element type is a reference type, it is represented by the ASCII "L" character followed by the binary name (§4.2.1) of the element type followed by the ASCII ";" character.

Whenever this chapter refers to the name of a class or interface, it should be understood to be in the form returned by the Class.getName method.

- A symbolic reference to a field of a class or an interface is derived from a CONSTANT_Fieldref_info structure (§4.4.2) in the binary representation of a class or interface. Such a reference gives the name and descriptor of the field, as well as a symbolic reference to the class or interface in which the field is to be found.
- A symbolic reference to a method of a class is derived from a CONSTANT_Methodref_info structure (§4.4.2) in the binary representation of a class or interface. Such a reference gives the name and descriptor of the method, as well as a symbolic reference to the class in which the method is to be found.
- A symbolic reference to a method of an interface is derived from a CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref_info structure (§4.4.2) in the binary representation of a class or interface. Such a reference gives the name and descriptor of the interface method, as well as a symbolic reference to the interface in which the method is to be found.
- A symbolic reference to a method handle is derived from a CONSTANT_MethodHandle_info structure (§4.4.8) in the binary representation of a class or interface.

- A symbolic reference to a method type is derived from a CONSTANT_MethodType_info structure (§4.4.9) in the binary representation of a class or interface.
- A symbolic reference to a *call site specifier* is derived from a CONSTANT_InvokeDynamic_info structure (§4.4.10) in the binary representation of a class or interface. Such a reference gives:
 - a symbolic reference to a method handle, which will serve as a bootstrap method for an *invokedynamic* instruction (§*invokedynamic*);
 - a sequence of symbolic references (to classes, method types, and method handles), string literals, and run-time constant values which will serve as *static arguments* to a bootstrap method;
 - a method name and method descriptor.

In addition, certain run-time values which are not symbolic references are derived from items found in the constant_pool table:

• A string literal is a reference to an instance of class string, and is derived from a CONSTANT_String_info structure (§4.4.3) in the binary representation of a class or interface. The CONSTANT_String_info structure gives the sequence of Unicode code points constituting the string literal.

The Java programming language requires that identical string literals (that is, literals that contain the same sequence of code points) must refer to the same instance of class <code>String</code> (JLS §3.10.5). In addition, if the method <code>String.intern</code> is called on any string, the result is a <code>reference</code> to the same class instance that would be returned if that string appeared as a literal. Thus, the following expression must have the value <code>true</code>:

```
("a" + "b" + "c").intern() == "abc"
```

To derive a string literal, the Java Virtual Machine examines the sequence of code points given by the CONSTANT_String_info structure.

- If the method string.intern has previously been called on an instance of class string containing a sequence of Unicode code points identical to that given by the CONSTANT_String_info structure, then the result of string literal derivation is a reference to that same instance of class string.
- Otherwise, a new instance of class string is created containing the sequence of Unicode code points given by the CONSTANT_String_info structure; a reference to that class instance is the result of string literal derivation. Finally, the intern method of the new String instance is invoked.

• Run-time constant values are derived from CONSTANT_Integer_info, CONSTANT_Float_info, CONSTANT_Long_info, or CONSTANT_Double_info structures (§4.4.4, §4.4.5) in the binary representation of a class or interface.

Note that CONSTANT_Float_info structures represent values in IEEE 754 single format and CONSTANT_Double_info structures represent values in IEEE 754 double format (§4.4.4, §4.4.5). The run-time constant values derived from these structures must thus be values that can be represented using IEEE 754 single and double formats, respectively.

The remaining structures in the constant_pool table of the binary representation of a class or interface - the CONSTANT_NameAndType_info and CONSTANT_Utf8_info structures (§4.4.6, §4.4.7) - are only used indirectly when deriving symbolic references to classes, interfaces, methods, fields, method types, and method handles, and when deriving string literals and call site specifiers.

5.2 Java Virtual Machine Startup

The Java Virtual Machine starts up by creating an initial class, which is specified in an implementation-dependent manner, using the bootstrap class loader (§5.3.1). The Java Virtual Machine then links the initial class, initializes it, and invokes the public class method void main(String[]). The invocation of this method drives all further execution. Execution of the Java Virtual Machine instructions constituting the main method may cause linking (and consequently creation) of additional classes and interfaces, as well as invocation of additional methods.

In an implementation of the Java Virtual Machine, the initial class could be provided as a command line argument. Alternatively, the implementation could provide an initial class that sets up a class loader which in turn loads an application. Other choices of the initial class are possible so long as they are consistent with the specification given in the previous paragraph.

5.3 Creation and Loading

Creation of a class or interface c denoted by the name n consists of the construction in the method area of the Java Virtual Machine (§2.5.4) of an implementation-specific internal representation of c. Class or interface creation is triggered by another class or interface c, which references c through its run-time constant pool.

Class or interface creation may also be triggered by D invoking methods in certain Java SE platform class libraries (§2.12) such as reflection.

If c is not an array class, it is created by loading a binary representation of c (§4) using a class loader. Array classes do not have an external binary representation; they are created by the Java Virtual Machine rather than by a class loader.

There are two kinds of class loaders: the bootstrap class loader supplied by the Java Virtual Machine, and user-defined class loaders. Every user-defined class loader is an instance of a subclass of the abstract class ClassLoader. Applications employ user-defined class loaders in order to extend the manner in which the Java Virtual Machine dynamically loads and thereby creates classes. User-defined class loaders can be used to create classes that originate from user-defined sources. For example, a class could be downloaded across a network, generated on the fly, or extracted from an encrypted file.

A class loader L may create C by defining it directly or by delegating to another class loader. If L creates C directly, we say that L defines C or, equivalently, that L is the defining loader of C.

When one class loader delegates to another class loader, the loader that initiates the loading is not necessarily the same loader that completes the loading and defines the class. If L creates C, either by defining it directly or by delegation, we say that L initiates loading of C or, equivalently, that L is an *initiating loader* of C.

At run time, a class or interface is determined not by its name alone, but by a pair: its binary name (§4.2.1) and its defining class loader. Each such class or interface belongs to a single *run-time package*. The run-time package of a class or interface is determined by the package name and defining class loader of the class or interface.

The Java Virtual Machine uses one of three procedures to create class or interface c denoted by n:

- If *N* denotes a nonarray class or an interface, one of the two following methods is used to load and thereby create *c*:
 - If D was defined by the bootstrap class loader, then the bootstrap class loader initiates loading of C (§5.3.1).
 - If D was defined by a user-defined class loader, then that same user-defined class loader initiates loading of C (§5.3.2).
- Otherwise *N* denotes an array class. An array class is created directly by the Java Virtual Machine (§5.3.3), not by a class loader. However, the defining class loader of *D* is used in the process of creating array class *C*.

If an error occurs during class loading, then an instance of a subclass of LinkageError must be thrown at a point in the program that (directly or indirectly) uses the class or interface being loaded.

If the Java Virtual Machine ever attempts to load a class c during verification (§5.4.1) or resolution (§5.4.3) (but not initialization (§5.5)), and the class loader that is used to initiate loading of c throws an instance of ClassNotFoundException, then the Java Virtual Machine must throw an instance of NoClassDefFoundError whose cause is the instance of ClassNotFoundException.

(A subtlety here is that recursive class loading to load superclasses is performed as part of resolution (§5.3.5, step 3). Therefore, a ClassNotFoundException that results from a class loader failing to load a superclass must be wrapped in a NoClassDefFoundError.)

A well-behaved class loader should maintain three properties:

- · Given the same name, a good class loader should always return the same Class object.
- If a class loader L_1 delegates loading of a class C to another loader L_2 , then for any type T that occurs as the direct superclass or a direct superinterface of C, or as the type of a field in C, or as the type of a formal parameter of a method or constructor in C, or as a return type of a method in C, L_1 and L_2 should return the same Class object.
- If a user-defined classloader prefetches binary representations of classes and interfaces, or loads a group of related classes together, then it must reflect loading errors only at points in the program where they could have arisen without prefetching or group loading.

We will sometimes represent a class or interface using the notation $\langle N, L_d \rangle$, where N denotes the name of the class or interface and L_d denotes the defining loader of the class or interface.

We will also represent a class or interface using the notation N^{L_i} , where N denotes the name of the class or interface and L_i denotes an initiating loader of the class or interface.

5.3.1 Loading Using the Bootstrap Class Loader

The following steps are used to load and thereby create the nonarray class or interface c denoted by n using the bootstrap class loader.

First, the Java Virtual Machine determines whether the bootstrap class loader has already been recorded as an initiating loader of a class or interface denoted by N. If so, this class or interface is C, and no class creation is necessary.

Otherwise, the Java Virtual Machine passes the argument N to an invocation of a method on the bootstrap class loader to search for a purported representation of C

in a platform-dependent manner. Typically, a class or interface will be represented using a file in a hierarchical file system, and the name of the class or interface will be encoded in the pathname of the file.

Note that there is no guarantee that a purported representation found is valid or is a representation of c. This phase of loading must detect the following error:

• If no purported representation of *c* is found, loading throws an instance of ClassNotFoundException.

Then the Java Virtual Machine attempts to derive a class denoted by N using the bootstrap class loader from the purported representation using the algorithm found in §5.3.5. That class is C.

5.3.2 Loading Using a User-defined Class Loader

The following steps are used to load and thereby create the nonarray class or interface C denoted by N using a user-defined class loader L.

First, the Java Virtual Machine determines whether L has already been recorded as an initiating loader of a class or interface denoted by N. If so, this class or interface is C, and no class creation is necessary.

Otherwise, the Java Virtual Machine invokes loadClass(N) on L. The value returned by the invocation is the created class or interface C. The Java Virtual Machine then records that L is an initiating loader of C (§5.3.4). The remainder of this section describes this process in more detail.

When the loadClass method of the class loader L is invoked with the name N of a class or interface C to be loaded, L must perform one of the following two operations in order to load C:

- 1. The class loader L can create an array of bytes representing C as the bytes of a ClassFile structure (§4.1); it then must invoke the method defineClass of class ClassLoader. Invoking defineClass causes the Java Virtual Machine to derive a class or interface denoted by N using L from the array of bytes using the algorithm found in §5.3.5.
- 2. The class loader L can delegate the loading of C to some other class loader L'. This is accomplished by passing the argument N directly or indirectly to an invocation of a method on L' (typically the loadClass method). The result of the invocation is C.

In either (1) or (2), if the class loader L is unable to load a class or interface denoted by N for any reason, it must throw an instance of ClassNotFoundException.

Since JDK release 1.1, Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation has invoked the loadClass method of a class loader in order to cause it to load a class or interface. The argument to loadClass is the name of the class or interface to be loaded. There is also a two-argument version of the loadClass method, where the second argument is a boolean that indicates whether the class or interface is to be linked or not. Only the two-argument version was supplied in JDK release 1.0.2, and Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation relied on it to link the loaded class or interface. From JDK release 1.1 onward, Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation links the class or interface directly, without relying on the class loader.

5.3.3 Creating Array Classes

The following steps are used to create the array class c denoted by n using class loader t. Class loader t may be either the bootstrap class loader or a user-defined class loader.

If L has already been recorded as an initiating loader of an array class with the same component type as N, that class is C, and no array class creation is necessary.

Otherwise, the following steps are performed to create c:

- 1. If the component type is a reference type, the algorithm of this section ($\S 5.3$) is applied recursively using class loader L in order to load and thereby create the component type of C.
- 2. The Java Virtual Machine creates a new array class with the indicated component type and number of dimensions.

If the component type is a reference type, C is marked as having been defined by the defining class loader of the component type. Otherwise, C is marked as having been defined by the bootstrap class loader.

In any case, the Java Virtual Machine then records that L is an initiating loader for C (§5.3.4).

If the component type is a reference type, the accessibility of the array class is determined by the accessibility of its component type. Otherwise, the accessibility of the array class is public.

5.3.4 Loading Constraints

Ensuring type safe linkage in the presence of class loaders requires special care. It is possible that when two different class loaders initiate loading of a class or interface denoted by N, the name N may denote a different class or interface in each loader.

When a class or interface $C = \langle N_1, L_1 \rangle$ makes a symbolic reference to a field or method of another class or interface $D = \langle N_2, L_2 \rangle$, the symbolic reference includes

a descriptor specifying the type of the field, or the return and argument types of the method. It is essential that any type name N mentioned in the field or method descriptor denote the same class or interface when loaded by L_1 and when loaded by L_2 .

To ensure this, the Java Virtual Machine imposes *loading constraints* of the form $N^{L_1} = N^{L_2}$ during preparation (§5.4.2) and resolution (§5.4.3). To enforce these constraints, the Java Virtual Machine will, at certain prescribed times (see §5.3.1, §5.3.2, §5.3.3, and §5.3.5), record that a particular loader is an initiating loader of a particular class. After recording that a loader is an initiating loader of a class, the Java Virtual Machine must immediately check to see if any loading constraints are violated. If so, the record is retracted, the Java Virtual Machine throws a LinkageError, and the loading operation that caused the recording to take place fails.

Similarly, after imposing a loading constraint (see §5.4.2, §5.4.3.2, §5.4.3.3, and §5.4.3.4), the Java Virtual Machine must immediately check to see if any loading constraints are violated. If so, the newly imposed loading constraint is retracted, the Java Virtual Machine throws a LinkageError, and the operation that caused the constraint to be imposed (either resolution or preparation, as the case may be) fails.

The situations described here are the only times at which the Java Virtual Machine checks whether any loading constraints have been violated. A loading constraint is violated if, and only if, all the following four conditions hold:

- There exists a loader *L* such that *L* has been recorded by the Java Virtual Machine as an initiating loader of a class *C* named *N*.
- There exists a loader L' such that L' has been recorded by the Java Virtual Machine as an initiating loader of a class C' named N.
- The equivalence relation defined by the (transitive closure of the) set of imposed constraints implies $N^L = N^{L'}$.
- c ≠ c '.

A full discussion of class loaders and type safety is beyond the scope of this specification. For a more comprehensive discussion, readers are referred to *Dynamic Class Loading in the Java Virtual Machine* by Sheng Liang and Gilad Bracha (*Proceedings of the 1998 ACM SIGPLAN Conference on Object-Oriented Programming Systems, Languages and Applications*).

5.3.5 Deriving a Class from a class File Representation

The following steps are used to derive a Class object for the nonarray class or interface C denoted by N using loader L from a purported representation in class file format.

- 1. First, the Java Virtual Machine determines whether it has already recorded that *L* is an initiating loader of a class or interface denoted by *N*. If so, this creation attempt is invalid and loading throws a LinkageError.
- 2. Otherwise, the Java Virtual Machine attempts to parse the purported representation. However, the purported representation may not in fact be a valid representation of *c*.

This phase of loading must detect the following errors:

- If the purported representation is not a ClassFile structure (§4.1, §4.8), loading throws an instance of ClassFormatError.
- Otherwise, if the purported representation is not of a supported major or minor version (§4.1), loading throws an instance of UnsupportedClassVersionError.

UnsupportedClassVersionError, a subclass of ClassFormatError, was introduced to enable easy identification of a ClassFormatError caused by an attempt to load a class whose representation uses an unsupported version of the class file format. In JDK release 1.1 and earlier, an instance of NoClassDefFoundError or ClassFormatError was thrown in case of an unsupported version, depending on whether the class was being loaded by the system class loader or a user-defined class loader.

- Otherwise, if the purported representation does not actually represent a class named *N*, loading throws an instance of NoClassDefFoundError or an instance of one of its subclasses.
- 3. If c has a direct superclass, the symbolic reference from c to its direct superclass is resolved using the algorithm of §5.4.3.1. Note that if c is an interface it must have Object as its direct superclass, which must already have been loaded. Only Object has no direct superclass.

Any exceptions that can be thrown due to class or interface resolution can be thrown as a result of this phase of loading. In addition, this phase of loading must detect the following errors:

• If the class or interface named as the direct superclass of c is in fact an interface, loading throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

- Otherwise, if any of the superclasses of *c* is *c* itself, loading throws a ClassCircularityError.
- 4. If *c* has any direct superinterfaces, the symbolic references from *c* to its direct superinterfaces are resolved using the algorithm of §5.4.3.1.

Any exceptions that can be thrown due to class or interface resolution can be thrown as a result of this phase of loading. In addition, this phase of loading must detect the following errors:

- If any of the classes or interfaces named as direct superinterfaces of *c* is not in fact an interface, loading throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.
- Otherwise, if any of the superinterfaces of *c* is *c* itself, loading throws a ClassCircularityError.
- 5. The Java Virtual Machine marks c as having L as its defining class loader and records that L is an initiating loader of c (§5.3.4).

5.4 Linking

Linking a class or interface involves verifying and preparing that class or interface, its direct superclass, its direct superinterfaces, and its element type (if it is an array type), if necessary. Resolution of symbolic references in the class or interface is an optional part of linking.

This specification allows an implementation flexibility as to when linking activities (and, because of recursion, loading) take place, provided that all of the following properties are maintained:

- A class or interface is completely loaded before it is linked.
- A class or interface is completely verified and prepared before it is initialized.
- Errors detected during linkage are thrown at a point in the program where some action is taken by the program that might, directly or indirectly, require linkage to the class or interface involved in the error.

For example, a Java Virtual Machine implementation may choose to resolve each symbolic reference in a class or interface individually when it is used ("lazy" or "late" resolution), or to resolve them all at once when the class is being verified ("eager" or "static" resolution). This means that the resolution process may continue, in some implementations, after a class or interface has been initialized. Whichever strategy is followed, any error detected during resolution must be

thrown at a point in the program that (directly or indirectly) uses a symbolic reference to the class or interface.

Because linking involves the allocation of new data structures, it may fail with an OutOfMemoryError.

5.4.1 Verification

Verification (§4.10) ensures that the binary representation of a class or interface is structurally correct (§4.9). Verification may cause additional classes and interfaces to be loaded (§5.3) but need not cause them to be verified or prepared.

If the binary representation of a class or interface does not satisfy the static or structural constraints listed in §4.9, then a VerifyError must be thrown at the point in the program that caused the class or interface to be verified.

If an attempt by the Java Virtual Machine to verify a class or interface fails because an error is thrown that is an instance of LinkageError (or a subclass), then subsequent attempts to verify the class or interface always fail with the same error that was thrown as a result of the initial verification attempt.

5.4.2 Preparation

Preparation involves creating the static fields for a class or interface and initializing such fields to their default values (§2.3, §2.4). This does not require the execution of any Java Virtual Machine code; explicit initializers for static fields are executed as part of initialization (§5.5), not preparation.

During preparation of a class or interface c, the Java Virtual Machine also imposes loading constraints (§5.3.4). Let L_1 be the defining loader of c. For each method m declared in c that overrides (§5.4.5) a method declared in a superclass or superinterface <D, L₂>, the Java Virtual Machine imposes the following loading constraints:

Given that the return type of m is T_r , and that the formal parameter types of m are $T_{f1}, ..., T_{fn}$, then:

If T_r not an array type, let T_0 be T_r ; otherwise, let T_0 be the element type (§2.4) of T_r .

For i = 1 to n: If τ_{fi} is not an array type, let τ_i be τ_{fi} ; otherwise, let τ_i be the element type ($\S 2.4$) of T_{fi} .

Then $T_i^{L_1} = T_i^{L_2}$ for i = 0 to n.

Furthermore, if C implements a method m declared in a superinterface <I, $L_3>$ of C, but C does not itself declare the method m, then let <D, $L_2>$ be the superclass of C that declares the implementation of method m inherited by C. The Java Virtual Machine imposes the following constraints:

Given that the return type of m is T_r , and that the formal parameter types of m are $T_{f_1}, ..., T_{f_n}$, then:

If T_r not an array type, let T_0 be T_r ; otherwise, let T_0 be the element type (§2.4) of T_r .

For i = 1 to n: If T_{fi} is not an array type, let T_i be T_{fi} ; otherwise, let T_i be the element type (§2.4) of T_{fi} .

Then
$$T_i^{L_2} = T_i^{L_3}$$
 for $i = 0$ to n .

Preparation may occur at any time following creation but must be completed prior to initialization.

5.4.3 Resolution

The Java Virtual Machine instructions anewarray, checkcast, getfield, getstatic, instanceof, invokedynamic, invokeinterface, invokespecial, invokestatic, invokevirtual, ldc, ldc_w, multianewarray, new, putfield, and putstatic make symbolic references to the run-time constant pool. Execution of any of these instructions requires resolution of its symbolic reference.

Resolution is the process of dynamically determining concrete values from symbolic references in the run-time constant pool.

Resolution of the symbolic reference of one occurrence of an *invokedynamic* instruction *does not* imply that the same symbolic reference is considered resolved for any other *invokedynamic* instruction.

For all other instructions above, resolution of the symbolic reference of one occurrence of an instruction *does* imply that the same symbolic reference is considered resolved for any other non-*invokedynamic* instruction.

(The above text implies that the concrete value determined by resolution for a specific *invokedynamic* instruction is a call site object bound to that specific *invokedynamic* instruction.)

Resolution can be attempted on a symbolic reference that has already been resolved. An attempt to resolve a symbolic reference that has already successfully been resolved always succeeds trivially and always results in the same entity produced by the initial resolution of that reference.

If an error occurs during resolution of a symbolic reference, then an instance of IncompatibleClassChangeError (or a subclass) must be thrown at a point in the program that (directly or indirectly) uses the symbolic reference.

If an attempt by the Java Virtual Machine to resolve a symbolic reference fails because an error is thrown that is an instance of LinkageError (or a subclass), then subsequent attempts to resolve the reference always fail with the same error that was thrown as a result of the initial resolution attempt.

A symbolic reference to a call site specifier by a specific *invokedynamic* instruction must not be resolved prior to execution of that instruction.

In the case of failed resolution of an *invokedynamic* instruction, the bootstrap method is not re-executed on subsequent resolution attempts.

Certain of the instructions above require additional linking checks when resolving symbolic references. For instance, in order for a *getfield* instruction to successfully resolve the symbolic reference to the field on which it operates, it must not only complete the field resolution steps given in §5.4.3.2 but also check that the field is not static. If it is a static field, a linking exception must be thrown.

Notably, in order for an *invokedynamic* instruction to successfully resolve the symbolic reference to a call site specifier, the bootstrap method specified therein must complete normally and return a suitable call site object. If the bootstrap method completes abruptly or returns an unsuitable call site object, a linking exception must be thrown.

Linking exceptions generated by checks that are specific to the execution of a particular Java Virtual Machine instruction are given in the description of that instruction and are not covered in this general discussion of resolution. Note that such exceptions, although described as part of the execution of Java Virtual Machine instructions rather than resolution, are still properly considered failures of resolution.

The following sections describe the process of resolving a symbolic reference in the run-time constant pool ($\S 5.1$) of a class or interface D. Details of resolution differ with the kind of symbolic reference to be resolved.

5.4.3.1 Class and Interface Resolution

To resolve an unresolved symbolic reference from D to a class or interface C denoted by N, the following steps are performed:

1. The defining class loader of D is used to create a class or interface denoted by N. This class or interface is C. The details of the process are given in §5.3.

Any exception that can be thrown as a result of failure of class or interface creation can thus be thrown as a result of failure of class and interface resolution.

- 2. If c is an array class and its element type is a reference type, then the symbolic reference to the class or interface representing the element type is resolved by invoking the algorithm in §5.4.3.1 recursively.
- 3. Finally, access permissions to *c* are checked:
 - If c is not accessible (§5.4.4) to D, class or interface resolution throws an IllegalAccessError.

This condition can occur, for example, if C is a class that was originally declared to be public but was changed to be non-public after D was compiled.

If steps 1 and 2 succeed but step 3 fails, c is still valid and usable. Nevertheless, resolution fails, and d is prohibited from accessing c.

5.4.3.2 Field Resolution

To resolve an unresolved symbolic reference from D to a field in a class or interface C, the symbolic reference to C given by the field reference must first be resolved (§5.4.3.1). Therefore, any exception that can be thrown as a result of failure of resolution of a class or interface reference can be thrown as a result of field resolution. If the reference to C can be successfully resolved, an exception relating to the failure of resolution of the field reference itself can be thrown.

When resolving a field reference, field resolution first attempts to look up the referenced field in c and its superclasses:

- 1. If *c* declares a field with the name and descriptor specified by the field reference, field lookup succeeds. The declared field is the result of the field lookup.
- 2. Otherwise, field lookup is applied recursively to the direct superinterfaces of the specified class or interface c.
- 3. Otherwise, if c has a superclass s, field lookup is applied recursively to s.
- 4. Otherwise, field lookup fails.

Then:

• If field lookup fails, field resolution throws a NoSuchFieldError.

- Otherwise, if field lookup succeeds but the referenced field is not accessible (§5.4.4) to D, field resolution throws an IllegalAccessError.
- Otherwise, let <E, L₁> be the class or interface in which the referenced field is actually declared and let L_2 be the defining loader of D.

Given that the type of the referenced field is T_f , let T be T_f if T_f is not an array type, and let τ be the element type (§2.4) of τ_f otherwise.

The Java Virtual Machine must impose the loading constraint that $\tau^{L_1} = \tau^{L_2}$ (§5.3.4).

5.4.3.3 Method Resolution

To resolve an unresolved symbolic reference from D to a method in a class C, the symbolic reference to c given by the method reference is first resolved (§5.4.3.1). Therefore, any exception that can be thrown as a result of failure of resolution of a class reference can be thrown as a result of method resolution. If the reference to c can be successfully resolved, exceptions relating to the resolution of the method reference itself can be thrown.

When resolving a method reference:

- 1. Method resolution checks whether c is a class or an interface.
 - If Cis interface, method resolution throws an an IncompatibleClassChangeError.
- 2. Method resolution attempts to look up the referenced method in c and its superclasses:
 - If c declares exactly one method with the name specified by the method reference, and the declaration is a signature polymorphic method (§2.9), then method lookup succeeds. All the class names mentioned in the descriptor are resolved (§5.4.3.1).

The resolved method is the signature polymorphic method declaration. It is not necessary for c to declare a method with the descriptor specified by the method reference.

- Otherwise, if c declares a method with the name and descriptor specified by the method reference, method lookup succeeds.
- Otherwise, if c has a superclass, step 2 of method lookup is recursively invoked on the direct superclass of c.

- 3. Otherwise, method lookup attempts to locate the referenced method in any of the superinterfaces of the specified class *c*.
 - If any superinterface of *c* declares a method with the name and descriptor specified by the method reference, method lookup succeeds.
 - Otherwise, method lookup fails.

Then:

- If method lookup fails, method resolution throws a NoSuchMethodError.
- Otherwise, if method lookup succeeds and the method is abstract, but *c* is not abstract, method resolution throws an AbstractMethodError.
- Otherwise, if method lookup succeeds but the referenced method is not accessible (§5.4.4) to D, method resolution throws an IllegalAccessError.
- Otherwise, let $\langle E, L_1 \rangle$ be the class or interface in which the referenced method m is actually declared, and let L_2 be the defining loader of D.

Given that the return type of m is T_r , and that the formal parameter types of m are $T_{f,1}, ..., T_{f,n}$, then:

If τ_r is not an array type, let τ_0 be τ_r ; otherwise, let τ_0 be the element type (§2.4) of τ_r .

For i = 1 to n: If τ_{fi} is not an array type, let τ_i be τ_{fi} ; otherwise, let τ_i be the element type (§2.4) of τ_{fi} .

The Java Virtual Machine must impose the loading constraints $\tau_i^{L_1} = \tau_i^{L_2}$ for i = 0 to n (§5.3.4).

5.4.3.4 Interface Method Resolution

To resolve an unresolved symbolic reference from D to an interface method in an interface C, the symbolic reference to C given by the interface method reference is first resolved (§5.4.3.1). Therefore, any exception that can be thrown as a result of failure of resolution of an interface reference can be thrown as a result of interface method resolution. If the reference to C can be successfully resolved, exceptions relating to the resolution of the interface method reference itself can be thrown.

When resolving an interface method reference:

• If *c* is not an interface, interface method resolution throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

- Otherwise, if the referenced method does not have the same name and descriptor as a method in c or in one of the superinterfaces of c, or in class object, interface method resolution throws a NoSuchMethodError.
- Otherwise, let $\langle E, L_1 \rangle$ be the class or interface in which the referenced interface method m is actually declared, and let L_2 be the defining loader of D.

Given that the return type of m is T_r , and that the formal parameter types of m are $T_{f_1}, ..., T_{f_n}$, then:

If T_r is not an array type, let T_0 be T_r ; otherwise, let T_0 be the element type (§2.4) of T_r .

For i = 1 to n: If T_{fi} is not an array type, let T_i be T_{fi} ; otherwise, let T_i be the element type (§2.4) of T_{fi} .

The Java Virtual Machine must impose the loading constraints $\tau_i^{L_1} = \tau_i^{L_2}$ for i = 0 to n (§5.3.4).

5.4.3.5 *Method Type and Method Handle Resolution*

To resolve an unresolved symbolic reference to a method type, all symbolic references to classes mentioned in the method descriptor encapsulated by the method type are resolved (§5.4.3.1). Therefore, any exception that can be thrown as a result of failure of resolution of a class reference can be thrown as a result of method type resolution.

The result of method type resolution is a reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType which represents the method descriptor.

Resolution of an unresolved symbolic reference to a method handle is more complicated. Each method handle resolved by the Java Virtual Machine has an equivalent instruction sequence called its bytecode behavior, indicated by the method handle's kind. The integer values and descriptions of the nine kinds of method handle are given in Table 5.1.

Symbolic references by an instruction sequence to fields or methods are indicated by C.x:T, where x and T are the name and descriptor (§4.3.2, §4.3.3) of the field or method, and C is the class or interface in which the field or method is to be found.

Kind	Description	Interpretation
1	REF_getField	getfield C.f:T
2	REF_getStatic	getstatic C.f:T
3	REF_putField	putfield C.f:T
4	REF_putStatic	putstatic C.f:T
5	REF_invokeVirtual	invokevirtual C.m:(A*)T
6	REF_invokeStatic	invokestatic C.m:(A*)T
7	REF_invokeSpecial	invokespecial C.m:(A*)T
8	REF_newInvokeSpecial	<pre>new C; dup; invokespecial C.<init>:(A*)void</init></pre>
9	REF_invokeInterface	invokeinterface C.m:(A*)T

Table 5.1. Bytecode Behaviors for Method Handles

Let MH be the symbolic reference to a method handle (§5.1) being resolved. Then:

- Let R be the symbolic reference to the field or method contained within MH.
 - (R is derived from the CONSTANT_Fieldref, CONSTANT_Methodref, or CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref structure referred to by the reference_index item of the CONSTANT_MethodHandle from which MH is derived.)
- Let *c* be a symbolic reference to the type referenced by *R*.
 - (c is derived from the CONSTANT_Class structure referred to by the class_index item in the CONSTANT_Fieldref, CONSTANT_Methodref, or CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref represented by R.)
- Let f or m be the name of the field or method referenced by R.
 - (f or m is derived from the CONSTANT_NameAndType structure referred to by the name_and_type_index item in the CONSTANT_Fieldref, CONSTANT_Methodref, or CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref structure from which R is derived.)
- Let τ and (in the case of a method) A^* be the return type and argument type sequence of the field or method referenced by R.
 - (τ and A* are derived from the <code>CONSTANT_NameAndType</code> structure referred to by the <code>name_and_type_index</code> item in the <code>CONSTANT_Fieldref</code>, <code>CONSTANT_Methodref</code>, or <code>CONSTANT_InterfaceMethodref</code> structure from which τ is derived.)

To resolve MH, all symbolic references to classes, fields, and methods in MH's bytecode behavior are resolved (§5.4.3.1, §5.4.3.2, §5.4.3.3, §5.4.3.4). That is, c, f, m, T, and A* are resolved. Therefore, any exception that can be thrown as a result of failure of resolution of a symbolic reference to a class, field, method, or interface method can be thrown as a result of method handle resolution.

(In general, resolving a method handle can be done in exactly the same circumstances that the Java Virtual Machine would successfully resolve the symbolic references in the bytecode behavior. In particular, method handles to private and protected members can be created in exactly those classes for which the corresponding normal accesses are legal.)

If all such symbolic references can be resolved, then a reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType is obtained as if by resolution of a symbolic reference to the method descriptor (§4.3.3) given for the kind of MH in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2. Method	Descriptors	for Method	Handles

Kind	Description	Method descriptor
1	REF_getField	(C)T
2	REF_getStatic	()T
3	REF_putField	(C,T)V
4	REF_putStatic	(T)V
5	REF_invokeVirtual	(C,A*)T
6	REF_invokeStatic	(A*)T
7	REF_invokeSpecial	(C,A*)T
8	REF_newInvokeSpecial	(A*)C
9	REF_invokeInterface	(C,A*)T

The result of method handle resolution is a reference o to an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle which represents the method handle MH. If the method m has the ACC_VARARGS flag set (§4.6), then o is a variable arity method handle; otherwise, o is a fixed arity method handle.

(A variable arity method handle performs argument list boxing (JLS §15.12.4.2) when invoked via invoke, while its behavior with respect to invokeExact is as if the ACC VARARGS flag were not set.)

Method handle resolution throws an Incompatible Class Change Error if m has the ACC VARARGS flag set and either m's argument type sequence is empty or the last parameter in *m*'s argument type sequence is not an array type. (That is, creation of a variable arity method handle fails.)

The type descriptor of the java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle instance referenced by o is the java.lang.invoke.MethodType instance produced by method type resolution mentioned earlier.

(The type descriptor of a method handle is such that a valid call to invokeExact in java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle on the method handle has exactly the same stack effects as the bytecode behavior. Calling this method handle on a valid set of arguments has exactly the same effect and returns the same result (if any) as the corresponding bytecode behavior.)

An implementation of the Java Virtual Machine is not required to intern method types or method handles. That is, two distinct symbolic references to method types or method handles which are structurally identical might not resolve to the same instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType or java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle respectively.

The <code>java.lang.invoke.MethodHandles</code> class in the Java SE platform API allows creation of method handles with no bytecode behavior. Their behavior is defined by the method of <code>java.lang.invoke.MethodHandles</code> that creates them. For example, a method handle may, when invoked, first apply transformations to its argument values, then supply the transformed values to the invocation of another method handle, then apply a transformation to the value returned from that invocation, then return the transformed value as its own result.

5.4.3.6 Call Site Specifier Resolution

To resolve an unresolved symbolic reference to a call site specifier involves three steps:

- A call site specifier gives a symbolic reference to a method handle which is to serve as the *bootstrap method* for a dynamic call site. The method handle is resolved (§5.4.3.5) to obtain a reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle.
- A call site specifier gives a method descriptor, *TD*. A reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType is obtained as if by resolution of a symbolic reference to a method type (§5.4.3.5) with the same parameter and return types as *TD*.
- A call site specifier gives zero or more *static arguments*, which communicate application-specific metadata to the bootstrap method. Any static arguments which are symbolic references to classes, method handles, or method types are resolved, as if by invocation of the *ldc* instruction (§*ldc*), to obtain

references to Class objects, java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle objects, and java.lang.invoke.MethodType objects respectively. Any static arguments that are string literals are used to obtain references to String objects.

The result of call site specifier resolution is a tuple consisting of:

- the reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle,
- the reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType,
- the references to instances of Class, java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle, java.lang.invoke.MethodType, and String.

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the method handle in the call site specifier, or resolution of the symbolic reference to the method type for the method descriptor in the call site specifier, or resolution of a symbolic reference to any static argument, any of the exceptions pertaining to method type or method handle resolution (§5.4.3.5) may be thrown.

5.4.4 Access Control

A class or interface c is *accessible* to a class or interface d if and only if either of the following conditions is true:

- C is public.
- C and D are members of the same run-time package (§5.3).

A field or method R is accessible to a class or interface D if and only if any of the following conditions are true:

- Rispublic.
- R is protected and is declared in a class C, and D is either a subclass of C or C itself. Furthermore, if R is not static, then the symbolic reference to R must contain a symbolic reference to a class τ , such that τ is either a subclass of D, a superclass of D, or D itself.
- R is either protected or has default access (that is, neither public nor protected nor private), and is declared by a class in the same run-time package as D.
- R is private and is declared in D.

This discussion of access control omits a related restriction on the target of a protected field access or method invocation (the target must be of class D or a subtype of D). That requirement is checked as part of the verification process (§5.4.1); it is not part of link-time access control.

5.4.5 Method overriding

An instance method m_1 declared in class C overrides another instance method m_2 declared in class A iff all of the following are true:

- c is a subclass of A.
- m_2 has the same name and descriptor as m_1 .
- Either:
 - m₂ is marked ACC_PUBLIC; or is marked ACC_PROTECTED; or is marked neither ACC_PUBLIC nor ACC_PROTECTED nor ACC_PRIVATE and belongs to the same run-time package as c, or
 - m_1 overrides a method m_3 , m_3 distinct from m_1 , m_3 distinct from m_2 , such that m_3 overrides m_2 .

5.5 Initialization

Initialization of a class or interface consists of executing its class or interface initialization method (§2.9).

A class or interface may be initialized only as a result of:

The execution of any one of the Java Virtual Machine instructions new, getstatic, putstatic, or invokestatic that references the class or interface (\$new, \$getstatic, \$putstatic, \$invokestatic). All of these instructions reference a class directly or indirectly through either a field reference or a method reference.

Upon execution of a *new* instruction, the referenced class or interface is initialized if it has not been initialized already.

Upon execution of a *getstatic*, *putstatic*, or *invokestatic* instruction, the class or interface that declared the resolved field or method is initialized if it has not been initialized already.

- The first invocation of a java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle instance which was the result of resolution of a method handle by the Java Virtual Machine (§5.4.3.5) and which has a kind of 2 (REF_getStatic), 4 (REF_putStatic), or 6 (REF_invokeStatic).
- Invocation of certain reflective methods in the class library (§2.12), for example, in class Class or in package java.lang.reflect.
- The initialization of one of its subclasses.

• Its designation as the initial class at Java Virtual Machine start-up (§5.2).

Prior to initialization, a class or interface must be linked, that is, verified, prepared, and optionally resolved.

Because the Java Virtual Machine is multithreaded, initialization of a class or interface requires careful synchronization, since some other thread may be trying to initialize the same class or interface at the same time. There is also the possibility that initialization of a class or interface may be requested recursively as part of the initialization of that class or interface. The implementation of the Java Virtual Machine is responsible for taking care of synchronization and recursive initialization by using the following procedure. It assumes that the Class object has already been verified and prepared, and that the Class object contains state that indicates one of four situations:

- This class object is verified and prepared but not initialized.
- This class object is being initialized by some particular thread.
- This class object is fully initialized and ready for use.
- This Class object is in an erroneous state, perhaps because initialization was attempted and failed.

For each class or interface C, there is a unique initialization lock LC. The mapping from C to LC is left to the discretion of the Java Virtual Machine implementation. For example, LC could be the Class object for C, or the monitor associated with that Class object. The procedure for initializing C is then as follows:

- 1. Synchronize on the initialization lock, LC, for C. This involves waiting until the current thread can acquire LC.
- 2. If the Class object for c indicates that initialization is in progress for c by some other thread, then release Lc and block the current thread until informed that the in-progress initialization has completed, at which time repeat this procedure.
- 3. If the Class object for *c* indicates that initialization is in progress for *c* by the current thread, then this must be a recursive request for initialization. Release *LC* and complete normally.
- 4. If the Class object for C indicates that C has already been initialized, then no further action is required. Release LC and complete normally.
- 5. If the Class object for C is in an erroneous state, then initialization is not possible. Release LC and throw a NoClassDefFoundError.
- 6. Otherwise, record the fact that initialization of the Class object for C is in progress by the current thread, and release LC. Then, initialize each final

- static field of c with the constant value in its ConstantValue attribute (§4.7.2), in the order the fields appear in the ClassFile structure.
- 7. Next, if c is a class rather than an interface, and its superclass sc has not yet been initialized, then recursively perform this entire procedure for sc. If necessary, verify and prepare sc first.
 - If the initialization of SC completes abruptly because of a thrown exception, then acquire LC, label the Class object for C as erroneous, notify all waiting threads, release LC, and complete abruptly, throwing the same exception that resulted from initializing SC.
- 8. Next, determine whether assertions are enabled for *c* by querying its defining class loader.
- 9. Next, execute the class or interface initialization method of c.
- 10. If the execution of the class or interface initialization method completes normally, then acquire LC, label the Class object for C as fully initialized, notify all waiting threads, release LC, and complete this procedure normally.
- 11. Otherwise, the class or interface initialization method must have completed abruptly by throwing some exception *E*. If the class of *E* is not Error or one of its subclasses, then create a new instance of the class ExceptionInInitializerError with *E* as the argument, and use this object in place of *E* in the following step.
 - If a new instance of ExceptionInInitializerError cannot be created because an OutOfMemoryError occurs, then use an OutOfMemoryError object in place of *E* in the following step.
- 12. Acquire LC, label the Class object for C as erroneous, notify all waiting threads, release LC, and complete this procedure abruptly with reason E or its replacement as determined in the previous step.

A Java Virtual Machine implementation may optimize this procedure by eliding the lock acquisition in step 1 (and release in step 4/5) when it can determine that the initialization of the class has already completed, provided that, in terms of the Java memory model, all *happens-before* orderings (JLS §17.4.5) that would exist if the lock were acquired, still exist when the optimization is performed.

5.6 Binding Native Method Implementations

Binding is the process by which a function written in a language other than the Java programming language and implementing a native method is integrated into the Java Virtual Machine so that it can be executed. Although this process is traditionally referred to as linking, the term binding is used in the specification to avoid confusion with linking of classes or interfaces by the Java Virtual Machine.

5.7 Java Virtual Machine Exit

The Java Virtual Machine exits when some thread invokes the exit method of class Runtime or class System, or the halt method of class Runtime, and the exit or halt operation is permitted by the security manager.

In addition, the JNI (Java Native Interface) Specification describes termination of the Java Virtual Machine when the JNI Invocation API is used to load and unload the Java Virtual Machine.

The Java Virtual Machine Instruction Set

A Java Virtual Machine instruction consists of an opcode specifying the operation to be performed, followed by zero or more operands embodying values to be operated upon. This chapter gives details about the format of each Java Virtual Machine instruction and the operation it performs.

6.1 Assumptions: The Meaning of "Must"

The description of each instruction is always given in the context of Java Virtual Machine code that satisfies the static and structural constraints of §4. In the description of individual Java Virtual Machine instructions, we frequently state that some situation "must" or "must not" be the case: "The *value2* must be of type int." The constraints of §4 guarantee that all such expectations will in fact be met. If some constraint (a "must" or "must not") in an instruction description is not satisfied at run time, the behavior of the Java Virtual Machine is undefined.

The Java Virtual Machine checks that Java Virtual Machine code satisfies the static and structural constraints at link time using a class file verifier (§4.10). Thus, a Java Virtual Machine will only attempt to execute code from valid class files. Performing verification at link time is attractive in that the checks are performed just once, substantially reducing the amount of work that must be done at run time. Other implementation strategies are possible, provided that they comply with *The Java Language Specification, Java SE 7 Edition* and *The Java Virtual Machine Specification, Java SE 7 Edition*.

6.2 Reserved Opcodes

In addition to the opcodes of the instructions specified later in this chapter, which are used in class files (§4), three opcodes are reserved for internal use by a Java Virtual Machine implementation. If the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine is extended in the future, these reserved opcodes are guaranteed not to be used.

Two of the reserved opcodes, numbers 254 (0xfe) and 255 (0xff), have the mnemonics *impdep1* and *impdep2*, respectively. These instructions are intended to provide "back doors" or traps to implementation-specific functionality implemented in software and hardware, respectively. The third reserved opcode, number 202 (0xca), has the mnemonic *breakpoint* and is intended to be used by debuggers to implement breakpoints.

Although these opcodes have been reserved, they may be used only inside a Java Virtual Machine implementation. They cannot appear in valid class files. Tools such as debuggers or JIT code generators (§2.13) that might directly interact with Java Virtual Machine code that has been already loaded and executed may encounter these opcodes. Such tools should attempt to behave gracefully if they encounter any of these reserved instructions.

6.3 Virtual Machine Errors

A Java Virtual Machine implementation throws an object that is an instance of a subclass of the class <code>virtualMethodError</code> when an internal error or resource limitation prevents it from implementing the semantics described in this chapter. This specification cannot predict where internal errors or resource limitations may be encountered and does not mandate precisely when they can be reported. Thus, any of the <code>VirtualMethodError</code> subclasses defined below may be thrown at any time during the operation of the Java Virtual Machine:

- InternalError: An internal error has occurred in the Java Virtual Machine implementation because of a fault in the software implementing the virtual machine, a fault in the underlying host system software, or a fault in the hardware. This error is delivered asynchronously (§2.10) when it is detected and may occur at any point in a program.
- OutofMemoryError: The Java Virtual Machine implementation has run out of either virtual or physical memory, and the automatic storage manager was unable to reclaim enough memory to satisfy an object creation request.

- StackOverflowError: The Java Virtual Machine implementation has run out of stack space for a thread, typically because the thread is doing an unbounded number of recursive invocations as a result of a fault in the executing program.
- UnknownError: An exception or error has occurred, but the Java Virtual Machine implementation is unable to report the actual exception or error.

6.4 Format of Instruction Descriptions

Java Virtual Machine instructions are represented in this chapter by entries of the form shown below, in alphabetical order and each beginning on a new page.

mnemonic mnemonic

Operation Short description of the instruction

Format

mnemonic
operand1
operand2

Forms mnemonic = opcode

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., value3

Description A longer description detailing constraints on operand stack

contents or constant pool entries, the operation performed, the type

of the results, etc.

Linking Exceptions

If any linking exceptions may be thrown by the execution of this instruction, they are set off one to a line, in the order in which they

must be thrown.

Run-time Exceptions If any run-time exceptions can be thrown by the execution of an instruction, they are set off one to a line, in the order in which they must be thrown.

Other than the linking and run-time exceptions, if any, listed for an instruction, that instruction must not throw any run-time exceptions except for instances of VirtualMethodError or its

subclasses.

Notes Comments not strictly part of the specification of an instruction

are set aside as notes at the end of the description.

Each cell in the instruction format diagram represents a single 8-bit byte. The instruction's *mnemonic* is its name. Its opcode is its numeric representation and is given in both decimal and hexadecimal forms. Only the numeric representation is actually present in the Java Virtual Machine code in a class file.

Keep in mind that there are "operands" generated at compile time and embedded within Java Virtual Machine instructions, as well as "operands" calculated at run time and supplied on the operand stack. Although they are supplied from several different areas, all these operands represent the same thing: values to be operated upon by the Java Virtual Machine instruction being executed. By implicitly taking many of its operands from its operand stack, rather than representing them explicitly in its compiled code as additional operand bytes, register numbers, etc., the Java Virtual Machine's code stays compact.

Some instructions are presented as members of a family of related instructions sharing a single description, format, and operand stack diagram. As such, a family of instructions includes several opcodes and opcode mnemonics; only the family mnemonic appears in the instruction format diagram, and a separate forms line lists all member mnemonics and opcodes. For example, the Forms line for the *lconst_<l>* family of instructions, giving mnemonic and opcode information for the two instructions in that family (*lconst_0* and *lconst_1*), is

```
lconst\_0 = 9 (0x9)
lconst I = 10 (0xa)
```

In the description of the Java Virtual Machine instructions, the effect of an instruction's execution on the operand stack (§2.6.2) of the current frame (§2.6) is represented textually, with the stack growing from left to right and each value represented separately. Thus,

```
..., value1, value2 → .... result
```

shows an operation that begins by having *value2* on top of the operand stack with *value1* just beneath it. As a result of the execution of the instruction, *value1* and *value2* are popped from the operand stack and replaced by *result* value, which has been calculated by the instruction. The remainder of the operand stack, represented by an ellipsis (...), is unaffected by the instruction's execution.

Values of types long and double are represented by a single entry on the operand stack.

In *The Java Virtual Machine Specification, First Edition*, values on the operand stack of types long and double were each represented in the stack diagram by two entries.

6.5 Instructions

aaload aaload

Operation Load reference from array

Format aaload

Forms aaload = 50 (0x32)

Operand ..., arrayref, $index \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type reference. The *index* must be of type int. Both *arrayref* and *index* are popped from the operand stack. The reference *value* in the component of the array at *index*

is retrieved and pushed onto the operand stack.

Run-time If arrayref is null, aaload throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by *arrayref*, the *aaload* instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

aastore aastore

Store into reference array **Operation**

Format aastore

aastore = 83 (0x53)**Forms**

..., arrayref, index, value → **Operand**

Stack

Description

The arrayref must be of type reference and must refer to an array whose components are of type reference. The index must be of type int and value must be of type reference. The arrayref, index, and value are popped from the operand stack. The reference *value* is stored as the component of the array at *index*.

At run time, the type of *value* must be compatible with the type of the components of the array referenced by arrayref. Specifically, assignment of a value of reference type s (source) to an array component of reference type τ (target) is allowed only if:

- If s is a class type, then:
 - If T is a class type, then S must be the same class as T, or S must be a subclass of T;
 - If τ is an interface type, then s must implement interface τ .
- If s is an interface type, then:
 - If T is a class type, then T must be object.
 - If T is an interface type, then T must be the same interface as s or a superinterface of s.
- If s is an array type, namely, the type sc[], that is, an array of components of type sc, then:
 - If T is a class type, then T must be Object.
 - If T is an interface type, then T must be one of the interfaces implemented by arrays (JLS §4.10.3).

- If τ is an array type $\tau c[\]$, that is, an array of components of type τc , then one of the following must be true:
 - * TC and SC are the same primitive type.
 - * TC and SC are reference types, and type SC is assignable to TC by these run-time rules.

Run-time Exceptions

If arrayref is null, aastore throws a NullPointerException.

Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array referenced by *arrayref*, the *aastore* instruction throws an ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

Otherwise, if *arrayref* is not null and the actual type of *value* is not assignment compatible (JLS §5.2) with the actual type of the components of the array, *aastore* throws an ArrayStoreException.

aconst_null

aconst null

Operation Push null

Format aconst_null

Forms $aconst_null = 1 (0x1)$

 $Operand \hspace{1cm} ... \rightarrow$

Stack ..., null

Description Push the null object reference onto the operand stack.

Notes The Java Virtual Machine does not mandate a concrete value for

null.

aload aload

Operation Load reference from local variable

Format

aload	
index	

Forms aload = 25 (0x19)

Operand ... →

Stack ..., objectref

Description

The *index* is an unsigned byte that must be an index into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The local variable at *index* must contain a reference. The *objectref* in the local variable at *index* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes

The *aload* instruction cannot be used to load a value of type returnAddress from a local variable onto the operand stack. This asymmetry with the *astore* instruction (§*astore*) is intentional.

The *aload* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide* instruction (§*wide*) to access a local variable using a two-byte unsigned index.

aload < n >aload < n >

Load reference from local variable **Operation**

Format aload < n >

Forms aload 0 = 42 (0x2a)

aload 1 = 43 (0x2b)

 $aload_2 = 44 (0x2c)$

aload 3 = 45 (0x2d)

Operand

Stack ..., objectref

The $\langle n \rangle$ must be an index into the local variable array of the **Description**

> current frame ($\S 2.6$). The local variable at $\langle n \rangle$ must contain a reference. The *objectref* in the local variable at <*n*> is pushed

onto the operand stack.

An *aload_*<*n*> instruction cannot be used to load a value of type Notes

> returnAddress from a local variable onto the operand stack. This asymmetry with the corresponding astore_<n> instruction

(\$ astore < n >) is intentional.

Each of the *aload* $\langle n \rangle$ instructions is the same as *aload* with an

index of $\langle n \rangle$, except that the operand $\langle n \rangle$ is implicit.

anewarray

anewarray

Operation Create new array of reference

Format

anewarray	
indexbyte1	
indexbyte2	

Forms anewarray = 189 (0xbd)

Operand ..., count → **Stack** ..., arrayref

Description

The *count* must be of type int. It is popped off the operand stack. The *count* represents the number of components of the array to be created. The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a class, array, or interface type. The named class, array, or interface type is resolved (§5.4.3.1). A new array with components of that type, of length *count*, is allocated from the garbage-collected heap, and a reference *arrayref* to this new array object is pushed onto the operand stack. All components of the new array are initialized to null, the default value for reference types (§2.4).

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the class, array, or interface type, any of the exceptions documented in §5.4.3.1 can be thrown.

Run-time Exceptions

Otherwise, if *count* is less than zero, the *anewarray* instruction throws a NegativeArraySizeException.

Notes

The *anewarray* instruction is used to create a single dimension of an array of object references or part of a multidimensional array.

areturn areturn

Operation Return reference from method

Format areturn

Forms areturn = 176 (0xb0)

Operand ..., objectref →

Stack [empty]

Description

The *objectref* must be of type reference and must refer to an object of a type that is assignment compatible (JLS §5.2) with the type represented by the return descriptor (§4.3.3) of the current method. If the current method is a synchronized method, the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a *monitorexit* instruction (§*monitorexit*) in the current thread. If no exception is thrown, *objectref* is popped from the operand stack of the current frame (§2.6) and pushed onto the operand stack of the frame of the invoker. Any other values on the operand stack of the current method are discarded.

The interpreter then reinstates the frame of the invoker and returns control to the invoker.

Run-time Exceptions

If the Java Virtual Machine implementation does not enforce the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10, then if the current method is a synchronized method and the current thread is not the owner of the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method, *areturn* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException. This can happen, for example, if a synchronized method contains a *monitorexit* instruction, but no *monitorenter* instruction, on the object on which the method is synchronized.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation enforces the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10 and if the first of those rules is violated during invocation of the current method, then *areturn* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException.

arraylength

arraylength

Operation Get length of array

Format arraylength

Forms arraylength = 190 (0xbe)

Operand ..., $arrayref \rightarrow$ **Stack** ..., length

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array.

It is popped from the operand stack. The *length* of the array it references is determined. That *length* is pushed onto the operand

stack as an int.

Run-time If the arrayref is null, the arraylength instruction throws a

Exceptions NullPointerException.

astore astore

Store reference into local variable **Operation**

Format

astore index

astore = 58 (0x3a)**Forms**

..., objectref \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack

Description

The *index* is an unsigned byte that must be an index into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The *objectref* on the top of the operand stack must be of type returnAddress or of type reference. It is popped from the operand stack, and the value of the local variable at *index* is set to *objectref*.

Notes

The astore instruction is used with an objectref of type returnAddress when implementing the finally clause of the Java programming language (§3.13).

The aload instruction (§aload) cannot be used to load a value of type returnAddress from a local variable onto the operand stack. This asymmetry with the *astore* instruction is intentional.

The astore opcode can be used in conjunction with the wide instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte unsigned index.

astore <n>

astore $\langle n \rangle$

Operation Store reference into local variable

Format

Forms

$$astore_0 = 75 (0x4b)$$

$$astore_1 = 76 (0x4c)$$

$$astore_2 = 77 \text{ (0x4d)}$$

$$astore_{3} = 78 \text{ (0x4e)}$$

Operand

...,
$$objectref \rightarrow$$

Stack

...

Description

The < n > must be an index into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The *objectref* on the top of the operand stack must be of type returnAddress or of type reference. It is popped from the operand stack, and the value of the local variable at < n > is set to *objectref*.

Notes

An *astore_<n>* instruction is used with an *objectref* of type returnAddress when implementing the finally clauses of the Java programming language (§3.13).

An $aload_< n>$ instruction ($\$aload_< n>$) cannot be used to load a value of type returnAddress from a local variable onto the operand stack. This asymmetry with the corresponding $astore_< n>$ instruction is intentional.

Each of the *astore_*<*n*> instructions is the same as *astore* with an *index* of <*n*>, except that the operand <*n*> is implicit.

athrow athrow

Throw exception or error **Operation**

Format athrow

athrow = 191 (0xbf)**Forms**

..., objectref \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack objectref

Description

The *objectref* must be of type reference and must refer to an object that is an instance of class Throwable or of a subclass of Throwable. It is popped from the operand stack. The *objectref* is then thrown by searching the current method (§2.6) for the first exception handler that matches the class of *objectref*, as given by the algorithm in §2.10.

If an exception handler that matches *objectref* is found, it contains the location of the code intended to handle this exception. The pc register is reset to that location, the operand stack of the current frame is cleared, *objectref* is pushed back onto the operand stack, and execution continues.

If no matching exception handler is found in the current frame, that frame is popped. If the current frame represents an invocation of a synchronized method, the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method is exited as if by execution of a monitorexit instruction (§monitorexit). Finally, the frame of its invoker is reinstated, if such a frame exists, and the *objectref* is rethrown. If no such frame exists, the current thread exits.

Run-time **Exceptions**

If objectref is null, athrow throws a NullPointerException instead of *objectref*.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation does not enforce the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10, then if the method of the current frame is a synchronized method and the current thread is not the owner of the monitor

entered or reentered on invocation of the method, *athrow* throws an <code>lllegalMonitorStateException</code> instead of the object previously being thrown. This can happen, for example, if an abruptly completing <code>synchronized</code> method contains a *monitorexit* instruction, but no *monitorenter* instruction, on the object on which the method is synchronized.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation enforces the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10 and if the first of those rules is violated during invocation of the current method, then *athrow* throws an <code>IllegalMonitorStateException</code> instead of the object previously being thrown.

Notes

The operand stack diagram for the *athrow* instruction may be misleading: If a handler for this exception is matched in the current method, the *athrow* instruction discards all the values on the operand stack, then pushes the thrown object onto the operand stack. However, if no handler is matched in the current method and the exception is thrown farther up the method invocation chain, then the operand stack of the method (if any) that handles the exception is cleared and *objectref* is pushed onto that empty operand stack. All intervening frames from the method that threw the exception up to, but not including, the method that handles the exception are discarded.

baload baload

Operation Load byte or boolean from array

Format baload

Forms baload = 51 (0x33)

Operand ..., arrayref, $index \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type byte or of type boolean. The *index* must be of type int. Both *arrayref* and *index* are popped from the operand stack. The byte *value* in the component of the array at *index* is retrieved, sign-extended to an int *value*, and pushed onto

the top of the operand stack.

Run-time If arrayref is null, baload throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the baload instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

Notes The *baload* instruction is used to load values from both byte and

boolean arrays. In Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation, boolean arrays - that is, arrays of type T_BOOLEAN (§2.2, §newarray) - are implemented as arrays of 8-bit values. Other implementations may implement packed boolean arrays; the baload instruction of such implementations must be used to access

those arrays.

bastore bastore

Operation Store into byte or boolean array

Format bastore

Forms bastore = 84 (0x54)

Operand ..., arrayref, index, $value \rightarrow$

Stack ..

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an

array whose components are of type byte or of type boolean. The *index* and the *value* must both be of type int. The *arrayref*, *index*, and *value* are popped from the operand stack. The int *value* is truncated to a byte and stored as the component of the array

indexed by index.

Run-time If *arrayref* is null, *bastore* throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the bastore instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

Notes The *bastore* instruction is used to store values into both byte and

boolean arrays. In Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation, boolean arrays - that is, arrays of type T_BOOLEAN (§2.2, §newarray) - are implemented as arrays of 8-bit values. Other implementations may implement packed boolean arrays; in such implementations the *bastore* instruction must be able to store boolean values into packed boolean arrays as well as byte values

into byte arrays.

bipush bipush

Operation Push byte

Format bipush

byte

Forms bipush = 16 (0x10)

 $Operand \hspace{1cm} ... \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Description The immediate *byte* is sign-extended to an int *value*. That *value*

is pushed onto the operand stack.

caload caload

Load char from array **Operation**

Format caload

Forms caload = 52 (0x34)

..., arrayref, index \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack ..., value

The arrayref must be of type reference and must refer to an array **Description**

> whose components are of type char. The *index* must be of type int. Both *arrayref* and *index* are popped from the operand stack. The component of the array at *index* is retrieved and zero-extended

to an int *value*. That *value* is pushed onto the operand stack.

If arrayref is null, caload throws a NullPointerException. **Run-time**

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the caload instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

castore castore

Store into char array **Operation**

Format castore

Forms castore = 85 (0x55)

..., arrayref, index, value → **Operand**

Stack

The arrayref must be of type reference and must refer to an array **Description**

> whose components are of type char. The *index* and the *value* must both be of type int. The arrayref, index, and value are popped from the operand stack. The int value is truncated to a char and

stored as the component of the array indexed by *index*.

If arrayref is null, castore throws a NullPointerException. **Run-time**

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the castore instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

checkcast checkcast

Operation Check whether object is of given type

Format

checkcast
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms checkcast = 192 (0xc0)

Operand ..., objectref → Stack ..., objectref

Description

The *objectref* must be of type reference. The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at the index must be a symbolic reference to a class, array, or interface type.

If *objectref* is null, then the operand stack is unchanged.

Otherwise, the named class, array, or interface type is resolved (§5.4.3.1). If *objectref* can be cast to the resolved class, array, or interface type, the operand stack is unchanged; otherwise, the *checkcast* instruction throws a ClassCastException.

The following rules are used to determine whether an *objectref* that is not null can be cast to the resolved type: if s is the class of the object referred to by *objectref* and t is the resolved class, array, or interface type, *checkcast* determines whether *objectref* can be cast to type t as follows:

- If s is an ordinary (nonarray) class, then:
 - If T is a class type, then S must be the same class as T, or S must be a subclass of T;
 - If τ is an interface type, then s must implement interface τ .
- If s is an interface type, then:

- If τ is a class type, then τ must be object.
- If τ is an interface type, then τ must be the same interface as s or a superinterface of s.
- If s is a class representing the array type sc[], that is, an array of components of type sc, then:
 - If T is a class type, then T must be Object.
 - If *T* is an interface type, then *T* must be one of the interfaces implemented by arrays (JLS §4.10.3).
 - If τ is an array type τc [], that is, an array of components of type τc , then one of the following must be true:
 - * TC and SC are the same primitive type.
 - * TC and SC are reference types, and type SC can be cast to TC by recursive application of these rules.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the class, array, or interface type, any of the exceptions documented in §5.4.3.1 can be thrown.

Run-time Exception

Otherwise, if *objectref* cannot be cast to the resolved class, array, or interface type, the *checkcast* instruction throws a ClassCastException.

Notes

The *checkcast* instruction is very similar to the *instanceof* instruction (§*instanceof*). It differs in its treatment of null, its behavior when its test fails (*checkcast* throws an exception, *instanceof* pushes a result code), and its effect on the operand stack.

d2f d2f

Operation Convert double to float

Format d2f

Forms d2f = 144 (0x90)

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

Description

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type double. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) resulting in *value*'. Then *value*' is converted to a float result using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Where an d2f instruction is FP-strict (§2.8.2), the result of the conversion is always rounded to the nearest representable value in the float value set (§2.3.2).

Where an d2f instruction is not FP-strict, the result of the conversion may be taken from the float-extended-exponent value set ($\S 2.3.2$); it is not necessarily rounded to the nearest representable value in the float value set.

A finite *value*' too small to be represented as a float is converted to a zero of the same sign; a finite *value*' too large to be represented as a float is converted to an infinity of the same sign. A double NaN is converted to a float NaN.

Notes

The *d2f* instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion (JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude of *value*' and may also lose precision.

d2id2i

Convert double to int **Operation**

Format d2i

d2i = 142 (0x8e)**Forms**

..., value → **Operand** Stack ..., result

Description

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type double. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) resulting in *value*'. Then *value*' is converted to an int. The result is pushed onto the operand stack:

- If the *value*' is NaN, the *result* of the conversion is an int 0.
- Otherwise, if the *value*' is not an infinity, it is rounded to an integer value v, rounding towards zero using IEEE 754 round towards zero mode. If this integer value v can be represented as an int, then the result is the int value v.
- Otherwise, either the *value*' must be too small (a negative value of large magnitude or negative infinity), and the result is the smallest representable value of type int, or the value' must be too large (a positive value of large magnitude or positive infinity), and the *result* is the largest representable value of type int.

Notes

The d2i instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion (JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude of *value*' and may also lose precision.

d2l d2l

Operation Convert double to long

Format d2l

Forms d2l = 143 (0x8f)

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

Description

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type double. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) resulting in *value*'. Then *value*' is converted to a long. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack:

- If the *value*' is NaN, the *result* of the conversion is a long 0.
- Otherwise, if the *value*' is not an infinity, it is rounded to an integer value *v*, rounding towards zero using IEEE 754 round towards zero mode. If this integer value *v* can be represented as a long, then the *result* is the long value *v*.
- Otherwise, either the *value*' must be too small (a negative value of large magnitude or negative infinity), and the *result* is the smallest representable value of type long, or the *value*' must be too large (a positive value of large magnitude or positive infinity), and the *result* is the largest representable value of type long.

Notes

The *d2l* instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion (JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude of *value*' and may also lose precision.

dadd dadd

Add double **Operation**

Format dadd

dadd = 99 (0x63)**Forms**

..., value1, value2 \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack ..., result

Description

Both value1 and value2 must be of type double. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in value1' and value2'. The double result is value1' + value2'. The result is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result of a *dadd* instruction is governed by the rules of IEEE arithmetic:

- If either value1' or value2' is NaN, the result is NaN.
- The sum of two infinities of opposite sign is NaN.
- The sum of two infinities of the same sign is the infinity of that sign.
- The sum of an infinity and any finite value is equal to the infinity.
- The sum of two zeroes of opposite sign is positive zero.
- The sum of two zeroes of the same sign is the zero of that sign.
- The sum of a zero and a nonzero finite value is equal to the nonzero value.
- The sum of two nonzero finite values of the same magnitude and opposite sign is positive zero.
- In the remaining cases, where neither operand is an infinity, a zero, or NaN and the values have the same sign or have different magnitudes, the sum is computed and rounded to the nearest representable value using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. If

the magnitude is too large to represent as a double, we say the operation overflows; the result is then an infinity of appropriate sign. If the magnitude is too small to represent as a double, we say the operation underflows; the result is then a zero of appropriate sign.

The Java Virtual Machine requires support of gradual underflow as defined by IEEE 754. Despite the fact that overflow, underflow, or loss of precision may occur, execution of a *dadd* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

daload daload

Operation Load double from array

Format daload

Forms daload = 49 (0x31)

Operand ..., arrayref, $index \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an

array whose components are of type double. The *index* must be of type int. Both *arrayref* and *index* are popped from the operand stack. The double value in the component of the array at *index* is

retrieved and pushed onto the operand stack.

Run-time If arrayref is null, daload throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the daload instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

dastore dastore

Operation Store into double array

Format dastore

Forms dastore = 82 (0x52)

Operand ..., arrayref, index, $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description The arrayref must be of type reference and must refer to an

array whose components are of type double. The *index* must be of type int, and value must be of type double. The *arrayref*, *index*, and *value* are popped from the operand stack. The double *value* undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*', which

is stored as the component of the array indexed by *index*.

Run-time If arrayref is null, dastore throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the dastore instruction throws an

 ${\tt ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.}$

dcmp<op>

dcmp<op>

Compare double **Operation**

Format

dcmp<op>

Forms

dcmpg = 152 (0x98)

dcmpl = 151 (0x97)

Operand

..., value1, value2 \rightarrow

Stack

..., result

Description

Both value1 and value2 must be of type double. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in value1' and value2'. A floatingpoint comparison is performed:

- If value 1' is greater than value 2', the int value 1 is pushed onto the operand stack.
- Otherwise, if *value1'* is equal to *value2'*, the int value 0 is pushed onto the operand stack.
- Otherwise, if *value1*' is less than *value2*', the int value -1 is pushed onto the operand stack.
- Otherwise, at least one of value 1' or value 2' is NaN. The dcmpg instruction pushes the int value 1 onto the operand stack and the *dcmpl* instruction pushes the int value -1 onto the operand stack.

Floating-point comparison is performed in accordance with IEEE 754. All values other than NaN are ordered, with negative infinity less than all finite values and positive infinity greater than all finite values. Positive zero and negative zero are considered equal.

Notes

The *dcmpg* and *dcmpl* instructions differ only in their treatment of a comparison involving NaN. NaN is unordered, so any double comparison fails if either or both of its operands are NaN. With both dcmpg and dcmpl available, any double comparison may

be compiled to push the same *result* onto the operand stack whether the comparison fails on non-NaN values or fails because it encountered a NaN. For more information, see §3.5.

 $dconst_< d>$

 $dconst_< d>$

Operation Push double

Forms $dconst_0 = 14 (0xe)$

 $dconst_1 = 15 (0xf)$

 $\mathbf{Operand} \qquad \dots \rightarrow$

Stack ..., <*d*>

Description Push the double constant <*d*> (0.0 or 1.0) onto the operand stack.

ddiv ddiv

Operation Divide double

Format ddiv

Forms ddiv = 111 (0x6f)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type double. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value1*' and *value2*'. The double *result* is *value1*' / *value2*'. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result of a *ddiv* instruction is governed by the rules of IEEE arithmetic:

- If either value1' or value2' is NaN, the result is NaN.
- If neither *value1*' nor *value2*' is NaN, the sign of the result is positive if both values have the same sign, negative if the values have different signs.
- Division of an infinity by an infinity results in NaN.
- Division of an infinity by a finite value results in a signed infinity, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- Division of a finite value by an infinity results in a signed zero, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- Division of a zero by a zero results in NaN; division of zero by any other finite value results in a signed zero, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- Division of a nonzero finite value by a zero results in a signed infinity, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- In the remaining cases, where neither operand is an infinity, a zero, or NaN, the quotient is computed and rounded to the nearest double using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. If the

magnitude is too large to represent as a double, we say the operation overflows; the result is then an infinity of appropriate sign. If the magnitude is too small to represent as a double, we say the operation underflows; the result is then a zero of appropriate sign.

The Java Virtual Machine requires support of gradual underflow as defined by IEEE 754. Despite the fact that overflow, underflow, division by zero, or loss of precision may occur, execution of a ddiv instruction never throws a run-time exception.

dload dload

Operation Load double from local variable

Format

dload	
index	

Forms dload = 24 (0x18)

Operand $\dots \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Description The *index* is an unsigned byte. Both *index* and *index*+1 must be

indices into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The local variable at *index* must contain a double. The *value* of

the local variable at *index* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes The *dload* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide*

instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte

unsigned index.

dload < n >

dload < n >

Operation Load double from local variable

Format

dload < n >

Forms

 $dload_0 = 38 (0x26)$

 $dload_1 = 39 (0x27)$

 $dload_2 = 40 (0x28)$

 $dload_3 = 41 (0x29)$

Operand

.. →

Stack

..., value

Description

Both < n > and < n >+1 must be indices into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The local variable at < n > must contain a double. The *value* of the local variable at < n > is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes

Each of the $dload_< n>$ instructions is the same as dload with an index of < n>, except that the operand < n> is implicit.

dmul dmul

Operation Multiply double

Format dmul

Forms dmul = 107 (0x6b)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type double. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value1*' and *value2*'. The double result is *value1*' * *value2*'. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result of a *dmul* instruction is governed by the rules of IEEE arithmetic:

- If either value 1' or value 2' is NaN, the result is NaN.
- If neither *value1*' nor *value2*' is NaN, the sign of the result is positive if both values have the same sign and negative if the values have different signs.
- Multiplication of an infinity by a zero results in NaN.
- Multiplication of an infinity by a finite value results in a signed infinity, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- In the remaining cases, where neither an infinity nor NaN is involved, the product is computed and rounded to the nearest representable value using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. If the magnitude is too large to represent as a double, we say the operation overflows; the result is then an infinity of appropriate sign. If the magnitude is too small to represent as a double, we say the operation underflows; the result is then a zero of appropriate sign.

The Java Virtual Machine requires support of gradual underflow as defined by IEEE 754. Despite the fact that overflow, underflow,

or loss of precision may occur, execution of a *dmul* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

dneg dneg

Operation Negate double

Format dneg

Forms dneg = 119 (0x77)

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

Description

The value must be of type double. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*'. The double *result* is the arithmetic negation of *value*'. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

For double values, negation is not the same as subtraction from zero. If x is +0.0, then 0.0-x equals +0.0, but -x equals -0.0. Unary minus merely inverts the sign of a double.

Special cases of interest:

- If the operand is NaN, the result is NaN (recall that NaN has no sign).
- If the operand is an infinity, the result is the infinity of opposite sign.
- If the operand is a zero, the result is the zero of opposite sign.

drem drem

Remainder double **Operation**

Format drem

drem = 115 (0x73)**Forms**

..., value1, value2 \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack ..., result

Description

Both value1 and value2 must be of type double. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in value1' and value2'. The result is calculated and pushed onto the operand stack as a double.

The result of a *drem* instruction is not the same as that of the socalled remainder operation defined by IEEE 754. The IEEE 754 "remainder" operation computes the remainder from a rounding division, not a truncating division, and so its behavior is not analogous to that of the usual integer remainder operator. Instead, the Java Virtual Machine defines drem to behave in a manner analogous to that of the Java Virtual Machine integer remainder instructions (*irem* and *lrem*); this may be compared with the C library function fmod.

The result of a *drem* instruction is governed by these rules:

- If either value 1' or value 2' is NaN, the result is NaN.
- If neither value 1' nor value 2' is NaN, the sign of the result equals the sign of the dividend.
- If the dividend is an infinity or the divisor is a zero or both, the result is NaN.
- If the dividend is finite and the divisor is an infinity, the result equals the dividend.
- If the dividend is a zero and the divisor is finite, the result equals the dividend.

• In the remaining cases, where neither operand is an infinity, a zero, or NaN, the floating-point remainder *result* from a dividend *value1*' and a divisor *value2*' is defined by the mathematical relation *result* = *value1*' - (*value2*' * *q*), where *q* is an integer that is negative only if *value1*' / *value2*' is negative, and positive only if *value1*' / *value2*' is positive, and whose magnitude is as large as possible without exceeding the magnitude of the true mathematical quotient of *value1*' and *value2*'.

Despite the fact that division by zero may occur, evaluation of a *drem* instruction never throws a run-time exception. Overflow, underflow, or loss of precision cannot occur.

Notes

The IEEE 754 remainder operation may be computed by the library routine Math. IEEE remainder.

dreturn dreturn

Return double from method **Operation**

Format dreturn

dreturn = 175 (0xaf) **Forms**

Operand ..., value \rightarrow Stack [empty]

Description

The current method must have return type double. The value must be of type double. If the current method is a synchronized method, the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a monitorexit instruction (§monitorexit) in the current thread. If no exception is thrown, *value* is popped from the operand stack of the current frame (§2.6) and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in value'. The value' is pushed onto the operand stack of the frame of the invoker. Any other values on the operand stack of the current method are discarded.

The interpreter then returns control to the invoker of the method, reinstating the frame of the invoker.

Run-time **Exceptions**

If the Java Virtual Machine implementation does not enforce the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10, then if the current method is a synchronized method and the current thread is not the owner of the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method, dreturn throws an IllegalMonitorStateException. This can happen, for example, if a synchronized method contains a monitorexit instruction, but no monitorenter instruction, on the object on which the method is synchronized.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation enforces the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10 and if the first of those rules is violated during invocation of the current method, then dreturn throws an IllegalMonitorStateException.

dstore dstore

Operation Store double into local variable

Format

dstore index

Forms dstore = 57 (0x39)

Operand ..., value →

Stack ...

Description The *index* is an unsigned byte. Both *index* and *index*+1 must be

indices into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type double. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*'. The local variables at *index*

and *index*+1 are set to *value*'.

Notes The *dstore* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide*

instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte

unsigned index.

dstore < n >

dstore < n >

Operation Store double into local variable

Format dstore_<n>

Forms $dstore_0 = 71 (0x47)$

 $dstore_1 = 72 (0x48)$

 $dstore_2 = 73 (0x49)$

 $dstore_3 = 74 (0x4a)$

Operand ..., $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description Both $\langle n \rangle$ and $\langle n \rangle + 1$ must be indices into the local variable array

of the current frame (§2.6). The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type double. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*'.

The local variables at $\langle n \rangle$ and $\langle n \rangle + 1$ are set to *value*'.

Notes Each of the *dstore_<n>* instructions is the same as *dstore* with an

index of $\langle n \rangle$, except that the operand $\langle n \rangle$ is implicit.

dsub dsub

Operation Subtract double

Format dsub

Forms dsub = 103 (0x67)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type double. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value1*' and *value2*'. The double *result* is *value1*' - *value2*'. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

For double subtraction, it is always the case that a-b produces the same result as a+(-b). However, for the *dsub* instruction, subtraction from zero is not the same as negation, because if x is +0.0, then 0.0-x equals +0.0, but -x equals -0.0.

The Java Virtual Machine requires support of gradual underflow as defined by IEEE 754. Despite the fact that overflow, underflow, or loss of precision may occur, execution of a *dsub* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

dup

dup

Operation Duplicate the top operand stack value

Format

dup

Forms

dup = 89 (0x59)

Operand

..., $value \rightarrow$

Stack

..., value, value

Description

Duplicate the top value on the operand stack and push the

duplicated value onto the operand stack.

The dup instruction must not be used unless value is a value of a

category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

 dup_x1 dup_x1

Operation Duplicate the top operand stack value and insert two values down

Format dup_x1

Forms $dup_x 1 = 90 (0x5a)$

Operand ..., value2, $value1 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value1, value2, value1

Description Duplicate the top value on the operand stack and insert the

duplicated value two values down in the operand stack.

The *dup_x1* instruction must not be used unless both *value1* and *value2* are values of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

 dup_x2

 dup_x2

Operation

Duplicate the top operand stack value and insert two or three values down

Format

 dup_x2

Forms

 $dup_x2 = 91 (0x5b)$

Operand

Form 1:

Stack

..., value3, value2, value1 →

..., value1, value3, value2, value1

where *value1*, *value2*, and *value3* are all values of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

Form 2:

..., value2, value1 →

..., value1, value2, value1

where *value1* is a value of a category 1 computational type and *value2* is a value of a category 2 computational type (§2.11.1).

Description

Duplicate the top value on the operand stack and insert the duplicated value two or three values down in the operand stack.

dup2 dup2

Operation Duplicate the top one or two operand stack values

Format dup2

Forms dup2 = 92 (0x5c)

Operand Form 1:

Stack ..., value2, value1 →

..., value2, value1, value2, value1

where both *value1* and *value2* are values of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

Form 2:

..., value →

..., value, value

where *value* is a value of a category 2 computational type (§2.11.1).

Description

Duplicate the top one or two values on the operand stack and push the duplicated value or values back onto the operand stack in the original order.

 $dup2_x1$

Operation

Duplicate the top one or two operand stack values and insert two or three values down

Format

$$dup2_x1$$

Forms

$$dup2_x1 = 93 (0x5d)$$

Operand

Form 1:

Stack

..., value3, value2, value1 →

..., value2, value1, value3, value2, value1

where *value1*, *value2*, and *value3* are all values of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

Form 2:

..., value2, value1 →

..., value1, value2, value1

where *value1* is a value of a category 2 computational type and *value2* is a value of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

Description

Duplicate the top one or two values on the operand stack and insert the duplicated values, in the original order, one value beneath the original value or values in the operand stack.

$dup2_x2$ $dup2_x2$

Operation

Duplicate the top one or two operand stack values and insert two, three, or four values down

Format

$$dup2_x2$$

Forms

$$dup2_x2 = 94 (0x5e)$$

Operand

Form 1:

Stack

..., value4, value3, value2, value1 >

..., value2, value1, value4, value3, value2, value1

where *value1*, *value2*, *value3*, and *value4* are all values of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

Form 2:

..., value3, value2, value1 →

..., value1, value3, value2, value1

where *value1* is a value of a category 2 computational type and *value2* and *value3* are both values of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

Form 3:

..., value3, value2, value1 \rightarrow

..., value2, value1, value3, value2, value1

where *value1* and *value2* are both values of a category 1 computational type and *value3* is a value of a category 2 computational type (§2.11.1).

Form 4:

..., value2, value1 \rightarrow

..., value1, value2, value1

where *value1* and *value2* are both values of a category 2 computational type (§2.11.1).

Description Duplicate the top one or two values on the operand stack and insert the duplicated values, in the original order, into the operand stack.

f2d f2d

Operation Convert float to double

Format f2d

Forms f2d = 141 (0x8d)

Operand ..., value →
Stack ..., result

Description

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type float. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*'. Then *value*' is converted to a double *result*. This *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes

Where an f2d instruction is FP-strict (§2.8.2) it performs a widening primitive conversion (JLS §5.1.2). Because all values of the float value set (§2.3.2) are exactly representable by values of the double value set (§2.3.2), such a conversion is exact.

Where an f2d instruction is not FP-strict, the result of the conversion may be taken from the double-extended-exponent value set; it is not necessarily rounded to the nearest representable value in the double value set. However, if the operand *value* is taken from the float-extended-exponent value set and the target result is constrained to the double value set, rounding of *value* may be required.

f2i f2i

Convert float to int **Operation**

Format f2i

f2i = 139 (0x8b)**Forms**

Operand ..., value \rightarrow Stack ..., result

Description

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type float. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value'*. Then *value'* is converted to an int *result*. This *result* is pushed onto the operand stack:

- If the *value*' is NaN, the *result* of the conversion is an int 0.
- Otherwise, if the *value*' is not an infinity, it is rounded to an integer value v, rounding towards zero using IEEE 754 round towards zero mode. If this integer value v can be represented as an int, then the *result* is the int value v.
- Otherwise, either the *value*' must be too small (a negative value of large magnitude or negative infinity), and the result is the smallest representable value of type int, or the value' must be too large (a positive value of large magnitude or positive infinity), and the *result* is the largest representable value of type int.

Notes

The *f2i* instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion (JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude of *value*' and may also lose precision.

f2l

Operation Convert float to long

Format f2l

Forms f2l = 140 (0x8c)

Operand ..., value → **Stack** ..., result

Description

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type float. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*'. Then *value*' is converted to a long *result*. This *result* is pushed onto the operand stack:

- If the *value*' is NaN, the result of the conversion is a long 0.
- Otherwise, if the *value*' is not an infinity, it is rounded to an integer value *v*, rounding towards zero using IEEE 754 round towards zero mode. If this integer value *v* can be represented as a long, then the *result* is the long value *v*.
- Otherwise, either the *value*' must be too small (a negative value of large magnitude or negative infinity), and the *result* is the smallest representable value of type long, or the *value*' must be too large (a positive value of large magnitude or positive infinity), and the *result* is the largest representable value of type long.

Notes

The *f2l* instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion (JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude of *value*' and may also lose precision.

fadd fadd

Add float **Operation**

Format fadd

fadd = 98 (0x62)**Forms**

..., value1, value2 \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack ..., result

Description

Both value1 and value2 must be of type float. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in value1' and value2'. The float result is value1' + value2'. The result is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result of an *fadd* instruction is governed by the rules of IEEE arithmetic:

- If either value1' or value2' is NaN, the result is NaN.
- The sum of two infinities of opposite sign is NaN.
- The sum of two infinities of the same sign is the infinity of that sign.
- The sum of an infinity and any finite value is equal to the infinity.
- The sum of two zeroes of opposite sign is positive zero.
- The sum of two zeroes of the same sign is the zero of that sign.
- The sum of a zero and a nonzero finite value is equal to the nonzero value.
- The sum of two nonzero finite values of the same magnitude and opposite sign is positive zero.
- In the remaining cases, where neither operand is an infinity, a zero, or NaN and the values have the same sign or have different magnitudes, the sum is computed and rounded to the nearest representable value using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. If

the magnitude is too large to represent as a float, we say the operation overflows; the result is then an infinity of appropriate sign. If the magnitude is too small to represent as a float, we say the operation underflows; the result is then a zero of appropriate sign.

The Java Virtual Machine requires support of gradual underflow as defined by IEEE 754. Despite the fact that overflow, underflow, or loss of precision may occur, execution of an *fadd* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

faload faload

Operation Load float from array

Format faload

Forms faload = 48 (0x30)

Operand ..., arrayref, $index \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type float. The *index* must be of type int. Both *arrayref* and *index* are popped from the operand stack. The float value in the component of the array at *index* is retrieved

and pushed onto the operand stack.

Run-time If arrayref is null, faload throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by *arrayref*, the *faload* instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

fastore fastore

Operation Store into float array

Format fastore

Forms fastore = 81 (0x51)

Operand ..., arrayref, index, $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type float. The *index* must be of type int, and the *value* must be of type float. The *arrayref*, *index*, and *value* are popped from the operand stack. The float *value* undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*', and *value*' is stored as the component of the array indexed by *index*.

Run-time If *arrayref* is null, *fastore* throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the fastore instruction throws an

 ${\tt ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.}$

fcmp<op> fcmp<op>

Operation Compare float

Format | fcmp<op>

Forms fcmpg = 150 (0x96)

fcmpl = 149 (0x95)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type float. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value1*' and *value2*'. A floating-point comparison is performed:

- If *value1*' is greater than *value2*', the int value 1 is pushed onto the operand stack.
- Otherwise, if *value1*' is equal to *value2*', the int value 0 is pushed onto the operand stack.
- Otherwise, if *value1*' is less than *value2*', the int value -1 is pushed onto the operand stack.
- Otherwise, at least one of *value1*' or *value2*' is NaN. The *fcmpg* instruction pushes the int value 1 onto the operand stack and the *fcmpl* instruction pushes the int value -1 onto the operand stack.

Floating-point comparison is performed in accordance with IEEE 754. All values other than NaN are ordered, with negative infinity less than all finite values and positive infinity greater than all finite values. Positive zero and negative zero are considered equal.

Notes

The *fcmpg* and *fcmpl* instructions differ only in their treatment of a comparison involving NaN. NaN is unordered, so any float comparison fails if either or both of its operands are NaN. With both *fcmpg* and *fcmpl* available, any float comparison may

be compiled to push the same *result* onto the operand stack whether the comparison fails on non-NaN values or fails because it encountered a NaN. For more information, see §3.5.

fconst_<*f*>

fconst_<f>

Operation Push float

Format | fconst_<f>

Forms $fconst_0 = 11 (0xb)$

 $fconst_1 = 12 (0xc)$

 $fconst_2 = 13 (0xd)$

Operand $\dots \rightarrow$

Stack ..., <*f*>

Description Push the float constant < f > (0.0, 1.0, or 2.0) onto the operand

stack.

fdiv

Operation Divide float

Format fdiv

Forms fdiv = 110 (0x6e)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type float. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value1*' and *value2*'. The float *result* is *value1*' / *value2*'. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result of an *fdiv* instruction is governed by the rules of IEEE arithmetic:

- If either value1' or value2' is NaN, the result is NaN.
- If neither *value1*' nor *value2*' is NaN, the sign of the result is positive if both values have the same sign, negative if the values have different signs.
- Division of an infinity by an infinity results in NaN.
- Division of an infinity by a finite value results in a signed infinity, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- Division of a finite value by an infinity results in a signed zero, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- Division of a zero by a zero results in NaN; division of zero by any other finite value results in a signed zero, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- Division of a nonzero finite value by a zero results in a signed infinity, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- In the remaining cases, where neither operand is an infinity, a zero, or NaN, the quotient is computed and rounded to the nearest float using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. If the

magnitude is too large to represent as a float, we say the operation overflows; the result is then an infinity of appropriate sign. If the magnitude is too small to represent as a float, we say the operation underflows; the result is then a zero of appropriate sign.

The Java Virtual Machine requires support of gradual underflow as defined by IEEE 754. Despite the fact that overflow, underflow, division by zero, or loss of precision may occur, execution of an *fdiv* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

fload fload

Operation Load float from local variable

Format fload

index

Forms fload = 23 (0x17)

Operand ... →

Stack ..., value

Description The *index* is an unsigned byte that must be an index into the local

variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The local variable at *index* must contain a float. The *value* of the local variable at *index*

is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes The *fload* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide*

instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte

unsigned index.

fload_<n> fload_<n>

Operation Load float from local variable

Format fload_<n>

Forms $fload_0 = 34 (0x22)$

 $fload_1 = 35 (0x23)$

 $fload_2 = 36 (0x24)$

 $fload_3 = 37 (0x25)$

Operand ... →

Stack ..., value

Description The <*n*> must be an index into the local variable array of the

current frame (§2.6). The local variable at < n > must contain a float. The *value* of the local variable at < n > is pushed onto the

operand stack.

Notes Each of the *fload_*<*n*> instructions is the same as *fload* with an

index of < n >, except that the operand < n > is implicit.

fmul fmul

Operation Multiply float

Format fmul

Forms fmul = 106 (0x6a)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type float. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value1*' and *value2*'. The float *result* is *value1*' * *value2*'. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result of an *fmul* instruction is governed by the rules of IEEE arithmetic:

- If either value 1' or value 2' is NaN, the result is NaN.
- If neither *value1*' nor *value2*' is NaN, the sign of the result is positive if both values have the same sign, and negative if the values have different signs.
- Multiplication of an infinity by a zero results in NaN.
- Multiplication of an infinity by a finite value results in a signed infinity, with the sign-producing rule just given.
- In the remaining cases, where neither an infinity nor NaN is involved, the product is computed and rounded to the nearest representable value using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. If the magnitude is too large to represent as a float, we say the operation overflows; the result is then an infinity of appropriate sign. If the magnitude is too small to represent as a float, we say the operation underflows; the result is then a zero of appropriate sign.

The Java Virtual Machine requires support of gradual underflow as defined by IEEE 754. Despite the fact that overflow, underflow,

or loss of precision may occur, execution of an *fmul* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

fneg fneg

Operation Negate float

Format fneg

Forms fneg = 118 (0x76)

Operand ..., value → **Stack** ..., result

Description

The *value* must be of type float. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*'. The float *result* is the arithmetic negation of *value*'. This *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

For float values, negation is not the same as subtraction from zero. If x is +0.0, then 0.0-x equals +0.0, but -x equals -0.0. Unary minus merely inverts the sign of a float.

Special cases of interest:

- If the operand is NaN, the result is NaN (recall that NaN has no sign).
- If the operand is an infinity, the result is the infinity of opposite sign.
- If the operand is a zero, the result is the zero of opposite sign.

frem frem

Remainder float **Operation**

Format frem

frem = 114 (0x72)**Forms**

..., value1, value2 \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack ..., result

Description

Both value1 and value2 must be of type float. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in value I' and value 2'. The result is calculated and pushed onto the operand stack as a float.

The result of an frem instruction is not the same as that of the socalled remainder operation defined by IEEE 754. The IEEE 754 "remainder" operation computes the remainder from a rounding division, not a truncating division, and so its behavior is not analogous to that of the usual integer remainder operator. Instead, the Java Virtual Machine defines frem to behave in a manner analogous to that of the Java Virtual Machine integer remainder instructions (*irem* and *lrem*); this may be compared with the C library function fmod.

The result of an *frem* instruction is governed by these rules:

- If either value 1' or value 2' is NaN, the result is NaN.
- If neither value 1' nor value 2' is NaN, the sign of the result equals the sign of the dividend.
- If the dividend is an infinity or the divisor is a zero or both, the result is NaN.
- If the dividend is finite and the divisor is an infinity, the result equals the dividend.
- If the dividend is a zero and the divisor is finite, the result equals the dividend.

• In the remaining cases, where neither operand is an infinity, a zero, or NaN, the floating-point remainder *result* from a dividend *value1*' and a divisor *value2*' is defined by the mathematical relation *result* = *value1*' - (*value2*' * *q*), where *q* is an integer that is negative only if *value1*' / *value2*' is negative and positive only if *value1*' / *value2*' is positive, and whose magnitude is as large as possible without exceeding the magnitude of the true mathematical quotient of *value1*' and *value2*'.

Despite the fact that division by zero may occur, evaluation of an *frem* instruction never throws a run-time exception. Overflow, underflow, or loss of precision cannot occur.

Notes

The IEEE 754 remainder operation may be computed by the library routine Math. IEEE remainder.

freturn freturn

Operation Return float from method

Format freturn

Forms freturn = 174 (0xae)

Operand ..., value →
Stack [empty]

Description

The current method must have return type float. The *value* must be of type float. If the current method is a synchronized method, the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a *monitorexit* instruction (*§monitorexit*) in the current thread. If no exception is thrown, *value* is popped from the operand stack of the current frame (*§*2.6) and undergoes value set conversion (*§*2.8.3), resulting in *value*'. The *value*' is pushed onto the operand stack of the frame of the invoker. Any other values on the operand stack of the current method are discarded.

The interpreter then returns control to the invoker of the method, reinstating the frame of the invoker.

Run-time Exceptions

If the Java Virtual Machine implementation does not enforce the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10, then if the current method is a synchronized method and the current thread is not the owner of the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method, *freturn* throws an <code>IllegalMonitorStateException</code>. This can happen, for example, if a synchronized method contains a *monitorexit* instruction, but no *monitorenter* instruction, on the object on which the method is synchronized.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation enforces the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10 and if the first of those rules is violated during invocation of the current method, then *freturn* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException.

fstore fstore

Operation Store float into local variable

Format

fstore	
index	

Forms fstore = 56 (0x38)

Operand ..., $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description

The *index* is an unsigned byte that must be an index into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type float. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*'. The value of the local variable at *index* is set to *value*'.

Notes

The *fstore* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide* instruction (§*wide*) to access a local variable using a two-byte unsigned index.

fstore_<n>

fstore <n>

Operation Store float into local variable

Format

Forms

$$fstore_0 = 67 (0x43)$$

fstore 1 = 68 (0x44)

 $fstore_2 = 69 (0x45)$

fstore 3 = 70 (0x46)

Operand

..., value →

Stack

Description

The <n> must be an index into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The value on the top of the operand stack must be of type float. It is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in value'. The value of the local variable at <*n*> is set to *value*'.

Notes

Each of the *fstore_<n>* instructions is the same as *fstore* with an index of $\langle n \rangle$, except that the operand $\langle n \rangle$ is implicit.

fsub fsub

Operation Subtract float

Format fsub

Forms fsub = 102 (0x66)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type float. The values are popped from the operand stack and undergo value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value1*' and *value2*'. The float *result* is *value1*' - *value2*'. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

For float subtraction, it is always the case that a-b produces the same result as a+(-b). However, for the *fsub* instruction, subtraction from zero is not the same as negation, because if x is +0.0, then 0.0-x equals +0.0, but -x equals -0.0.

The Java Virtual Machine requires support of gradual underflow as defined by IEEE 754. Despite the fact that overflow, underflow, or loss of precision may occur, execution of an *fsub* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

getfield getfield

Operation Fetch field from object

Format

getfield
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms getfield = 180 (0xb4)

Operand ..., objectref →

Stack ..., value

Description

The *objectref*, which must be of type reference, is popped from the operand stack. The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a field (§5.1), which gives the name and descriptor of the field as well as a symbolic reference to the class in which the field is to be found. The referenced field is resolved (§5.4.3.2). The *value* of the referenced field in *objectref* is fetched and pushed onto the operand stack.

The type of *objectref* must not be an array type. If the field is protected (§4.6), and it is a member of a superclass of the current class, and the field is not declared in the same run-time package (§5.3) as the current class, then the class of *objectref* must be either the current class or a subclass of the current class.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the field, any of the errors pertaining to field resolution (§5.4.3.2) can be thrown.

Otherwise, if the resolved field is a static field, *getfield* throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

Run-time Exception

Otherwise, if objectref is null, the getfield instruction throws a NullPointerException.

Notes

The *getfield* instruction cannot be used to access the length field of an array. The *arraylength* instruction (§*arraylength*) is used instead.

getstatic getstatic

Get static field from class **Operation**

Format

getstatic	
indexbyte1	
indexbyte2	

getstatic = 178 (0xb2)**Forms**

Operand

Stack ..., value

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (indexbyte1 << 8) | indexbyte2. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a field (§5.1), which gives the name and descriptor of the field as well as a symbolic reference to the class or interface in which the field is to be found. The referenced field is resolved (§5.4.3.2).

On successful resolution of the field, the class or interface that declared the resolved field is initialized (§5.5) if that class or interface has not already been initialized.

The value of the class or interface field is fetched and pushed onto the operand stack.

Linking **Exceptions**

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the class or interface field, any of the exceptions pertaining to field resolution $(\S5.4.3.2)$ can be thrown.

Otherwise. if the resolved field not static (class) field or an interface field, getstatic throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

Run-time Exception

Otherwise, if execution of this *getstatic* instruction causes initialization of the referenced class or interface, *getstatic* may throw an Error as detailed in §5.5.

goto

goto

Operation Branch always

Format

goto
branchbyte1
branchbyte2

Forms goto = 167 (0xa7)

Operand

No change

Stack

Description

The unsigned bytes *branchbyte1* and *branchbyte2* are used to construct a signed 16-bit *branchoffset*, where *branchoffset* is (*branchbyte1* << 8) | *branchbyte2*. Execution proceeds at that offset from the address of the opcode of this *goto* instruction. The target address must be that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this *goto* instruction.

goto_w goto_w

Operation Branch always (wide index)

Format

goto_w
branchbyte1
branchbyte2
branchbyte3
branchbyte4

Forms $goto_{-}w = 200 \text{ (0xc8)}$

Operand

No change

Stack

Description

The unsigned bytes branchbyte1, branchbyte2, branchbyte3, and branchbyte4 are used to construct a signed 32-bit branchoffset, where branchoffset is (branchbyte1 << 24) | (branchbyte2 << 16) | (branchbyte3 << 8) | branchbyte4. Execution proceeds at that offset from the address of the opcode of this goto_w instruction. The target address must be that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this goto_w instruction.

Notes

Although the *goto_w* instruction takes a 4-byte branch offset, other factors limit the size of a method to 65535 bytes (§4.11). This limit may be raised in a future release of the Java Virtual Machine.

i2bi2b

Convert int to byte **Operation**

Format i2b

i2b = 145 (0x91)**Forms**

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type int. It **Description**

is popped from the operand stack, truncated to a byte, then signextended to an int result. That result is pushed onto the operand

stack.

The *i2b* instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion **Notes**

(JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude

of value. The result may also not have the same sign as value.

i2c i2c

Operation Convert int to char

Format i2c

Forms i2c = 146 (0x92)

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

Description The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type int. It

is popped from the operand stack, truncated to char, then zero-extended to an int *result*. That *result* is pushed onto the operand

stack.

Notes The *i2c* instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion

(JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude of *value*. The *result* (which is always positive) may also not have

the same sign as value.

i2d i2d

Operation Convert int to double

Format i2d

Forms i2d = 135 (0x87)

Operand ..., value → **Stack** ..., result

Description The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type int. It is

popped from the operand stack and converted to a double result.

The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes The *i2d* instruction performs a widening primitive conversion (JLS

§5.1.2). Because all values of type int are exactly representable

by type double, the conversion is exact.

i2f i2f

Operation Convert int to float

Format i2f

Forms i2f = 134 (0x86)

Operand ..., *value* → **Stack** ..., *result*

Description The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type int. It is

popped from the operand stack and converted to the float *result* using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. The *result* is pushed onto

the operand stack.

Notes The *i2f* instruction performs a widening primitive conversion (JLS

§5.1.2), but may result in a loss of precision because values of type

float have only 24 significand bits.

i2l

Operation Convert int to long

Format i2l

Forms i2l = 133 (0x85)

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

Description The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type int. It is

popped from the operand stack and sign-extended to a long result.

That *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes The *i2l* instruction performs a widening primitive conversion (JLS

§5.1.2). Because all values of type int are exactly representable

by type long, the conversion is exact.

i2si2s

Convert int to short **Operation**

Format i2s

i2s = 147 (0x93)**Forms**

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type int. It **Description**

is popped from the operand stack, truncated to a short, then signextended to an int result. That result is pushed onto the operand

stack.

The i2s instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion **Notes**

(JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude

of value. The result may also not have the same sign as value.

iadd iadd

Operation Add int

Format iadd

Forms iadd = 96 (0x60)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. The values are popped from the operand stack. The int *result* is *value1* + *value2*. The

result is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result is the 32 low-order bits of the true mathematical result in a sufficiently wide two's-complement format, represented as a value of type int. If overflow occurs, then the sign of the result may not be the same as the sign of the mathematical sum of the

two values.

Despite the fact that overflow may occur, execution of an *iadd* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

iaload iaload

Operation Load int from array

Format iaload

Forms iaload = 46 (0x2e)

Operand ..., arrayref, $index \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type int. The *index* must be of type int. Both *arrayref* and *index* are popped from the operand stack. The int *value* in the component of the array at *index* is retrieved and

pushed onto the operand stack.

Run-time If *arrayref* is null, *iaload* throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the iaload instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

6.5

iand iand

Operation Boolean AND int

Format iand

Forms iand = 126 (0x7e)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. They are popped

from the operand stack. An int *result* is calculated by taking the bitwise AND (conjunction) of *value1* and *value2*. The *result* is

pushed onto the operand stack.

iastore iastore

Operation Store into int array

Format iastore

Forms iastore = 79 (0x4f)

Operand ..., arrayref, index, $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type int. Both *index* and *value* must be of type int. The *arrayref*, *index*, and *value* are popped from the operand stack. The int *value* is stored as the component of the

array indexed by index.

Run-time If *arrayref* is null, *iastore* throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the iastore instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

iconst_<i>

iconst <i>

Operation Push int constant

Format

 $iconst_< i>$

Forms $iconst_m 1 = 2 (0x2)$

 $iconst_0 = 3 (0x3)$

 $iconst_1 = 4 (0x4)$

 $iconst_2 = 5 (0x5)$

 $iconst_3 = 6 (0x6)$

 $iconst_4 = 7 (0x7)$

 $iconst_5 = 8 (0x8)$

Operand

... →

Stack

..., <*i*>

Description

Push the int constant $\langle i \rangle$ (-1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 or 5) onto the operand

stack.

Notes

Each of this family of instructions is equivalent to bipush <i>for

the respective value of $\langle i \rangle$, except that the operand $\langle i \rangle$ is implicit.

idiv

Operation Divide int

Format *idiv*

Forms idiv = 108 (0x6c)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. The values are popped from the operand stack. The int *result* is the value of the Java programming language expression *value1* / *value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

An int division rounds towards 0; that is, the quotient produced for int values in n/d is an int value q whose magnitude is as large as possible while satisfying $|d \cdot q| \le |n|$. Moreover, q is positive when $|n| \ge |d|$ and n and d have the same sign, but q is negative when $|n| \ge |d|$ and n and d have opposite signs.

There is one special case that does not satisfy this rule: if the dividend is the negative integer of largest possible magnitude for the int type, and the divisor is -1, then overflow occurs, and the result is equal to the dividend. Despite the overflow, no exception is thrown in this case.

Run-time Exception

If the value of the divisor in an int division is 0, idiv throws an ArithmeticException.

if_acmp<cond>

if_acmp<cond>

Operation Branch if reference comparison succeeds

Format

if_acmp <cond></cond>	
branchbyte1	
branchbyte2	

Forms $if_acmpeq = 165 (0xa5)$

 $if_acmpne = 166 (0xa6)$

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type reference. They are both popped from the operand stack and compared. The results of the comparison are as follows:

- *if_acmpeq* succeeds if and only if *value1* = *value2*
- *if_acmpne* succeeds if and only if *value1* ≠ *value2*

If the comparison succeeds, the unsigned *branchbyte1* and *branchbyte2* are used to construct a signed 16-bit offset, where the offset is calculated to be (*branchbyte1* << 8) | *branchbyte2*. Execution then proceeds at that offset from the address of the opcode of this *if_acmp*<*cond*> instruction. The target address must be that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this *if_acmp*<*cond*> instruction.

Otherwise, if the comparison fails, execution proceeds at the address of the instruction following this *if_acmp*<*cond*> instruction.

if_icmp<cond>

if_icmp<cond>

Operation Branch if int comparison succeeds

Format

if_icmp <cond></cond>	
branchbyte1	
branchbyte2	

Forms

Operand

..., value1, value2 →

Stack

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. They are both popped from the operand stack and compared. All comparisons are signed. The results of the comparison are as follows:

- *if_icmpeq* succeeds if and only if *value1* = *value2*
- if_icmpne succeeds if and only if $value1 \neq value2$
- *if_icmplt* succeeds if and only if *value1* < *value2*
- if_icmple succeeds if and only if $value1 \le value2$
- *if_icmpgt* succeeds if and only if *value1* > *value2*
- if_icmpge succeeds if and only if $value1 \ge value2$

If the comparison succeeds, the unsigned *branchbyte1* and *branchbyte2* are used to construct a signed 16-bit offset, where the offset is calculated to be (*branchbyte1* << 8) | *branchbyte2*. Execution then proceeds at that offset from the address of the opcode of this *if_icmp*<*cond*> instruction. The target address must

be that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this *if_icmp*<*cond*> instruction.

Otherwise, execution proceeds at the address of the instruction following this *if_icmp*<*cond*> instruction.

if<cond> if<cond>

Operation

Branch if int comparison with zero succeeds

Format

if <cond></cond>
branchbyte1
branchbyte2

Forms

$$ifeq = 153 (0x99)$$

 $ifne = 154 (0x9a)$

$$iflt = 155 (0x9b)$$

$$ifge = 156 (0x9c)$$

$$ifgt = 157 (0x9d)$$

$$ifle = 158 (0x9e)$$

Operand

..., value →

Stack

• • •

Description

The *value* must be of type int. It is popped from the operand stack and compared against zero. All comparisons are signed. The results of the comparisons are as follows:

- *ifeq* succeeds if and only if *value* = 0
- *ifne* succeeds if and only if $value \neq 0$
- *iflt* succeeds if and only if *value* < 0
- *ifle* succeeds if and only if $value \le 0$
- *ifgt* succeeds if and only if *value* > 0
- *ifge* succeeds if and only if $value \ge 0$

If the comparison succeeds, the unsigned *branchbyte1* and *branchbyte2* are used to construct a signed 16-bit offset, where the offset is calculated to be (*branchbyte1* << 8) | *branchbyte2*. Execution then proceeds at that offset from the address of the opcode of this *if*<*cond*> instruction. The target address must be

that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this *if*<*cond*> instruction.

Otherwise, execution proceeds at the address of the instruction following this *if*<*cond*> instruction.

ifnonnull ifnonnull

Operation Branch if reference not null

Format

ifnonnull
branchbyte1
branchbyte2

Forms ifnonnull = 199 (0xc7)

Operand ..., $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description

The *value* must be of type reference. It is popped from the operand stack. If *value* is not null, the unsigned *branchbyte1* and *branchbyte2* are used to construct a signed 16-bit offset, where the offset is calculated to be (*branchbyte1* << 8) | *branchbyte2*. Execution then proceeds at that offset from the address of the opcode of this *ifnonnull* instruction. The target address must be that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this *ifnonnull* instruction.

Otherwise, execution proceeds at the address of the instruction following this *ifnonnull* instruction.

ifnull ifnull

Branch if reference is null **Operation**

Format ifnull

branchbyte1 branchbyte2

ifnull = 198 (0xc6)**Forms**

..., value → **Operand**

Stack

The value must of type reference. It is popped from the operand **Description**

stack. If value is null, the unsigned branchbyte1 and branchbyte2 are used to construct a signed 16-bit offset, where the offset is calculated to be (*branchbyte1* << 8) | *branchbyte2*. Execution then proceeds at that offset from the address of the opcode of this ifnull instruction. The target address must be that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this ifnull instruction.

Otherwise, execution proceeds at the address of the instruction following this ifnull instruction.

iinc iinc

Operation Incre

Increment local variable by constant

Format

iinc
index
const

Forms

iinc = 132 (0x84)

Operand

No change

Stack

Description

The *index* is an unsigned byte that must be an index into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The *const* is an immediate signed byte. The local variable at *index* must contain an int. The value *const* is first sign-extended to an int, and then the local variable at *index* is incremented by that amount.

Notes

The *iinc* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide* instruction (§*wide*) to access a local variable using a two-byte unsigned index and to increment it by a two-byte immediate signed value.

iload iload

Operation Load int from local variable

Format iload

index

Forms iload = 21 (0x15)

Operand ... →

Stack ..., value

Description The *index* is an unsigned byte that must be an index into the local

variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The local variable at *index* must contain an int. The *value* of the local variable at *index*

is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes The *iload* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide*

instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte

unsigned index.

Operation Load int from local variable

Format *iload_<n>*

Forms $iload_0 = 26 (0x1a)$

 $iload_1 = 27 (0x1b)$

 $iload_2 = 28 (0x1c)$

 $iload_3 = 29 \text{ (0x1d)}$

Operand ... →

Stack ..., value

Description The <*n*> must be an index into the local variable array of the

current frame (§2.6). The local variable at < n > must contain an int. The *value* of the local variable at < n > is pushed onto the

operand stack.

Notes Each of the *iload_*<*n*> instructions is the same as *iload* with an

index of $\langle n \rangle$, except that the operand $\langle n \rangle$ is implicit.

imul imul

Multiply int **Operation**

Format imul

Forms imul = 104 (0x68)

..., value1, value2 \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack ..., result

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. The values are popped **Description** from the operand stack. The int result is value1 * value2. The

result is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result is the 32 low-order bits of the true mathematical result in a sufficiently wide two's-complement format, represented as a value of type int. If overflow occurs, then the sign of the result may not be the same as the sign of the mathematical sum of the

two values.

Despite the fact that overflow may occur, execution of an imul instruction never throws a run-time exception.

ineg ineg

Operation Negate int

Format ineg

Forms ineg = 116 (0x74)

Operand ..., value → **Stack** ..., result

Description

The *value* must be of type int. It is popped from the operand stack. The int *result* is the arithmetic negation of *value*, *-value*. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

For int values, negation is the same as subtraction from zero. Because the Java Virtual Machine uses two's-complement representation for integers and the range of two's-complement values is not symmetric, the negation of the maximum negative int results in that same maximum negative number. Despite the fact that overflow has occurred, no exception is thrown.

For all int values x, -x equals $(\sim x)+1$.

instanceof

instanceof

Operation Determine if object is of given type

Format

instanceof	
indexbyte1	
indexbyte2	

Forms instance of = 193 (0xc1)

Operand ..., objectref →
Stack ..., result

Description

The *objectref*, which must be of type reference, is popped from the operand stack. The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at the index must be a symbolic reference to a class, array, or interface type.

If *objectref* is null, the *instanceof* instruction pushes an int *result* of 0 as an int on the operand stack.

Otherwise, the named class, array, or interface type is resolved (§5.4.3.1). If *objectref* is an instance of the resolved class or array or implements the resolved interface, the *instanceof* instruction pushes an int *result* of 1 as an int on the operand stack; otherwise, it pushes an int *result* of 0.

The following rules are used to determine whether an *objectref* that is not null is an instance of the resolved type: If s is the class of the object referred to by *objectref* and t is the resolved class, array, or interface type, *instanceof* determines whether *objectref* is an instance of t as follows:

- If s is an ordinary (nonarray) class, then:
 - If τ is a class type, then s must be the same class as τ , or s must be a subclass of τ ;
 - If τ is an interface type, then s must implement interface τ .

- If s is an interface type, then:
 - If T is a class type, then T must be Object.
 - If τ is an interface type, then τ must be the same interface as s or a superinterface of s.
- If s is a class representing the array type sc[], that is, an array of components of type sc, then:
 - If T is a class type, then T must be Object.
 - If τ is an interface type, then τ must be one of the interfaces implemented by arrays (JLS §4.10.3).
 - If τ is an array type τc [], that is, an array of components of type τc , then one of the following must be true:
 - * TC and SC are the same primitive type.
 - * TC and SC are reference types, and type SC can be cast to TC by these run-time rules.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the class, array, or interface type, any of the exceptions documented in §5.4.3.1 can be thrown.

Notes

The *instanceof* instruction is very similar to the *checkcast* instruction (§*checkcast*). It differs in its treatment of null, its behavior when its test fails (*checkcast* throws an exception, *instanceof* pushes a result code), and its effect on the operand stack.

invokedynamic

invokedynamic

Operation

Invoke dynamic method

Format

invokedynamic
indexbyte1
indexbyte2
0
0

Forms

invokedynamic = 186 (0xba)

Operand

..., $[arg1, [arg2 ...]] \rightarrow$

Stack

...

Description

Each specific lexical occurrence of an *invokedynamic* instruction is called a *dynamic call site*.

First, the unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a call site specifier (§5.1). The values of the third and fourth operand bytes must always be zero.

The call site specifier is resolved (§5.4.3.6) for this specific dynamic call site to obtain a reference to a java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle instance, a reference to a java.lang.invoke.MethodType instance, and references to static arguments.

Next, as part of the continuing resolution of the call site specifier, the bootstrap method is invoked as if by execution of an *invokevirtual* instruction (§*invokevirtual*) that contains a run-time constant pool index to a symbolic reference to a method (§5.1) with the following properties:

• The method's name is invoke:

- The method's descriptor has a return type of java.lang.invoke.CallSite;
- The method's descriptor has parameter types derived from the items pushed on to the operand stack, as follows.

The first four parameter types in the descriptor are java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle, java.lang.invoke.MethodHandles.Lookup, String, and java.lang.invoke.MethodType, in that order.

If the call site specifier has any static arguments, then a parameter type for each argument is appended to the parameter types of the method descriptor in the order that the arguments were pushed on to the operand stack. These parameter types may be Class, java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle, java.lang.invoke.MethodType, String, int, long, float, or double.

• The method's symbolic reference to the class in which the method is to be found indicates the class java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle.

where it is as if the following items were pushed, in order, onto the operand stack:

- the reference to the java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle object for the bootstrap method;
- a reference to a java.lang.invoke.MethodHandles.Lookup object for the class in which this dynamic call site occurs;
- a reference to the String for the method name in the call site specifier;
- the reference to the java.lang.invoke.MethodType object obtained for the method descriptor in the call site specifier;
- references to classes, method types, method handles, and string literals denoted as static arguments in the call site specifier, and numeric values (§2.3.1, §2.3.2) denoted as static arguments in the call site specifier, in the order in which they appear in the call site specifier. (That is, no boxing occurs for primitive values.)

As long as the bootstrap method can be correctly invoked by the invoke method, its descriptor is arbitrary. For example, the first parameter type could be <code>Object</code> instead of <code>java.lang.invoke.MethodHandles.Lookup</code>, and the return type could also be <code>Object</code> instead of <code>java.lang.invoke.CallSite</code>.

If the bootstrap method is a variable arity method, then some or all of the arguments on the operand stack specified above may be collected into a trailing array parameter.

The invocation of a bootstrap method occurs within a thread that is attempting resolution of the symbolic reference to the call site specifier *of this dynamic call site*. If there are several such threads, the bootstrap method may be invoked in several threads concurrently. Therefore, bootstrap methods which access global application data must take the usual precautions against race conditions.

The result returned by the bootstrap method must be a reference to an object whose class is <code>java.lang.invoke.CallSite</code> or a subclass of <code>java.lang.invoke.CallSite</code>. This object is known as the *call site object*. The reference is popped from the operand stack used as if in the execution of an *invokevirtual* instruction.

If several threads simultaneously execute the bootstrap method for the same dynamic call site, the Java Virtual Machine must choose one returned call site object and install it visibly to all threads. Any other bootstrap methods executing for the dynamic call site are allowed to complete, but their results are ignored, and the threads' execution of the dynamic call site proceeds with the chosen call site object.

The call site object has a type descriptor (an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType) which must be semantically equal to the java.lang.invoke.MethodType object obtained for the method descriptor in the call site specifier.

The result of successful call site specifier resolution is a call site object which is permanently bound to the dynamic call site.

The method handle represented by the target of the bound call site object is invoked. The invocation occurs as if by execution of an *invokevirtual* instruction (§*invokevirtual*) that indicates a run-time

constant pool index to a symbolic reference to a method (§5.1) with the following properties:

- The method's name is invokeExact:
- The method's descriptor is the method descriptor in the call site specifier; and
- The method's symbolic reference to the class in which the method is to be found indicates the class java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle.

The operand stack will be interpreted as containing a reference to the target of the call site object, followed by *nargs* argument values, where the number, type, and order of the values must be consistent with the method descriptor in the call site specifier.

Linking Exceptions

If resolution of the symbolic reference to the call site specifier throws an exception *E*, the *invokedynamic* instruction throws a BootstrapMethodError that wraps *E*.

Otherwise, during the continuing resolution of the call site specifier, if invocation of the bootstrap method completes abruptly (§2.6.5) because of a throw of exception *E*, the *invokedynamic* instruction throws a BootstrapMethodError that wraps *E*. (This can occur if the bootstrap method has the wrong arity, parameter type, or return type, causing java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle . invoke to throw java.lang.invoke.WrongMethodTypeException.)

Otherwise, during the continuing resolution of the call site specifier, if the result from the bootstrap method invocation is not a reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.CallSite, the *invokedynamic* instruction throws a BootstrapMethodError.

Otherwise, during the continuing resolution of the call site specifier, if the type descriptor of the target of the call site object is not semantically equal to the method descriptor in the call site specifier, the *invokedynamic* instruction throws a BootstrapMethodError.

Run-time Exceptions

If this specific dynamic call site completed resolution of its call site specifier, it implies that a non-null reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.CallSite is bound to this dynamic call site.

Therefore, the operand stack item which represents a reference to the target of the call site object is never null. Similarly, it implies that the method descriptor in the call site specifier is semantically equal to the type descriptor of the method handle to be invoked as if by execution of an invokevirtual instruction.

These invariants mean that an invokedynamic instruction which is bound to a call site object never throws a NullPointerException Of a java.lang.invoke.WrongMethodTypeException.

invokeinterface

invokeinterface

Operation

Invoke interface method

Format

invokeinterface
indexbyte1
indexbyte2
count
0

Forms

invokeinterface = 185 (0xb9)

Operand

 $..., objectref, [arg1, [arg2 ...]] \rightarrow$

Stack

...

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to an interface method (§5.1), which gives the name and descriptor (§4.3.3) of the interface method as well as a symbolic reference to the interface in which the interface method is to be found. The named interface method is resolved (§5.4.3.4). The resolved interface method must not be an instance initialization method (§2.9) or the class or interface initialization method (§2.9).

The *count* operand is an unsigned byte that must not be zero. The *objectref* must be of type reference and must be followed on the operand stack by *nargs* argument values, where the number, type, and order of the values must be consistent with the descriptor of the resolved interface method. The value of the fourth operand byte must always be zero.

Let *c* be the class of *objectref*. The actual method to be invoked is selected by the following lookup procedure:

• If *c* contains a declaration for an instance method with the same name and descriptor as the resolved method, then this is the method to be invoked, and the lookup procedure terminates.

- Otherwise, if c has a superclass, this same lookup procedure is performed recursively using the direct superclass of c; the method to be invoked is the result of the recursive invocation of this lookup procedure.
- Otherwise, an AbstractMethodError is raised.

If the method is synchronized, the monitor associated with *objectref* is entered or reentered as if by execution of a *monitorenter* instruction (§*monitorenter*) in the current thread.

If the method is not native, the *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are popped from the operand stack. A new frame is created on the Java Virtual Machine stack for the method being invoked. The *objectref* and the argument values are consecutively made the values of local variables of the new frame, with *objectref* in local variable 0, *arg1* in local variable 1 (or, if *arg1* is of type long or double, in local variables 1 and 2), and so on. Any argument value that is of a floating-point type undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) prior to being stored in a local variable. The new frame is then made current, and the Java Virtual Machine pc is set to the opcode of the first instruction of the method.

If the method is native and the platform-dependent code that implements it has not yet been bound (§5.6) into the Java Virtual Machine, that is done. The *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are popped from the operand stack and are passed as parameters to the code that implements the method. Any argument value that is of a floating-point type undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) prior to being passed as a parameter. The parameters are passed and the code is invoked in an implementation-dependent manner. When the platform-dependent code returns:

- If the native method is synchronized, the monitor associated with *objectref* is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a *monitorexit* instruction (§*monitorexit*) in the current thread.
- If the native method returns a value, the return value of the platform-dependent code is converted in an implementationdependent way to the return type of the native method and pushed onto the operand stack.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the interface method, any of the exceptions pertaining to interface method resolution (§5.4.3.4) can be thrown.

Run-time Exceptions

Otherwise, if *objectref* is null, the *invokeinterface* instruction throws a NullPointerException.

Otherwise, if the class of *objectref* does not implement the resolved interface, *invokeinterface* throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

Otherwise, if no method matching the resolved name and descriptor is selected, *invokeinterface* throws an AbstractMethodError.

Otherwise, if the selected method is not public, *invokeinterface* throws an IllegalAccessError.

Otherwise, if the selected method is abstract, *invokeinterface* throws an AbstractMethodError.

Otherwise, if the selected method is native and the code that implements the method cannot be bound, *invokeinterface* throws an UnsatisfiedLinkError.

Notes

The *count* operand of the *invokeinterface* instruction records a measure of the number of argument values, where an argument value of type long or type double contributes two units to the *count* value and an argument of any other type contributes one unit. This information can also be derived from the descriptor of the selected method. The redundancy is historical.

The fourth operand byte exists to reserve space for an additional operand used in certain of Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementations, which replace the *invokeinterface* instruction by a specialized pseudo-instruction at run time. It must be retained for backwards compatibility.

The *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are not one-to-one with the first *nargs*+1 local variables. Argument values of types long and double must be stored in two consecutive local variables, thus more than *nargs* local variables may be required to pass *nargs* argument values to the invoked method.

invokespecial

invokespecial

Operation

Invoke instance method; special handling for superclass, private, and instance initialization method invocations

Format

invokespecial
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms

invokespecial = 183 (0xb7)

Operand

..., objectref, [arg1, [arg2 ...]] \rightarrow

Stack

...

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a method (§5.1), which gives the name and descriptor (§4.3.3) of the method as well as a symbolic reference to the class in which the method is to be found. The named method is resolved (§5.4.3.3). Finally, if the resolved method is protected (§4.6), and it is a member of a superclass of the current class, and the method is not declared in the same run-time package (§5.3) as the current class of *objectref* must be either the current class or a subclass of the current class.

Next, the resolved method is selected for invocation unless all of the following conditions are true:

- The ACC_SUPER flag (Table 4.1) is set for the current class.
- The class of the resolved method is a superclass of the current class.
- The resolved method is not an instance initialization method (§2.9).

If the above conditions are true, the actual method to be invoked is selected by the following lookup procedure. Let *c* be the direct superclass of the current class:

- If *c* contains a declaration for an instance method with the same name and descriptor as the resolved method, then this method will be invoked. The lookup procedure terminates.
- Otherwise, if c has a superclass, this same lookup procedure is performed recursively using the direct superclass of c. The method to be invoked is the result of the recursive invocation of this lookup procedure.
- Otherwise, an AbstractMethodError is raised.

The *objectref* must be of type reference and must be followed on the operand stack by *nargs* argument values, where the number, type, and order of the values must be consistent with the descriptor of the selected instance method.

If the method is synchronized, the monitor associated with *objectref* is entered or reentered as if by execution of a *monitorenter* instruction (§*monitorenter*) in the current thread.

If the method is not native, the *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are popped from the operand stack. A new frame is created on the Java Virtual Machine stack for the method being invoked. The *objectref* and the argument values are consecutively made the values of local variables of the new frame, with *objectref* in local variable 0, *arg1* in local variable 1 (or, if *arg1* is of type long or double, in local variables 1 and 2), and so on. Any argument value that is of a floating-point type undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) prior to being stored in a local variable. The new frame is then made current, and the Java Virtual Machine pc is set to the opcode of the first instruction of the method to be invoked. Execution continues with the first instruction of the method.

If the method is native and the platform-dependent code that implements it has not yet been bound (§5.6) into the Java Virtual Machine, that is done. The *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are popped from the operand stack and are passed as parameters to the code that implements the method. Any argument value that is of a floating-point type undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) prior

to being passed as a parameter. The parameters are passed and the code is invoked in an implementation-dependent manner. When the platform-dependent code returns, the following take place:

- If the native method is synchronized, the monitor associated with *objectref* is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a *monitorexit* instruction (§*monitorexit*) in the current thread.
- If the native method returns a value, the return value of the platform-dependent code is converted in an implementationdependent way to the return type of the native method and pushed onto the operand stack.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the method, any of the exceptions pertaining to method resolution (§5.4.3.3) can be thrown.

Otherwise, if the resolved method is an instance initialization method, and the class in which it is declared is not the class symbolically referenced by the instruction, a NoSuchMethodError is thrown.

Otherwise, if the resolved method is a class (static) method, the *invokespecial* instruction throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

Run-time Exceptions

Otherwise, if *objectref* is null, the *invokespecial* instruction throws a NullPointerException.

Otherwise, if no method matching the resolved name and descriptor is selected, *invokespecial* throws an AbstractMethodError.

Otherwise, if the selected method is abstract, *invokespecial* throws an AbstractMethodError.

Otherwise, if the selected method is native and the code that implements the method cannot be bound, *invokespecial* throws an UnsatisfiedLinkError.

Notes

The difference between the *invokespecial* instruction and the *invokevirtual* instruction (§*invokevirtual*) is that *invokevirtual* invokes a method based on the class of the object. The *invokespecial* instruction is used to invoke instance initialization

methods (§2.9) as well as private methods and methods of a superclass of the current class.

The *invokespecial* instruction was named invokenonvirtual prior to JDK release 1.0.2.

The *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are not one-to-one with the first *nargs*+1 local variables. Argument values of types long and double must be stored in two consecutive local variables, thus more than *nargs* local variables may be required to pass *nargs* argument values to the invoked method.

invokestatic

invokestatic

Operation	Invo	ke a c	lass ((static)) method	l
-----------	------	--------	--------	----------	----------	---

Format

invokestatic
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms invokestatic = 184 (0xb8)

Operand ..., $[arg1, [arg2 ...]] \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a method (§5.1), which gives the name and descriptor (§4.3.3) of the method as well as a symbolic reference to the class in which the method is to be found. The named method is resolved (§5.4.3.3). The resolved method must not be an instance initialization method (§2.9) or the class or interface initialization method (§2.9). It must be static, and therefore cannot be abstract.

On successful resolution of the method, the class that declared the resolved method is initialized (§5.5) if that class has not already been initialized.

The operand stack must contain *nargs* argument values, where the number, type, and order of the values must be consistent with the descriptor of the resolved method.

If the method is synchronized, the monitor associated with the resolved Class object is entered or reentered as if by execution of a *monitorenter* instruction (§*monitorenter*) in the current thread.

If the method is not native, the *nargs* argument values are popped from the operand stack. A new frame is created on the Java Virtual Machine stack for the method being invoked. The *nargs* argument

values are consecutively made the values of local variables of the new frame, with arg1 in local variable 0 (or, if arg1 is of type long or double, in local variables 0 and 1) and so on. Any argument value that is of a floating-point type undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) prior to being stored in a local variable. The new frame is then made current, and the Java Virtual Machine pc is set to the opcode of the first instruction of the method to be invoked. Execution continues with the first instruction of the method.

If the method is native and the platform-dependent code that implements it has not yet been bound (§5.6) into the Java Virtual Machine, that is done. The *nargs* argument values are popped from the operand stack and are passed as parameters to the code that implements the method. Any argument value that is of a floating-point type undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) prior to being passed as a parameter. The parameters are passed and the code is invoked in an implementation-dependent manner. When the platform-dependent code returns, the following take place:

- If the native method is synchronized, the monitor associated with the resolved Class object is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a *monitorexit* instruction (§*monitorexit*) in the current thread.
- If the native method returns a value, the return value of the platform-dependent code is converted in an implementation-dependent way to the return type of the native method and pushed onto the operand stack.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the method, any of the exceptions pertaining to method resolution (§5.4.3.3) can be thrown.

Otherwise, if the resolved method is an instance method, the *invokestatic* instruction throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

Run-time Exceptions

Otherwise, if execution of this *invokestatic* instruction causes initialization of the referenced class, *invokestatic* may throw an Error as detailed in §5.5.

Otherwise, if the resolved method is native and the code that implements the method cannot be bound, invokestatic throws an UnsatisfiedLinkError.

Notes

The *nargs* argument values are not one-to-one with the first *nargs* local variables. Argument values of types long and double must be stored in two consecutive local variables, thus more than nargs local variables may be required to pass nargs argument values to the invoked method.

invokevirtual

invokevirtual

Operation Invoke instance method; dispatch based on class

Format

invokevirtual
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms invokevirtual = 182 (0xb6)

Operand ..., objectref, $[arg1, [arg2 ...]] \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a method (§5.1), which gives the name and descriptor (§4.3.3) of the method as well as a symbolic reference to the class in which the method is to be found. The named method is resolved (§5.4.3.3). The resolved method must not be an instance initialization method (§2.9) or the class or interface initialization method (§2.9). Finally, if the resolved method is protected (§4.6), and it is a member of a superclass of the current class, and the method is not declared in the same run-time package (§5.3) as the current class, then the class of *objectref* must be either the current class or a subclass of the current class.

If the resolved method is not signature polymorphic (§2.9), then the invokevirtual instruction proceeds as follows.

Let *c* be the class of *objectref*. The actual method to be invoked is selected by the following lookup procedure:

- If *c* contains a declaration for an instance method *m* that overrides (§5.4.5) the resolved method, then *m* is the method to be invoked, and the lookup procedure terminates.
- Otherwise, if c has a superclass, this same lookup procedure is performed recursively using the direct superclass of c; the

method to be invoked is the result of the recursive invocation of this lookup procedure.

• Otherwise, an AbstractMethodError is raised.

The *objectref* must be followed on the operand stack by *nargs* argument values, where the number, type, and order of the values must be consistent with the descriptor of the selected instance method.

If the method is synchronized, the monitor associated with *objectref* is entered or reentered as if by execution of a *monitorenter* instruction (§*monitorenter*) in the current thread.

If the method is not native, the *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are popped from the operand stack. A new frame is created on the Java Virtual Machine stack for the method being invoked. The *objectref* and the argument values are consecutively made the values of local variables of the new frame, with *objectref* in local variable 0, *arg1* in local variable 1 (or, if *arg1* is of type long or double, in local variables 1 and 2), and so on. Any argument value that is of a floating-point type undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) prior to being stored in a local variable. The new frame is then made current, and the Java Virtual Machine pc is set to the opcode of the first instruction of the method to be invoked. Execution continues with the first instruction of the method.

If the method is native and the platform-dependent code that implements it has not yet been bound (§5.6) into the Java Virtual Machine, that is done. The *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are popped from the operand stack and are passed as parameters to the code that implements the method. Any argument value that is of a floating-point type undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3) prior to being passed as a parameter. The parameters are passed and the code is invoked in an implementation-dependent manner. When the platform-dependent code returns, the following take place:

- If the native method is synchronized, the monitor associated with *objectref* is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a *monitorexit* instruction (§*monitorexit*) in the current thread.
- If the native method returns a value, the return value of the platform-dependent code is converted in an implementation-

dependent way to the return type of the native method and pushed onto the operand stack.

If the resolved method is signature polymorphic (§2.9), then the invokevirtual instruction proceeds as follows.

First, a reference to an instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType is obtained as if by resolution of a symbolic reference to a method type (§5.4.3.5) with the same parameter and return types as the descriptor of the method referenced by the *invokevirtual* instruction.

- If the named method is invokeExact, the instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType must be semantically equal to the type descriptor of the receiving method handle *objectref*. The *method handle to be invoked* is *objectref*.
- If the named method is invoke, and the instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType is semantically equal to the type descriptor of the receiving method handle *objectref*, then the *method handle to be invoked* is *objectref*.
- If the named method is invoke, and the instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType is not semantically equal to the type descriptor of the receiving method handle *objectref*, then the Java Virtual Machine attempts to adjust the type descriptor of the receiving method handle, as if by a call to java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle.asType, to obtain an exactly invokable method handle m. The method handle to be invoked is m.

The *objectref* must be followed on the operand stack by *nargs* argument values, where the number, type, and order of the values must be consistent with the type descriptor of the method handle to be invoked. (This type descriptor will correspond to the method descriptor appropriate for the kind of the method handle to be invoked, as specified in §5.4.3.5.)

Then, if the method handle to be invoked has bytecode behavior, the Java Virtual Machine invokes the method handle as if by execution of the bytecode behavior associated with the method handle's kind. If the kind is 5 (REF_invokeVirtual), 6 (REF_invokeStatic), 7 (REF_invokeSpecial), 8 (REF_newInvokeSpecial), or 9

(REF_invokeInterface), then a frame will be created and made current *in the course of executing the bytecode behavior*; when the method invoked by the bytecode behavior completes (normally or abruptly), the *frame of its invoker* is considered to be the frame for the method containing this *invokevirtual* instruction.

The frame in which the bytecode behavior itself executes is not visible.

Otherwise, if the method handle to be invoked has no bytecode behavior, the Java Virtual Machine invokes it in an implementation-dependent manner.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the method, any of the exceptions pertaining to method resolution (§5.4.3.3) can be thrown.

Otherwise, if the resolved method is a class (static) method, the *invokevirtual* instruction throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

Otherwise, if the resolved method is signature polymorphic, then during resolution of the method type derived from the descriptor in the symbolic reference to the method, any of the exceptions pertaining to method type resolution (§5.4.3.5) can be thrown.

Run-time Exceptions

Otherwise, if *objectref* is null, the *invokevirtual* instruction throws a NullPointerException.

Otherwise, if the resolved method is not signature polymorphic:

- If no method matching the resolved name and descriptor is selected, *invokevirtual* throws an AbstractMethodError.
- Otherwise, if the selected method is abstract, *invokevirtual* throws an AbstractMethodError.
- Otherwise, if the selected method is native and the code that implements the method cannot be bound, *invokevirtual* throws an UnsatisfiedLinkError.

Otherwise, if the resolved method is signature polymorphic, then:

• If the method name is invokeExact, and the obtained instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType is not semantically equal to the type descriptor of the receiving

method handle, the *invokevirtual* instruction throws a java.lang.invoke.WrongMethodTypeException.

• If the method name is invoke, and the obtained instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType is not a valid argument to the java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle.asType method invoked on the receiving method handle, the *invokevirtual* instruction throws a java.lang.invoke.WrongMethodTypeException.

Notes

The *nargs* argument values and *objectref* are not one-to-one with the first *nargs*+1 local variables. Argument values of types long and double must be stored in two consecutive local variables, thus more than *nargs* local variables may be required to pass *nargs* argument values to the invoked method.

ior

Operation Boolean OR int

Format ior

Forms ior = 128 (0x80)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

 $\textbf{Description} \qquad \text{Both } value 1 \text{ and } value 2 \text{ must be of type int. They are popped from}$

the operand stack. An int *result* is calculated by taking the bitwise inclusive OR of *value1* and *value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the

operand stack.

irem irem

Operation Remainder int

Format irem

Forms irem = 112 (0x70)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. The values are popped from the operand stack. The int *result* is *value1* - (*value1* / *value2*)

* *value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result of the *irem* instruction is such that (a/b)*b + (a*b) is equal to a. This identity holds even in the special case in which the dividend is the negative int of largest possible magnitude for its type and the divisor is -1 (the remainder is 0). It follows from this rule that the result of the remainder operation can be negative only if the dividend is negative and can be positive only if the dividend is positive. Moreover, the magnitude of the result is always less than the magnitude of the divisor.

Run-time Exception

If the value of the divisor for an int remainder operator is 0, *irem*

throws an ArithmeticException.

ireturn ireturn

Return int from method **Operation**

Format ireturn

ireturn = 172 (0xac)**Forms**

Operand ..., value \rightarrow Stack [empty]

Description

The current method must have return type boolean, byte, short, char, or int. The *value* must be of type int. If the current method is a synchronized method, the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a monitorexit instruction (\section monitorexit) in the current thread. If no exception is thrown, value is popped from the operand stack of the current frame (§2.6) and pushed onto the operand stack of the frame of the invoker. Any other values on the operand stack of the current method are discarded.

The interpreter then returns control to the invoker of the method, reinstating the frame of the invoker.

Run-time **Exceptions**

If the Java Virtual Machine implementation does not enforce the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10, then if the current method is a synchronized method and the current thread is not the owner of the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method, ireturn throws an IllegalMonitorStateException. This can happen, for example, if a synchronized method contains a monitorexit instruction, but no monitorenter instruction, on the object on which the method is synchronized.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation enforces the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10 and if the first of those rules is violated during invocation of the current method, then ireturn throws an IllegalMonitorStateException.

ishl

Operation Shift left int

Format ishl

Forms ishl = 120 (0x78)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. The values are popped

from the operand stack. An int *result* is calculated by shifting *value1* left by *s* bit positions, where *s* is the value of the low 5 bits

of *value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes This is equivalent (even if overflow occurs) to multiplication by

2 to the power s. The shift distance actually used is always in the range 0 to 31, inclusive, as if value2 were subjected to a bitwise

logical AND with the mask value 0x1f.

ishr ishr

Arithmetic shift right int **Operation**

Format ishr

Forms ishr = 122 (0x7a)

..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$ **Operand**

Stack ..., result

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. The values are popped **Description**

from the operand stack. An int result is calculated by shifting value1 right by s bit positions, with sign extension, where s is the value of the low 5 bits of value2. The result is pushed onto the

operand stack.

The resulting value is $|value1/2^s|$, where s is value 2 & 0x1f. For **Notes**

non-negative value1, this is equivalent to truncating int division by 2 to the power s. The shift distance actually used is always in the range 0 to 31, inclusive, as if value2 were subjected to a bitwise

logical AND with the mask value 0x1f.

istore istore

Operation Store int into local variable

Format

istore	
index	

Forms istore = 54 (0x36)

Operand ..., $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description

The *index* is an unsigned byte that must be an index into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type int. It is popped from the operand stack, and the value of the local variable at *index* is set

to value.

Notes The *istore* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide*

instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte

unsigned index.

istore_<n> istore $\langle n \rangle$

Operation Store int into local variable

Format *istore_*<*n*>

Forms *istore* 0 = 59 (0x3b)

 $istore_1 = 60 (0x3c)$

 $istore_2 = 61 (0x3d)$

istore 3 = 62 (0x3e)

..., value → **Operand**

Stack

The <n> must be an index into the local variable array of the **Description**

> current frame (§2.6). The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type int. It is popped from the operand stack, and the

value of the local variable at $\langle n \rangle$ is set to *value*.

Each of the *istore_<n>* instructions is the same as *istore* with an Notes

index of $\langle n \rangle$, except that the operand $\langle n \rangle$ is implicit.

isub

Operation Subtract int

Format isub

Forms isub = 100 (0x64)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. The values are popped from the operand stack. The int *result* is *value1* - *value2*. The

result is pushed onto the operand stack.

For int subtraction, a-b produces the same result as a+(-b). For int values, subtraction from zero is the same as negation.

The result is the 32 low-order bits of the true mathematical result in a sufficiently wide two's-complement format, represented as a value of type int. If overflow occurs, then the sign of the result may not be the same as the sign of the mathematical difference of the two values.

Despite the fact that overflow may occur, execution of an *isub* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

iushr iushr

Operation Logical shift right int

Format iushr

Forms iushr = 124 (0x7c)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type int. The values are popped

from the operand stack. An int *result* is calculated by shifting *value1* right by *s* bit positions, with zero extension, where *s* is the value of the low 5 bits of *value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the

operand stack.

Notes If *value1* is positive and *s* is *value2* & 0x1f, the result is the same

as that of value1 >> s; if value1 is negative, the result is equal to the value of the expression $(value1 >> s) + (2 << \sim s)$. The addition of the $(2 << \sim s)$ term cancels out the propagated sign bit. The shift

distance actually used is always in the range 0 to 31, inclusive.

ixor ixor

Operation Boolean XOR int

Format ixor

Forms ixor = 130 (0x82)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

 $\textbf{Description} \qquad \text{Both } value 1 \text{ and } value 2 \text{ must be of type int. They are popped from}$

the operand stack. An int *result* is calculated by taking the bitwise exclusive OR of *value1* and *value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the

operand stack.

jsr jsr

Jump subroutine **Operation**

Format

jsr
branchbyte1
branchbyte2

jsr = 168 (0xa8)**Forms**

Operand

Stack ..., address

Description

The address of the opcode of the instruction immediately following this jsr instruction is pushed onto the operand stack as a value of type returnAddress. The unsigned branchbytel and branchbyte2 are used to construct a signed 16-bit offset, where the offset is (*branchbyte1* << 8) | *branchbyte2*. Execution proceeds at that offset from the address of this jsr instruction. The target address must be that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this *jsr* instruction.

Notes

Note that jsr pushes the address onto the operand stack and ret ($\S ret$) gets it out of a local variable. This asymmetry is intentional.

In Oracle's implementation of a compiler for the Java programming language prior to Java SE 6, the *jsr* instruction was used with the ret instruction in the implementation of the finally clause (§3.13, §4.10.2.5).

jsr_w jsr_w

Operation

Jump subroutine (wide index)

Format

jsr_w
branchbyte1
branchbyte2
branchbyte3
branchbyte4

Forms

 $jsr_w = 201 (0xc9)$

Operand

.. →

Stack

..., address

Description

The *address* of the opcode of the instruction immediately following this jsr_w instruction is pushed onto the operand stack as a value of type returnAddress. The unsigned *branchbyte1*, *branchbyte2*, *branchbyte3*, and *branchbyte4* are used to construct a signed 32-bit offset, where the offset is (*branchbyte1* << 24) | (*branchbyte2* << 16) | (*branchbyte3* << 8) | *branchbyte4*. Execution proceeds at that offset from the address of this jsr_w instruction. The target address must be that of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this jsr_w instruction.

Notes

Note that *jsr_w* pushes the address onto the operand stack and *ret* (§*ret*) gets it out of a local variable. This asymmetry is intentional.

In Oracle's implementation of a compiler for the Java programming language prior to Java SE 6, the *jsr_w* instruction was used with the *ret* instruction in the implementation of the finally clause (§3.13, §4.10.2.5).

Although the *jsr_w* instruction takes a 4-byte branch offset, other factors limit the size of a method to 65535 bytes (§4.11). This limit may be raised in a future release of the Java Virtual Machine.

l2d

l2d

Operation Convert long to double

Format

l2d

Forms

l2d = 138 (0x8a)

Operand

..., $value \rightarrow$

Stack

..., result

Description

The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type long. It is popped from the operand stack and converted to a double *result* using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes

The *l2d* instruction performs a widening primitive conversion (JLS §5.1.2) that may lose precision because values of type double have only 53 significand bits.

l2f

Operation Convert long to float

Format 12f

Forms l2f = 137 (0x89)

Operand ..., value → **Stack** ..., result

Description The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type long. It

is popped from the operand stack and converted to a float *result* using IEEE 754 round to nearest mode. The *result* is pushed onto

the operand stack.

Notes The *l2f* instruction performs a widening primitive conversion (JLS

§5.1.2) that may lose precision because values of type float have

only 24 significand bits.

l2i

l2i

Operation Convert long to int

Format 12i

Forms l2i = 136 (0x88)

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

Description The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type long. It

is popped from the operand stack and converted to an int *result* by taking the low-order 32 bits of the long value and discarding the high-order 32 bits. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes The *l2i* instruction performs a narrowing primitive conversion

(JLS §5.1.3). It may lose information about the overall magnitude of *value*. The *result* may also not have the same sign as value.

ladd ladd

Operation Add long

Format ladd

Forms ladd = 97 (0x61)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type long. The values are popped from the operand stack. The long *result* is *value1* + *value2*.

The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result is the 64 low-order bits of the true mathematical result in a sufficiently wide two's-complement format, represented as a value of type long. If overflow occurs, the sign of the result may not be the same as the sign of the mathematical sum of the two values.

Despite the fact that overflow may occur, execution of an *ladd* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

laload laload

Load long from array **Operation**

Format laload

Forms laload = 47 (0x2f)

..., arrayref, index \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack ..., value

The arrayref must be of type reference and must refer to an array **Description**

whose components are of type long. The *index* must be of type int. Both *arrayref* and *index* are popped from the operand stack. The long *value* in the component of the array at *index* is retrieved

and pushed onto the operand stack.

If arrayref is null, laload throws a NullPointerException. **Run-time**

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the laload instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

land land

Operation Boolean AND long

Format land

Forms land = 127 (0x7f)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type long. They are popped

from the operand stack. A long *result* is calculated by taking the bitwise AND of *value1* and *value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the

operand stack.

lastore lastore

Operation Store into long array

Format lastore

Forms lastore = 80 (0x50)

Operand ..., arrayref, index, $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type long. The *index* must be of type int, and *value* must be of type long. The *arrayref*, *index*, and *value* are popped from the operand stack. The long *value* is stored as the

component of the array indexed by index.

Run-time If arrayref is null, lastore throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by *arrayref*, the *lastore* instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

lcmp lcmp

Operation Compare long

Format *lcmp*

Forms lcmp = 148 (0x94)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type long. They are both

popped from the operand stack, and a signed integer comparison is performed. If *value1* is greater than *value2*, the int value 1 is pushed onto the operand stack. If *value1* is equal to *value2*, the int value 0 is pushed onto the operand stack. If *value1* is less than

*value*2, the int value -1 is pushed onto the operand stack.

lconst_<l>

Operation Push long constant

Format | lconst_<l>

Forms $lconst_0 = 9 (0x9)$

 $lconst_1 = 10 (0xa)$

Operand $\dots \rightarrow$

Stack ..., <*l*>

Description Push the long constant < l> (0 or 1) onto the operand stack.

ldc ldc

Operation Push item from run-time constant pool

Format

ldc index

Forms

ldc = 18 (0x12)

Operand

... →

Stack

..., value

Description

The *index* is an unsigned byte that must be a valid index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6). The run-time constant pool entry at *index* either must be a run-time constant of type int or float, or a reference to a string literal, or a symbolic reference to a class, method type, or method handle (§5.1).

If the run-time constant pool entry is a run-time constant of type int or float, the numeric *value* of that run-time constant is pushed onto the operand stack as an int or float, respectively.

Otherwise, if the run-time constant pool entry is a reference to an instance of class String representing a string literal (§5.1), then a reference to that instance, *value*, is pushed onto the operand stack.

Otherwise, if the run-time constant pool entry is a symbolic reference to a class (§5.1), then the named class is resolved (§5.4.3.1) and a reference to the Class object representing that class, *value*, is pushed onto the operand stack.

Otherwise, the run-time constant pool entry must be a symbolic reference to a method type or a method handle (§5.1). The method type or method handle is resolved (§5.4.3.5) and a reference to the resulting instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType or java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle, *value*, is pushed onto the operand stack.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of a symbolic reference to a class, any of the exceptions pertaining to class resolution (§5.4.3.1) can be thrown.

During resolution of a symbolic reference to a method type or method handle, any of the exception pertaining to method type or method handle resolution (§5.4.3.5) can be thrown.

Notes

The *ldc* instruction can only be used to push a value of type float taken from the float value set (§2.3.2) because a constant of type float in the constant pool (§4.4.4) must be taken from the float value set.

 ldc_w ldc_w

Operation Push item from run-time constant pool (wide index)

Format

ldc_w
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms $ldc_w = 19 (0x13)$

Operand ... →

Stack ..., value

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are assembled into an unsigned 16-bit index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is calculated as (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The index must be a valid index into the run-time constant pool of the current class. The run-time constant pool entry at the index either must be a run-time constant of type int or float, or a reference to a string literal, or a symbolic reference to a class, method type, or method handle (§5.1).

If the run-time constant pool entry is a run-time constant of type int or float, the numeric *value* of that run-time constant is pushed onto the operand stack as an int or float, respectively.

Otherwise, if the run-time constant pool entry is a reference to an instance of class String representing a string literal (§5.1), then a reference to that instance, *value*, is pushed onto the operand stack.

Otherwise, if the run-time constant pool entry is a symbolic reference to a class (§4.4.1). The named class is resolved (§5.4.3.1) and a reference to the Class object representing that class, *value*, is pushed onto the operand stack.

Otherwise, the run-time constant pool entry must be a symbolic reference to a method type or a method handle (§5.1). The method type or method handle is resolved (§5.4.3.5) and a reference

to the resulting instance of java.lang.invoke.MethodType or java.lang.invoke.MethodHandle, *value*, is pushed onto the operand stack.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to a class, any of the exceptions pertaining to class resolution (§5.4.3.1) can be thrown.

During resolution of a symbolic reference to a method type or method handle, any of the exception pertaining to method type or method handle resolution (§5.4.3.5) can be thrown.

Notes

The ldc_w instruction is identical to the ldc instruction ($\S ldc$) except for its wider run-time constant pool index.

The ldc_w instruction can only be used to push a value of type float taken from the float value set (§2.3.2) because a constant of type float in the constant pool (§4.4.4) must be taken from the float value set.

 $ldc2_w$ $ldc2_w$

Operation Push long or double from run-time constant pool (wide index)

Format

ldc2_w
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms $ldc2_w = 20 (0x14)$

Operand ... →

Stack ..., value

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are assembled into an unsigned 16-bit index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is calculated as (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The index must be a valid index into the run-time constant pool of the current class. The run-time constant pool entry at the index must be a run-time constant of type long or double (§5.1). The numeric *value* of that run-time constant is pushed onto the operand stack as a long or double, respectively.

Notes

Only a wide-index version of the $ldc2_w$ instruction exists; there is no ldc2 instruction that pushes a long or double with a single-byte index.

The *ldc2_w* instruction can only be used to push a value of type double taken from the double value set (§2.3.2) because a constant of type double in the constant pool (§4.4.5) must be taken from the double value set.

6.5

ldiv ldiv

Divide long **Operation**

Format ldiv

ldiv = 109 (0x6d)**Forms**

..., value1, value2 \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack ..., result

Description

Both value1 and value2 must be of type long. The values are popped from the operand stack. The long result is the value of the Java programming language expression value1 / value2. The result is pushed onto the operand stack.

A long division rounds towards 0; that is, the quotient produced for long values in n / d is a long value q whose magnitude is as large as possible while satisfying $|d \cdot q| \le |n|$. Moreover, q is positive when $|n| \ge |d|$ and n and d have the same sign, but q is negative when $|n| \ge |d|$ and n and d have opposite signs.

There is one special case that does not satisfy this rule: if the dividend is the negative integer of largest possible magnitude for the long type and the divisor is -1, then overflow occurs and the result is equal to the dividend; despite the overflow, no exception is thrown in this case.

Run-time **Exception** If the value of the divisor in a long division is 0, *ldiv* throws an ArithmeticException.

lload lload

Operation Load long from local variable

Format

lload index

Forms lload = 22 (0x16)

Operand $\dots \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Description The *index* is an unsigned byte. Both *index* and *index*+1 must be

indices into the local variable array of the current frame ($\S2.6$). The local variable at *index* must contain a long. The *value* of the

local variable at *index* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes The *lload* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide*

instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte

unsigned index.

lload_<n> lload_<n>

Operation Load long from local variable

Format *lload_<n>*

Forms $lload_0 = 30 (0x1e)$

 $lload_1 = 31 (0x1f)$

 $lload_2 = 32 (0x20)$

 $lload_3 = 33 (0x21)$

Operand ... →

Stack ..., value

Description Both $\langle n \rangle$ and $\langle n \rangle + 1$ must be indices into the local variable array

of the current frame ($\S 2.6$). The local variable at < n > must contain a long. The *value* of the local variable at < n > is pushed onto the

operand stack.

Notes Each of the *lload_*<*n*> instructions is the same as *lload* with an

index of $\langle n \rangle$, except that the operand $\langle n \rangle$ is implicit.

lmul lmul

Operation Multiply long

Format lmul

Forms lmul = 105 (0x69)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description

Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type long. The values are popped from the operand stack. The long *result* is *value1* value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result is the 64 low-order bits of the true mathematical result in a sufficiently wide two's-complement format, represented as a value of type long. If overflow occurs, the sign of the result may not be the same as the sign of the mathematical sum of the two values.

Despite the fact that overflow may occur, execution of an *lmul* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

lneg lneg

Operation Negate long

Format lneg

Forms lneg = 117 (0x75)

Operand ..., value → Stack ..., result

Description

The *value* must be of type long. It is popped from the operand stack. The long *result* is the arithmetic negation of *value*, *-value*. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

For long values, negation is the same as subtraction from zero. Because the Java Virtual Machine uses two's-complement representation for integers and the range of two's-complement values is not symmetric, the negation of the maximum negative long results in that same maximum negative number. Despite the fact that overflow has occurred, no exception is thrown.

For all long values x, -x equals $(\sim x)+1$.

lookupswitch

lookupswitch

Operation

Access jump table by key match and jump

Format

lookupswitch
<0-3 byte pad>
defaultbyte1
defaultbyte2
defaultbyte3
defaultbyte4
npairs1
npairs2
npairs3
npairs4
match-offset pairs

Forms lookupswitch = 171 (0xab)

Operand ...

..., key →

Stack

...

Description

A *lookupswitch* is a variable-length instruction. Immediately after the *lookupswitch* opcode, between zero and three bytes must act as padding, such that *defaultbyte1* begins at an address that is a multiple of four bytes from the start of the current method (the opcode of its first instruction). Immediately after the padding follow a series of signed 32-bit values: *default*, *npairs*, and then *npairs* pairs of signed 32-bit values. The *npairs* must be greater than or equal to 0. Each of the *npairs* pairs consists of an int *match* and a signed 32-bit *offset*. Each of these signed 32-bit values is constructed from four unsigned bytes as (*byte1* << 24) | (*byte2* << 16) | (*byte3* << 8) | *byte4*.

The table *match-offset* pairs of the *lookupswitch* instruction must be sorted in increasing numerical order by *match*.

The key must be of type int and is popped from the operand stack. The key is compared against the match values. If it is equal to one of them, then a target address is calculated by adding the corresponding offset to the address of the opcode of this lookupswitch instruction. If the key does not match any of the match values, the target address is calculated by adding default to the address of the opcode of this lookupswitch instruction. Execution then continues at the target address.

The target address that can be calculated from the offset of each match-offset pair, as well as the one calculated from default, must be the address of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this lookupswitch instruction.

Notes

The alignment required of the 4-byte operands of the *lookupswitch* instruction guarantees 4-byte alignment of those operands if and only if the method that contains the *lookupswitch* is positioned on a 4-byte boundary.

The *match-offset* pairs are sorted to support lookup routines that are quicker than linear search.

lor lor

Operation Boolean OR long

Format lor

Forms lor = 129 (0x81)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type long. They are popped

from the operand stack. A long *result* is calculated by taking the bitwise inclusive OR of *value1* and *value2*. The *result* is pushed

onto the operand stack.

lrem lrem

Operation Remainder long

Format lrem

Forms lrem = 113 (0x71)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type long. The values are popped from the operand stack. The long *result* is *value1* - (*value1*

/ value2) * value2. The result is pushed onto the operand stack.

The result of the *lrem* instruction is such that (a/b)*b + (a%b) is equal to a. This identity holds even in the special case in which the dividend is the negative long of largest possible magnitude for its type and the divisor is -1 (the remainder is 0). It follows from this rule that the result of the remainder operation can be negative only if the dividend is negative and can be positive only if the dividend is positive; moreover, the magnitude of the result is always less than the magnitude of the divisor.

Run-time Exception

If the value of the divisor for a long remainder operator is 0, lrem

throws an ArithmeticException.

lreturn lreturn

Operation Return long from method

Format *lreturn*

Forms lreturn = 173 (0xad)

Operand ..., value →
Stack [empty]

Description

The current method must have return type long. The *value* must be of type long. If the current method is a synchronized method, the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a *monitorexit* instruction (§*monitorexit*) in the current thread. If no exception is thrown, *value* is popped from the operand stack of the current frame (§2.6) and pushed onto the operand stack of the frame of the invoker. Any other values on the operand stack of the current method are discarded.

The interpreter then returns control to the invoker of the method, reinstating the frame of the invoker.

Run-time Exceptions

If the Java Virtual Machine implementation does not enforce the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10, then if the current method is a synchronized method and the current thread is not the owner of the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method, *Ireturn* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException. This can happen, for example, if a synchronized method contains a *monitorexit* instruction, but no *monitorenter* instruction, on the object on which the method is synchronized.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation enforces the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10 and if the first of those rules is violated during invocation of the current method, then *lreturn* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException.

6.5

lshl lshl

Shift left long **Operation**

Format lshl

Forms lshl = 121 (0x79)

..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$ **Operand**

Stack ..., result

The *value1* must be of type long, and *value2* must be of type int. **Description**

The values are popped from the operand stack. A long result is calculated by shifting *value1* left by *s* bit positions, where *s* is the low 6 bits of *value2*. The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes This is equivalent (even if overflow occurs) to multiplication by 2

> to the power s. The shift distance actually used is therefore always in the range 0 to 63, inclusive, as if value2 were subjected to a

bitwise logical AND with the mask value 0x3f.

lshr

Operation Arithmetic shift right long

Format *lshr*

Forms lshr = 123 (0x7b)

Operand ..., value1, $value2 \rightarrow$

Stack ..., result

Description The *value1* must be of type long, and *value2* must be of type int.

The values are popped from the operand stack. A long *result* is calculated by shifting value1 right by s bit positions, with sign extension, where s is the value of the low 6 bits of value2. The

result is pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes The resulting value is $\lfloor value 1/2^s \rfloor$, where s is value 2 & 0x3f. For

non-negative *value1*, this is equivalent to truncating long division by 2 to the power s. The shift distance actually used is therefore always in the range 0 to 63, inclusive, as if *value2* were subjected

to a bitwise logical AND with the mask value 0x3f.

lstore lstore

Operation Store long into local variable

Format *lstore*

index

Forms lstore = 55 (0x37)

Operand ..., value →

Stack ...

Description The *index* is an unsigned byte. Both *index* and *index*+1 must be

indices into the local variable array of the current frame (§2.6). The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type long. It is popped from the operand stack, and the local variables at *index*

and *index*+1 are set to *value*.

Notes The *lstore* opcode can be used in conjunction with the *wide*

instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte

unsigned index.

lstore_<n> lstore_<n>

Operation Store long into local variable

Format | lstore_<n>

Forms $lstore_0 = 63 (0x3f)$

 $lstore_1 = 64 (0x40)$

 $lstore_2 = 65 (0x41)$

lstore 3 = 66 (0x42)

Operand ..., $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description Both $\langle n \rangle$ and $\langle n \rangle + 1$ must be indices into the local variable array

of the current frame (§2.6). The *value* on the top of the operand stack must be of type long. It is popped from the operand stack,

and the local variables at < n > and < n >+1 are set to *value*.

Notes Each of the *lstore_<n>* instructions is the same as *lstore* with an

index of $\langle n \rangle$, except that the operand $\langle n \rangle$ is implicit.

lsub

Operation Subtract long

Format lsub

Forms lsub = 101 (0x65)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type long. The values are popped from the operand stack. The long *result* is *value1* - *value2*.

The *result* is pushed onto the operand stack.

For long subtraction, a-b produces the same result as a+(-b). For long values, subtraction from zero is the same as negation.

The result is the 64 low-order bits of the true mathematical result in a sufficiently wide two's-complement format, represented as a value of type long. If overflow occurs, then the sign of the result may not be the same as the sign of the mathematical sum of the two values.

Despite the fact that overflow may occur, execution of an *lsub* instruction never throws a run-time exception.

lushr lushr

Operation Logical shift right long

Format *lushr*

Forms lushr = 125 (0x7d)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description The *value1* must be of type long, and *value2* must be of type int.

The values are popped from the operand stack. A long *result* is calculated by shifting *value1* right logically (with zero extension) by the amount indicated by the low 6 bits of *value2*. The *result* is

pushed onto the operand stack.

Notes If *value1* is positive and *s* is *value2* & 0x3f, the result is the same

as that of value1 >> s; if value1 is negative, the result is equal to the value of the expression $(value1 >> s) + (2L << \sim s)$. The addition of the $(2L << \sim s)$ term cancels out the propagated sign bit. The shift

distance actually used is always in the range 0 to 63, inclusive.

lxor

Operation Boolean XOR long

Format lxor

Forms lxor = 131 (0x83)

Operand ..., value1, value2 →

Stack ..., result

Description Both *value1* and *value2* must be of type long. They are popped

from the operand stack. A long *result* is calculated by taking the bitwise exclusive OR of *value1* and *value2*. The *result* is pushed

onto the operand stack.

monitorenter

monitorenter

Operation Enter monitor for object

Format

monitorenter

Forms

monitorenter = 194 (0xc2)

Operand

..., objectref →

Stack

...

Description

The *objectref* must be of type reference.

Each object is associated with a monitor. A monitor is locked if and only if it has an owner. The thread that executes *monitorenter* attempts to gain ownership of the monitor associated with *objectref*, as follows:

- If the entry count of the monitor associated with *objectref* is zero, the thread enters the monitor and sets its entry count to one. The thread is then the owner of the monitor.
- If the thread already owns the monitor associated with *objectref*, it reenters the monitor, incrementing its entry count.
- If another thread already owns the monitor associated with *objectref*, the thread blocks until the monitor's entry count is zero, then tries again to gain ownership.

Run-time Exception

If *objectref* is null, *monitorenter* throws a NullPointerException.

Notes

A *monitorenter* instruction may be used with one or more *monitorexit* instructions (§*monitorexit*) to implement a synchronized statement in the Java programming language (§3.14). The *monitorenter* and *monitorexit* instructions are not used in the implementation of synchronized methods, although they can be used to provide equivalent locking semantics. Monitor entry on invocation of a synchronized method, and monitor exit

on its return, are handled implicitly by the Java Virtual Machine's method invocation and return instructions, as if *monitorenter* and *monitorexit* were used.

The association of a monitor with an object may be managed in various ways that are beyond the scope of this specification. For instance, the monitor may be allocated and deallocated at the same time as the object. Alternatively, it may be dynamically allocated at the time when a thread attempts to gain exclusive access to the object and freed at some later time when no thread remains in the monitor for the object.

The synchronization constructs of the Java programming language require support for operations on monitors besides entry and exit. These include waiting on a monitor (Object.wait) and notifying other threads waiting on a monitor (Object.notifyAll and Object.notify). These operations are supported in the standard package java.lang supplied with the Java Virtual Machine. No explicit support for these operations appears in the instruction set of the Java Virtual Machine.

monitorexit monitorexit

Operation Exit monitor for object

Format monitorexit

Forms monitorexit = 195 (0xc3)

Operand ..., objectref →

Stack ..

Description The *objectref* must be of type reference.

The thread that executes *monitorexit* must be the owner of the monitor associated with the instance referenced by *objectref*.

The thread decrements the entry count of the monitor associated with *objectref*. If as a result the value of the entry count is zero, the thread exits the monitor and is no longer its owner. Other threads that are blocking to enter the monitor are allowed to attempt to do so.

Run-time Exceptions If objectref is null, monitor exit throws a NullPointerException.

Otherwise, if the thread that executes *monitorexit* is not the owner of the monitor associated with the instance referenced by *objectref*, *monitorexit* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation enforces the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10 and if the second of those rules is violated by the execution of this *monitorexit* instruction, then *monitorexit* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException.

Notes

One or more *monitorexit* instructions may be used with a *monitorenter* instruction (§*monitorenter*) to implement a synchronized statement in the Java programming language (§3.14). The *monitorenter* and *monitorexit* instructions are not used in the implementation of synchronized methods, although they can be used to provide equivalent locking semantics.

The Java Virtual Machine supports exceptions thrown within synchronized methods and synchronized statements differently:

- Monitor exit on normal synchronized method completion is handled by the Java Virtual Machine's return instructions. Monitor exit on abrupt synchronized method completion is handled implicitly by the Java Virtual Machine's athrow instruction.
- When an exception is thrown from within a synchronized statement, exit from the monitor entered prior to the execution of the synchronized statement is achieved using the Java Virtual Machine's exception handling mechanism (§3.14).

6.5

multianewarray

multianewarray

Operation Create new multidimensional array

Format

multianewarray
indexbyte1
indexbyte2
dimensions

Forms multianewarray = 197 (0xc5)

Operand ..., count1, $[count2, ...] \rightarrow$

Stack ..., arrayref

Description

The *dimensions* operand is an unsigned byte that must be greater than or equal to 1. It represents the number of dimensions of the array to be created. The operand stack must contain *dimensions* values. Each such value represents the number of components in a dimension of the array to be created, must be of type int, and must be non-negative. The *count1* is the desired length in the first dimension, *count2* in the second, etc.

All of the *count* values are popped off the operand stack. The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The runtime constant pool item at the index must be a symbolic reference to a class, array, or interface type. The named class, array, or interface type is resolved (§5.4.3.1). The resulting entry must be an array class type of dimensionality greater than or equal to *dimensions*.

A new multidimensional array of the array type is allocated from the garbage-collected heap. If any *count* value is zero, no subsequent dimensions are allocated. The components of the array in the first dimension are initialized to subarrays of the type of the second dimension, and so on. The components of the last allocated dimension of the array are initialized to the default initial value

(§2.3, §2.4) for the element type of the array type. A reference *arrayref* to the new array is pushed onto the operand stack.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the class, array, or interface type, any of the exceptions documented in §5.4.3.1 can be thrown.

Otherwise, if the current class does not have permission to access the element type of the resolved array class, *multianewarray* throws an IllegalAccessError.

Run-time Exception

Otherwise, if any of the *dimensions* values on the operand stack are less than zero, the *multianewarray* instruction throws a NegativeArraySizeException.

Notes

It may be more efficient to use *newarray* or *anewarray* (*§newarray*, *§anewarray*) when creating an array of a single dimension.

The array class referenced via the run-time constant pool may have more dimensions than the *dimensions* operand of the *multianewarray* instruction. In that case, only the first *dimensions* of the dimensions of the array are created.

new new

Operation Create new object

Format

new
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms new = 187 (0xbb)

Operand ... →

Stack ..., objectref

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at the index must be a symbolic reference to a class or interface type. The named class or interface type is resolved (§5.4.3.1) and should result in a class type. Memory for a new instance of that class is allocated from the garbage-collected heap, and the instance variables of the new object are initialized to their default initial values (§2.3, §2.4). The *objectref*, a reference to the instance, is pushed onto the operand stack.

On successful resolution of the class, it is initialized (§5.5) if it has not already been initialized.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the class, array, or interface type, any of the exceptions documented in §5.4.3.1 can be thrown.

Otherwise, if the symbolic reference to the class, array, or interface type resolves to an interface or is an abstract class, *new* throws an InstantiationError.

Run-time Exception

Otherwise, if execution of this *new* instruction causes initialization of the referenced class, *new* may throw an Error as detailed in JLS §15.9.4.

Notes

The *new* instruction does not completely create a new instance; instance creation is not completed until an instance initialization method (§2.9) has been invoked on the uninitialized instance.

newarray newarray

Operation Create new array

Format

newarray	
atype	

Forms newarray = 188 (0xbc)

Operand ..., count → **Stack** ..., arrayref

Description

The *count* must be of type int. It is popped off the operand stack. The *count* represents the number of elements in the array to be created.

The *atype* is a code that indicates the type of array to create. It must take one of the following values:

Table 6.1. Array type codes

Array Type	atype
T_BOOLEAN	4
T_CHAR	5
T_FLOAT	6
T_DOUBLE	7
T_BYTE	8
T_SHORT	9
T_INT	10
T_LONG	11

A new array whose components are of type *atype* and of length *count* is allocated from the garbage-collected heap. A reference *arrayref* to this new array object is pushed into the operand stack. Each of the elements of the new array is initialized to the default initial value (§2.3, §2.4) for the element type of the array type.

Run-time Exception

If *count* is less than zero, *newarray* throws a NegativeArraySizeException.

Notes

In Oracle's Java Virtual Machine implementation, arrays of type boolean (atype is T_BOOLEAN) are stored as arrays of 8-bit values and are manipulated using the baload and bastore instructions (\$baload, \$bastore) which also access arrays of type byte. Other implementations may implement packed boolean arrays; the baload and bastore instructions must still be used to access those arrays.

nop

Operation Do nothing

Format nop

Forms nop = 0 (0x0)

Operand No change

Stack

Description Do nothing.

pop pop

Operation Pop the top operand stack value

Format pop

Forms pop = 87 (0x57)

Operand ..., $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description Pop the top value from the operand stack.

The pop instruction must not be used unless value is a value of a

category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

pop2 pop2

Operation Pop the top one or two operand stack values

Format pop2

Forms pop2 = 88 (0x58)

Operand Form 1:

Stack ..., value2, value1 →

...

where each of *value1* and *value2* is a value of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

Form 2:

..., value →

...

where *value* is a value of a category 2 computational type (§2.11.1).

Description Pop the top one or two values from the operand stack.

putfield putfield

Set field in object **Operation**

Format

putfield
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

putfield = 181 (0xb5)**Forms**

..., objectref, value \rightarrow **Operand**

Stack

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (indexbyte1 << 8) | indexbyte2. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a field (§5.1), which gives the name and descriptor of the field as well as a symbolic reference to the class in which the field is to be found. The class of *objectref* must not be an array. If the field is protected (§4.6), and it is a member of a superclass of the current class, and the field is not declared in the same runtime package (§5.3) as the current class, then the class of *objectref* must be either the current class or a subclass of the current class.

The referenced field is resolved (§5.4.3.2). The type of a value stored by a putfield instruction must be compatible with the descriptor of the referenced field (§4.3.2). If the field descriptor type is boolean, byte, char, short, or int, then the value must be an int. If the field descriptor type is float, long, or double, then the *value* must be a float, long, or double, respectively. If the field descriptor type is a reference type, then the value must be of a type that is assignment compatible (JLS §5.2) with the field descriptor type. If the field is final, it must be declared in the current class, and the instruction must occur in an instance initialization method (<init>) of the current class (§2.9).

The value and objectref are popped from the operand stack. The objectref must be of type reference. The value undergoes value

set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*', and the referenced field in *objectref* is set to *value*'.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the field, any of the exceptions pertaining to field resolution (§5.4.3.2) can be thrown.

Otherwise, if the resolved field is a static field, *putfield* throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

Otherwise, if the field is final, it must be declared in the current class, and the instruction must occur in an instance initialization method (<init>) of the current class. Otherwise, an IllegalAccessError is thrown.

Run-time Exception

Otherwise, if *objectref* is null, the *putfield* instruction throws a NullPointerException.

putstatic putstatic

Operation Set static field in class

Format

putstatic
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

Forms putstatic = 179 (0xb3)

Operand ..., value →

Stack ...

Description

The unsigned *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* are used to construct an index into the run-time constant pool of the current class (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The run-time constant pool item at that index must be a symbolic reference to a field (§5.1), which gives the name and descriptor of the field as well as a symbolic reference to the class or interface in which the field is to be found. The referenced field is resolved (§5.4.3.2).

On successful resolution of the field, the class or interface that declared the resolved field is initialized (§5.5) if that class or interface has not already been initialized.

The type of a *value* stored by a *putstatic* instruction must be compatible with the descriptor of the referenced field (§4.3.2). If the field descriptor type is boolean, byte, char, short, or int, then the *value* must be an int. If the field descriptor type is float, long, or double, then the *value* must be a float, long, or double, respectively. If the field descriptor type is a reference type, then the *value* must be of a type that is assignment compatible (JLS §5.2) with the field descriptor type. If the field is final, it must be declared in the current class, and the instruction must occur in the <cli>clinit> method of the current class (§2.9).

The *value* is popped from the operand stack and undergoes value set conversion (§2.8.3), resulting in *value*'. The class field is set to *value*'.

Linking Exceptions

During resolution of the symbolic reference to the class or interface field, any of the exceptions pertaining to field resolution (§5.4.3.2) can be thrown.

Otherwise, if the resolved field is not a static (class) field or an interface field, *putstatic* throws an IncompatibleClassChangeError.

Otherwise, if the field is final, it must be declared in the current class, and the instruction must occur in the <clinit> method of the current class. Otherwise, an IllegalAccessError is thrown.

Run-time Exception

Otherwise, if execution of this *putstatic* instruction causes initialization of the referenced class or interface, *putstatic* may throw an Error as detailed in §5.5.

Notes

A *putstatic* instruction may be used only to set the value of an interface field on the initialization of that field. Interface fields may be assigned to only once, on execution of an interface variable initialization expression when the interface is initialized (§5.5, JLS §9.3.1).

ret ret

Operation

Return from subroutine

Format

ret index

Forms

ret = 169 (0xa9)

Operand

No change

Stack

Description

The *index* is an unsigned byte between 0 and 255, inclusive. The local variable at *index* in the current frame (§2.6) must contain a value of type returnAddress. The contents of the local variable are written into the Java Virtual Machine's pc register, and execution continues there.

Notes

Note that jsr (§jsr) pushes the address onto the operand stack and ret gets it out of a local variable. This asymmetry is intentional.

In Oracle's implementation of a compiler for the Java programming language prior to Java SE 6, the ret instruction was used with the *jsr* and *jsr* w instructions ($\S jsr$, $\S jsr$ w) in the implementation of the finally clause (§3.13, §4.10.2.5).

The ret instruction should not be confused with the return instruction (§return). A return instruction returns control from a method to its invoker, without passing any value back to the invoker.

The ret opcode can be used in conjunction with the wide instruction (§wide) to access a local variable using a two-byte unsigned index.

return return

Operation Return void from method

Format return

Forms return = 177 (0xb1)

Operand ... →
Stack [empty]

Description

The current method must have return type void. If the current method is a synchronized method, the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method is updated and possibly exited as if by execution of a *monitorexit* instruction (§*monitorexit*) in the current thread. If no exception is thrown, any values on the operand stack of the current frame (§2.6) are discarded.

The interpreter then returns control to the invoker of the method, reinstating the frame of the invoker.

Run-time Exceptions

If the Java Virtual Machine implementation does not enforce the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10, then if the current method is a synchronized method and the current thread is not the owner of the monitor entered or reentered on invocation of the method, *return* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException. This can happen, for example, if a synchronized method contains a *monitorexit* instruction, but no *monitorenter* instruction, on the object on which the method is synchronized.

Otherwise, if the Java Virtual Machine implementation enforces the rules on structured locking described in §2.11.10 and if the first of those rules is violated during invocation of the current method, then *return* throws an IllegalMonitorStateException.

saload saload

Operation Load short from array

Format saload

Forms saload = 53 (0x35)

Operand ..., arrayref, $index \rightarrow$

Stack ..., value

Run-time

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type short. The *index* must be of type int. Both *arrayref* and *index* are popped from the operand stack. The component of the array at *index* is retrieved and sign-extended to an int *value*. That *value* is pushed onto the operand stack.

to an int *value*. That *value* is pushed onto the operand stack.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by *arrayref*, the *saload* instruction throws an

If arrayref is null, saload throws a NullPointerException.

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

sastore sastore

Operation Store into short array

Format sastore

Forms sastore = 86 (0x56)

Operand ..., arrayref, index, $value \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description The *arrayref* must be of type reference and must refer to an array

whose components are of type short. Both *index* and *value* must be of type int. The *arrayref*, *index*, and *value* are popped from the operand stack. The int *value* is truncated to a short and stored as

the component of the array indexed by *index*.

Run-time If *arrayref* is null, *sastore* throws a NullPointerException.

Exceptions Otherwise, if *index* is not within the bounds of the array

referenced by arrayref, the sastore instruction throws an

ArrayIndexOutOfBoundsException.

sipush sipush

Operation Push short

Format

sipush
byte1
byte2

Forms sipush = 17 (0x11)

Operand ... →

Stack ..., value

Description The immediate unsigned *byte1* and *byte2* values are assembled into

an intermediate short where the value of the short is (*byte1* << 8) | *byte2*. The intermediate value is then sign-extended to an int

value. That value is pushed onto the operand stack.

swap swap

Operation Swap the top two operand stack values

Format swap

Forms swap = 95 (0x5f)

Operand ..., value2, value1 → **Stack** ..., value1, value2

Description Swap the top two values on the operand stack.

The *swap* instruction must not be used unless *value1* and *value2* are both values of a category 1 computational type (§2.11.1).

Notes The Java Virtual Machine does not provide an instruction

implementing a swap on operands of category 2 computational

types.

tableswitch tableswitch

Operation Access jump table by index and jump

Format

tableswitch
<0-3 byte pad>
defaultbyte1
defaultbyte2
defaultbyte3
defaultbyte4
lowbyte1
lowbyte2
lowbyte3
lowbyte4
highbyte1
highbyte2
highbyte3
highbyte4
jump offsets

Forms tableswitch = 170 (0xaa)

Operand ..., $index \rightarrow$

Stack ...

Description

A *tableswitch* is a variable-length instruction. Immediately after the *tableswitch* opcode, between zero and three bytes must act as padding, such that *defaultbyte1* begins at an address that is a multiple of four bytes from the start of the current method (the opcode of its first instruction). Immediately after the padding are bytes constituting three signed 32-bit values: *default*, *low*, and *high*. Immediately following are bytes constituting a series of *high* - *low* + 1 signed 32-bit offsets. The value *low* must be less than or equal to *high*. The *high* - *low* + 1 signed 32-bit offsets are treated

as a 0-based jump table. Each of these signed 32-bit values is constructed as (byte1 << 24) | (byte2 << 16) | (byte3 << 8) | byte4.

The *index* must be of type int and is popped from the operand stack. If *index* is less than *low* or *index* is greater than *high*, then a target address is calculated by adding *default* to the address of the opcode of this *tableswitch* instruction. Otherwise, the offset at position *index* - *low* of the jump table is extracted. The target address is calculated by adding that offset to the address of the opcode of this *tableswitch* instruction. Execution then continues at the target address.

The target address that can be calculated from each jump table offset, as well as the one that can be calculated from *default*, must be the address of an opcode of an instruction within the method that contains this *tableswitch* instruction.

Notes

The alignment required of the 4-byte operands of the *tableswitch* instruction guarantees 4-byte alignment of those operands if and only if the method that contains the *tableswitch* starts on a 4-byte boundary.

wide wide

Operation

Extend local variable index by additional bytes

Format 1

wide
<opcode></opcode>
indexbyte1
indexbyte2

where *<opcode>* is one of *iload*, *fload*, *aload*, *lload*, *dload*, *istore*, fstore, astore, lstore, dstore, or ret

Format 2

wide
iinc
indexbyte1
indexbyte2
constbyte1
constbyte2

Forms

wide = 196 (0xc4)

Operand Stack

Same as modified instruction

Description

The *wide* instruction modifies the behavior of another instruction. It takes one of two formats, depending on the instruction being modified. The first form of the wide instruction modifies one of the instructions iload, fload, aload, lload, dload, istore, fstore, astore, lstore, dstore, or ret (§iload, §fload, §aload, §lload, §dload, §istore, §fstore, §astore, §lstore, §dstore, §ret). The second form applies only to the *iinc* instruction (§*iinc*).

In either case, the wide opcode itself is followed in the compiled code by the opcode of the instruction wide modifies. In either form, two unsigned bytes indexbyte1 and indexbyte2 follow the modified opcode and are assembled into a 16-bit unsigned index to a local variable in the current frame (§2.6), where the value of the index is (*indexbyte1* << 8) | *indexbyte2*. The calculated index must be an index into the local variable array of the current frame. Where the *wide* instruction modifies an *lload*, *dload*, *lstore*, or *dstore* instruction, the index following the calculated index (index + 1) must also be an index into the local variable array. In the second form, two immediate unsigned bytes *constbyte1* and *constbyte2* follow *indexbyte1* and *indexbyte2* in the code stream. Those bytes are also assembled into a signed 16-bit constant, where the constant is (*constbyte1* << 8) | *constbyte2*.

The widened bytecode operates as normal, except for the use of the wider index and, in the case of the second form, the larger increment range.

Notes

Although we say that *wide* "modifies the behavior of another instruction," the *wide* instruction effectively treats the bytes constituting the modified instruction as operands, denaturing the embedded instruction in the process. In the case of a modified *iinc* instruction, one of the logical operands of the *iinc* is not even at the normal offset from the opcode. The embedded instruction must never be executed directly; its opcode must never be the target of any control transfer instruction.

Opcode Mnemonics by Opcode

T HIS chapter gives the mapping from Java Virtual Machine instruction opcodes, including the reserved opcodes ($\S6.2$), to the mnemonics for the instructions represented by those opcodes.

Opcode value 186 was not used prior to Java SE 7.

	Constan	ts		Loads			Stores	;
00	(0x00)	nop	21	(0x15)	iload	54	(0x36)	istore
01	(0x01)	aconst_null	22	(0x16)	lload	55	(0x37)	lstore
02	(0x02)	iconst_m1	23	(0x17)	fload	56	(0x38)	fstore
03	(0x03)	iconst_0	24	(0x18)	dload	57	(0x39)	dstore
04	(0x04)	iconst_1	25	(0x19)	aload	58	(0x3a)	astore
05	(0x05)	iconst_2	26	(0x1a)	$iload_0$	59	(0x3b)	istore_0
06	(0x06)	iconst_3	27	(0x1b)	$iload_1$	60	(0x3c)	istore_1
07	(0x07)	iconst_4	28	(0x1c)	$iload_2$	61	(0x3d)	$istore_2$
80	(0x08)	iconst_5	29	(0x1d)	iload_3	62	(0x3e)	istore_3
09	(0x09)	lconst_0	30	(0x1e)	$lload_0$	63	(0x3f)	$lstore_0$
10	(0x0a)	lconst_1	31	(0x1f)	$lload_1$	64	(0x40)	lstore_1
11	(0x0b)	fconst_0	32	(0x20)	$lload_2$	65	(0x41)	lstore_2
12	(0x0c)	fconst_1	33	(0x21)	lload_3	66	(0x42)	lstore_3
13	(0x0d)	fconst_2	34	(0x22)	$fload_0$	67	(0x43)	fstore_0
14	(0x0e)	dconst_0	35	(0x23)	$fload_1$	68	(0x44)	fstore_1
15	(0x0f)	dconst_1	36	(0x24)	$fload_2$	69	(0x45)	fstore_2
16	(0x10)	bipush	37	(0x25)	fload_3	70	(0x46)	fstore_3
17	(0x11)	sipush	38	(0x26)	$dload_0$	71	(0x47)	dstore_0
18	(0x12)	ldc	39	(0x27)	$dload_1$	72	(0x48)	dstore_1
19	(0x13)	ldc_w	40	(0x28)	$dload_2$	73	(0x49)	dstore_2
20	(0x14)	ldc2_w	41	(0x29)	$dload_3$	74	(0x4a)	dstore_3
			42	(0x2a)	aload_0	75	(0x4b)	astore_0
			43	(0x2b)	$aload_1$	76	(0x4c)	astore_1
			44	(0x2c)	aload_2	77	(0x4d)	astore_2
			45	(0x2d)	aload_3	78	(0x4e)	astore_3
			46	(0x2e)	iaload	79	(0x4f)	iastore
			47	(0x2f)	laload	80	(0x50)	lastore
			48	(0x30)	faload	81	(0x51)	fastore
			49	(0x31)	daload	82	(0x52)	dastore
			50	(0x32)	aaload	83	(0x53)	aastore
			51	(0x33)	baload	84	(0x54)	bastore
			52	(0x34)	caload	85	(0x55)	castore
			53	(0x35)	saload	86	(0x56)	sastore

Stack			Math		(Conversion	ıs
87 (0x57)	pop	96	(0x60)	iadd	133	(0x85)	i2l
88 (0x58)	pop2	97	(0x61)	ladd	134	(0x86)	i2f
89 (0x59)	dup	98	(0x62)	fadd	135	(0x87)	i2d
90 (0x5a)	dup_xI	99	(0x63)	dadd	136	(0x88)	l2i
91 (0x5b)	dup_x2	100	(0x64)	isub	137	(0x89)	<i>l2f</i>
92 (0x5c)	dup2	101	(0x65)	lsub	138	(0x8a)	l2d
93 (0x5d)	$dup2_x1$	102	(0x66)	fsub	139	(0x8b)	f2i
94 (0x5e)	$dup2_x2$	103	(0x67)	dsub	140	(0x8c)	f2l
95 (0x5f)	swap	104	(0x68)	imul	141	(0x8d)	f2d
		105	(0x69)	lmul	142	(0x8e)	d2i
		106	(0x6a)	fmul	143	(0x8f)	d2l
		107	(0x6b)	dmul	144	(0x90)	d2f
		108	(0x6c)	idiv	145	(0x91)	i2b
		109	(0x6d)	ldiv	146	(0x92)	i2c
		110	(0x6e)	fdiv	147	(0x93)	i2s
		111	(0x6f)	ddiv			
		112	(0x70)	irem			
		113	(0x71)	lrem			
		114	(0x72)	frem			
		115	(0x73)	drem			
		116	(0x74)	ineg			
		117	(0x75)	lneg			
		118	(0x76)	fneg			
		119	(0x77)	dneg			
		120	(0x78)	ishl			
		121	(0x79)	lshl			
		122	(0x7a)	ishr			
		123	(0x7b)	lshr			
		124	(0x7c)	iushr			
		125	(0x7d)	lushr			
		126	(0x7e)	iand			
		127	(0x7f)	land			
		128	(0x80)	ior			
		129	(0x81)	lor			
		130	(0x82)	ixor			
		131	(0x83)	lxor			
		132	(0x84)	iinc			

Con	nparisons		Ref	ferences
148 (0x94)	lcmp	178	(0xb2)	getstatic
149 (0x95)	fcmpl	179	(0xb3)	putstatic
150 (0x96)	fcmpg	180	(0xb4)	getfield
151 (0x97)	dcmpl	181	(0xb5)	putfield
152 (0x98)	dcmpg	182	(0xb6)	invokevirtual
153 (0x99)	ifeq	183	(0xb7)	invokespecial
154 (0x9a)	ifne	184	(0xb8)	invokestatic
155 (0x9b)	iflt	185	(0xb9)	invokeinterface
156 (0x9c)	ifge	186	(0xba)	invokedynamic
157 (0x9d)	ifgt	187	(0xbb)	new
158 (0x9e)	ifle	188	(0xbc)	newarray
159 (0x9f)	if_icmpeq	189	(0xbd)	anewarray
160 (0xa0)	if_icmpne	190	(0xbe)	arraylength
161 (0xa1)	if_icmplt	191	(0xbf)	athrow
162 (0xa2)	if_icmpge	192	(0xc0)	checkcast
163 (0xa3)	if_icmpgt	193	(0xc1)	instanceof
164 (0xa4)	if_icmple	194	(0xc2)	monitorenter
165 (0xa5)	if_acmpeq	195	(0xc3)	monitorexit
166 (0xa6)	if_acmpne		Ex	tended
C	Control	196	(0xc4)	wide
167 (0xa7)	goto	197	(0xc5)	multianewarray
168 (0xa8)	jsr	198	(0xc6)	ifnull
169 (0xa9)	ret	199	(0xc7)	ifnonnull
170 (0xaa)	tableswitch	200	(0xc8)	goto_w
171 (0xab)	lookupswitch	201	(0xc9)	jsr_w
172 (0xac)	ireturn		Re	eserved
173 (0xad)	lreturn	202	(0)	hua almaint
174 (0xae)	freturn	202	(0xca)	breakpoint
175 (0xaf)	dreturn	254	(0xfe)	impdep1
176 (0xb0)	areturn	255	(0xff)	impdep2
177 (0xb1)	return			

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