26. Processes

The Lisp Machine supports multi-processing: several computations can be executed concurrently by placing each in a separate process. A process is like a processor, simulated by software. Each process has its own program counter, its own stack of function calls and its own special-variable binding environment in which to execute its computation. (This is implemented with stack groups; see chapter 12, page 186.)

If all the processes are simply trying to compute, the machine time-slices between them. This is not a particularly efficient mode of operation since dividing the finite memory and processor power of the machine among several processes certainly cannot increase the available power and in fact wastes some of it in overhead. The way processes are normally used is different; there can be several on-going computations, but at a given moment only one or two processes will be trying to run. The rest will be either waiting for some event to occur, or stopped, that is, not allowed to compete for resources.

A process waits for an event by means of the process-wait primitive, which is given a predicate function which defines the event being waited for. A module of the system called the process scheduler periodically calls that function. If it returns nil the process continues to wait; if it returns t the process is made runnable and its call to process-wait returns, allowing the computation to proceed.

A process may be active or stopped. Stopped processes are never allowed to run; they are not considered by the scheduler, and so will never become the current process until they are made active again. The scheduler continually tests the waiting functions of all the active processes, and those which return non-nil values are allowed to run. When you first create a process with make-process, it is inactive.

A process has two sets of Lisp objects associated with it, called its run reasons and its arrest reasons. These sets are implemented as lists. Any kind of object can be in these sets; typically keyword symbols and active objects such as windows and other processes are found. A process is considered active when it has at least one run reason and no arrest reasons. A process that is not active is stopped, is not referenced by the processor scheduler, and does not compete for machine resources.

To get a computation to happen in another process, you must first create a process, then say what computation you want to happen in that process. The computation to be executed by a process is specified as an initial function and a list of arguments to that function. When the process starts up it applies the function to the arguments. In some cases the initial function is written so that it never returns, while in other cases it performs a certain computation and then returns, which stops the process.

To reset a process means to throw (see *throw, page 55) out of its entire computation, then force it to call its initial function again. Resetting a process clears its waiting condition, and so if it is active it will become runnable. To preset a function is to set up its initial function (and arguments) and then reset it. This is how you start up a computation in a process.
All processes in a Lisp Machine run in the same virtual address space, sharing the same set of Lisp objects. Unlike other systems that have special restricted mechanisms for inter-process communication, the Lisp Machine allows processes to communicate in arbitrary ways through shared Lisp objects. One process can inform another of an event simply by changing the value of a global variable. Buffers containing messages from one process to another can be implemented as lists or arrays. The usual mechanisms of atomic operations, critical sections, and interlocks are provided (see store-conditional [page 543], without-interrupts [page 540], and process-lock [page 542]).

A process is a Lisp object, an instance of one of several flavors of process (see chapter 20, page 321). The remainder of this chapter describes the operations defined on processes, the functions you can apply to a process, and the functions and variables a program running in a process can use to manipulate its process.

26.1 The Scheduler

At any time there is a set of active processes; as described above, these are all the processes that are not stopped. Each active process is either currently running, trying to run, or waiting for some condition to become true. The active processes are managed by a special stack group called the scheduler, which repeatedly cycles through the active processes, determining for each process whether it is ready to run or waiting. The scheduler determines whether a process is ready to run by applying the process's wait-function to its wait-argument-list. If the wait-function returns a non-nil value, then the process is ready to run; otherwise, it is waiting. If the process is ready to run, the scheduler resumes the current stack group of the process.

When a process's wait-function returns non-nil, the scheduler will resume its stack group and let it proceed. The process is now the current process, that is, the one process that is running on the machine. The scheduler sets the variable current-process to it. It will remain the current process and continue to run until either it decides to wait, or a sequence break occurs. In either case, the scheduler stack group will be resumed and it will continue to cycle through the active processes. This way, each process that is ready to run will get its share of time in which to execute.

A process can wait for some condition to become true by calling process-wait (see page 541), which will set up its wait-function and wait-argument-list accordingly and resume the scheduler stack group. A process can also wait for just a moment by calling process-allow-schedule (see page 541), which resumes the scheduler stack group but leaves the process runnable; it will run again as soon as all other runnable processes have had a chance.

A sequence break is a kind of interrupt that is generated by the Lisp system for any of a variety of reasons; when it occurs, the scheduler is resumed. The function siseb-on (see page 542) can be used to control when sequence breaks occur. The default is to sequence break once a second. Thus if a process runs continuously without waiting, it will be forced to return control to the scheduler once a second so that any other runnable processes will get their turn.

The system does not generate a sequence break when a page fault occurs; thus time spent waiting for a page to come in from the disk is "charged" to a process the same as time spent computing, and cannot be used by other processes. It is done this way for the sake of simplicity;
this allows the whole implementation of the process system to reside in ordinary virtual memory, so that it does not have to worry specially about paging. The performance penalty is small since Lisp Machines are personal computers, not multiplexed among a large number of processes. Usually only one process at a time is runnable.

A process’s wait function is free to touch any data structure it likes and to perform any computation it likes. Of course, wait functions should be kept simple, using only a small amount of time and touching only a small number of pages, or system performance will be impacted since the wait function will consume resources even when its process is not running. If a wait function gets an error, the error will occur inside the scheduler. All scheduling will come to a halt and the user will be thrown into the error handler. Wait functions should be written in such a way that they cannot get errors. Note that process-wait calls the wait function once before giving it to the scheduler, so an error due simply to bad arguments will not occur inside the scheduler.

Note well that a process’s wait function is executed inside the scheduler stack-group, not inside the process. This means that a wait function may not access special variables bound in the process. It is allowed to access global variables. It can access variables bound by a process through the closure mechanism (chapter 11, page 180), but more commonly any values needed by the wait function are passed to it as arguments.

current-process  
Variable
The value of current-process is the process that is currently executing, or nil while the scheduler is running. When the scheduler calls a process’s wait-function, it binds current-process to the process so that the wait-function can access its process.

without-interrupts body...  
Special Form
The body forms are evaluated with inhibit-scheduling-flag bound to t. This is the recommended way to lock out multi-processing over a small critical section of code to prevent timing errors. In other words the body is an atomic operation. The value(s) of a without-interrupts is/are the value(s) of the last form in the body.

Examples:

(without-interrupts
  (push item list))

(without-interrupts
  (cond ((memq item list)
           (setq list (delq item list))
           t)
        (t nil)))

inhibit-scheduling-flag  
Variable
The value of inhibit-scheduling-flag is normally nil. If it is t, sequence breaks are deferred until inhibit-scheduling-flag becomes nil again. This means that no process other than the current process can run.
**process-wait** *whostate function &rest arguments*

This is the primitive for waiting. The current process waits until the application of *function* to *arguments* returns non-nil (at which time process-wait returns). Note that *function* is applied in the environment of the scheduler, not the environment of the process-wait. so bindings in effect when process-wait was called will not be in effect when *function* is applied. Be careful when using any free references in *function*. whostate is a string containing a brief description of the reason for waiting. If the who-line at the bottom of the screen is looking at this process, it will show whostate.

Examples:

```lisp
(process-wait "sleep"
  #'(lambda (now)
      (> (time-difference (time) now) 100.))
  (time))

(process-wait "Buffer"
  #'(lambda (b) (not (zerop (buffer-n-things b))))
  the-buffer)
```

**process-sleep** *interval*

This simply waits for *interval* sixtyths of a second, and then returns. It uses process-wait.

**process-wait-with-timeout** *whostate interval function &rest arguments*

This is like process-wait except that if *interval* sixtyths of a second go by and the application of *function* to *arguments* is still returning nil, then process-wait-with-timeout returns anyway. The value returned is the value of applying *function* to *arguments*; thus, it is non-nil if the wait condition actually occurred, nil for a time-out.

**process-allow-schedule**

This function simply waits momentarily; all other processes will get a chance to run before the current process runs again.

**sys:scheduler-stack-group**

This is the stack group in which the scheduler executes.

**sys:clock-function-list**

This is a list of functions to be called by the scheduler 60 times a second. Each function is passed one argument, the number of 60ths of a second since the last time that the functions on this list were called. These functions implement various system overhead operations such as blinking the blinking cursor on the screen. Note that these functions are called inside the scheduler, just as are the functions of simple processes (see page 549). The scheduler calls these functions as often as possible, but never more often than 60 times a second. That is, if there are no processes ready to run, the scheduler will call the functions 60 times a second, assuming that, all together, they take less than 1/60 second to run. If there are processes continually ready to run, then the scheduler will call these functions as often as it can; usually this is once a second, since usually the scheduler gets control only once a second.
sys:active-processes
  This is the scheduler's data-structure. It is a list of lists, where the car of each element is
  an active process or nil and the cdr is information about that process.

sys:all-processes
  This is a list of all the processes in existence. It is mainly for debugging.

si:initial-process
  This is the process in which the system starts up when it is booted.

si:sb-on &optional when
  si:sb-on controls what events cause a sequence break, i.e. when re-scheduling occurs.
  The following keywords are names of events which can cause a sequence break.

  :clock          This event happens periodically based on a clock. The default period is
  :keyboard      Happens when a character is received from the keyboard.
  :chaos         Happens when a packet is received from the Chaosnet, or transmission of
                  a packet to the Chaosnet is completed.

Since the keyboard and Chaosnet are heavily buffered, there is no particular advantage to
enabling the :keyboard and :chaos events, unless the :clock event is disabled.

With no argument, si:sb-on returns a list of keywords for the currently enabled events.

With an argument, the set of enabled events is changed. The argument can be a
keyword, a list of keywords, nil (which disables sequence breaks entirely since it is the
empty list), or a number, which is the internal mask, not documented here.

26.2 Locks

A lock is a software construct used for synchronization of two processes. A lock is either held
by some process, or is free. When a process tries to seize a lock, it waits until the lock is free,
and then it becomes the process holding the lock. When it is finished, it unlocks the lock,
allowing some other process to seize it. A lock protects some resource or data structure so that
only one process at a time can use it.

In the Lisp Machine, a lock is a locative pointer to a cell. If the lock is free, the cell
contains nil; otherwise it contains the process that holds the lock. The process-lock and
process-unlock functions are written in such a way as to guarantee that two processes can never
both think that they hold a certain lock; only one process can ever hold a lock at one time.

process-lock locative &optional (lock-value current-process) (whostate "Lock")
  This is used to seize the lock that locative points to. If necessary, process-lock will wait
  until the lock becomes free. When process-lock returns, the lock has been seized. lock-
  value is the object to store into the cell specified by locative, and whostate is passed on to
  process-wait.
**process-unlock** locative &optional (lock-value current-process)

This is used to unlock the lock that locative points to. If the lock is free or was locked by some other process, an error is signaled. Otherwise the lock is unlocked. lock-value must have the same value as the lock-value parameter to the matching call to process-lock, or else an error is signalled.

It is a good idea to use unwind-protect to make sure that you unlock any lock that you seize. For example, if you write

```lisp
(unwind-protect
  (progn (process-lock lock-3)
         (function-1)
         (function-2))
  (process-unlock lock-3))
```

then even if function-1 or function-2 does a *throw, lock-3 will get unlocked correctly. Particular programs that use locks often define special forms that package this unwind-protect up into a convenient stylistic device.

A higher level locking construct is **with-lock**:

**with-lock** (lock options...) body...

*Special Form*

Executes the body with lock locked. lock should actually be an expression whose value would be the status of the lock; it is used inside locf to get a locative pointer with which the locking and unlocking are done.

It is OK for one process to lock a lock multiple times, recursively, using with-lock.

The options are alternating keywords and values. The values should be literally t or nil; they are interpreted at macro expansion time, not at run time. Only one keyword is allowed:

**:norecursive**  If the value is t, multiple recursive locking is an error.

A lower level construct which can be used to implement atomic operations, and is used in the implementation of process-lock, is **store-conditional**.

**store-conditional** location oldvalue newvalue

This stores newvalue into location iff location currently contains oldvalue. The value is t iff the cell was changed.

If location is a list, the cdr of the list is tested and stored in. This is in accord with the general principle of how to access the contents of a locative properly, and makes (store-conditional (locf (cdr x)) ...) work.

An even lower-level construct is the subprimitive **%store-conditional**, which is like store-conditional with no error checking.
26.3 Creating a Process

There are two ways of creating a process. One is to create a permanent process which you will hold on to and manipulate as desired. The other way is to say simply, "call this function on these arguments in another process, and don't bother waiting for the result." In the latter case you never actually use the process itself as an object.

\texttt{make-process name \&rest options}

Creates and returns a process named \textit{name}. The process will not be capable of running until it has been reset or preset in order to initialize the state of its computation.

The \textit{options} are alternating keywords and values that allow you to specify things about the process; however, no options are necessary if you aren't doing anything unusual. The following options are allowed:

\texttt{:simple-p} \hspace{1cm} Specifying this here gives you a simple process (see page 549).

\texttt{:flavor} \hspace{1cm} Specifies the flavor of process to be created. See section 26.5, page 549, for a list of all the flavors of process supplied by the system.

\texttt{:stack-group} \hspace{1cm} The stack group the process is to use. If this option is not specified, a stack group will be created according to the relevant options below.

\texttt{:warm-boot-action} \hspace{1cm} What to do with the process when the machine is booted. See page 547.

\texttt{:quantum} \hspace{1cm} See page 547.

\texttt{:priority} \hspace{1cm} See page 547.

\texttt{:run-reasons} \hspace{1cm} Lets you supply an initial run reason. The default is \texttt{nil}.

\texttt{:arrest-reasons} \hspace{1cm} Lets you supply an initial arrest reason. The default is \texttt{nil}.

\texttt{:sg-area} \hspace{1cm} The area in which to create the stack group. The default is the value of \texttt{default-cons-area}.

\texttt{:regular-pdl-area}
\texttt{:special-pdl-area}
\texttt{:regular-pdl-size}
\texttt{:special-pdl-size}

These are passed on to \texttt{make-stack-group}, page 189.

\texttt{:swap-sv-on-call-out}
\texttt{:swap-sv-of-sg-that-calls-me}
\texttt{:trap-enable} \hspace{1cm} Specify those attributes of the stack group. You don't want to use these.

If you specify \texttt{:flavor}, there can be additional options provided by that flavor.

The following three functions allow you to call a function and have its execution happen asynchronously in another process. This can be used either as a simple way to start up a process that will run "forever", or as a way to make something happen without having to wait for it complete. When the function returns, the process is returned to a pool of free processes for reuse. The only difference between these three functions is in what happens if the machine is
booted while the process is still active.

Normally the function to be run should not do any I/O to the terminal. Refer to section 12.5, page 194 for a discussion of the issues.

**process-run-function** name-or-options function &rest args

Creates a process, presets it so it will apply function to args, and starts it running.

*name-or-keywords* can be either a string specifying a name for the process or a list of alternating keywords and values that can specify the name and various other parameters.

:name

This keyword should be followed by a string which specifies the name of the process. The default is "Anonymous".

:restart-after-reset

This keyword says what to do to the process if it is reset. nil means the process should be killed; anything else means the process should be restarted. nil is the default.

:warm-boot-action

What to do with the process when the machine is booted. See page 547.

:restart-after-boot

This is a simpler way of saying what to do with the process when the machine is booted. If the :warm-boot-action keyword is not supplied or its value is nil, then this keyword's value is used instead. nil means the process should be killed; anything else means the process should be restarted. nil is the default.

:quantum

See page 547.

:priority

See page 547.

**process-run-restartable-function** name-or-keywords function &rest args

This is the same as process-run-function except that the default is that the process will be restarted if reset or after a warm boot. You can get the same effect by using process-run-function with appropriate keywords.

### 26.4 Process Generic Operations

These are the operations that are defined on all flavors of process. Certain process flavors may define additional operations. Not all possible operations are listed here, only those "of interest to the user".
26.4.1 Process Attributes

:name

Returns the name of the process, which was the first argument to make-process or process-run-function when the process was created. The name is a string that appears in the printed-representation of the process, stands for the process in the who-line and the peek display, etc.

:stack-group

Returns the stack group currently executing on behalf of this process. This can be different from the initial-stack-group if the process contains several stack groups that coroutine among themselves, or if the process is in the error-handler, which runs in its own stack group.

Note that the stack-group of a simple process (see page 549) is not a stack group at all, but a function.

:initial-stack-group

Returns the stack group the initial-function is called in when the process starts up or is reset.

:initial-form

Returns the initial "form" of the process. This isn't really a Lisp form; it is a cons whose car is the initial-function and whose cdr is the list of arguments to which that function is applied when the process starts up or is reset.

In a simple process (see page 549), the initial form is a list of one element, the process's function.

To change the initial form, use the :preset operation (see page 548).

:wait-function

Returns the process's current wait-function, which is the predicate used by the scheduler to determine if the process is runnable. This is #t true if the process is running, and #f false if the process has no current computation (for instance, if it has just been created, its initial function has returned, or the process has been "flushed" (see page 548).

:wait-argument-list

Returns the arguments to the process's current wait-function. This will frequently be the &rest argument to process-wait in the process's stack, rather than a true list. The system always uses it in a safe manner, i.e. it forgets about it before process-wait returns.

:whostate

Returns a string that is the state of the process to go in the who-line at the bottom of the screen. This is "run" if the process is running or trying to run, otherwise the reason why the process is waiting. If the process is stopped, then this whostate string is ignored and the who-line displays arrest if the process is arrested or stop if the process has no run reasons.
:quantum
:set-quantum 60ths
Operation on si:process
Return or change the number of 60ths of a second this process is allowed to run without waiting before the scheduler will run someone else. The quantum defaults to 1 second.

:quantum-remaining
Operation on si:process
Returns the amount of time remaining for this process to run in 60ths of a second.

:priority
:set-priority priority-number
Operation on si:process
Return or change the priority of this process. The larger the number, the more this process gets to run. Within a priority level the scheduler runs all runnable processes in a round-robin fashion. Regardless of priority a process will not run for more than its quantum. The default priority is 0, and no normal process uses other than 0.

:warm-boot-action
:set-warm-boot-action action
Operation on si:process
Returns or changes the process’s warm-boot-action, which controls what happens if the machine is booted while this process is active. (Contrary to the name, this applies to both cold and warm booting.) This can be nil or :flush, which means to “flush” the process (see page 548), or can be a function to call. The default is si:process-warm-boot-delayed-restart, which resets the process, causing it to start over at its initial function. You can also use si:process-warm-boot-reset, which throws out of the process’ computation and kills the process, or si:process-warm-boot-restart, which is like the default but restarts the process at an earlier stage of system reinitialization. This is used for processes like the keyboard process and chaos background process, which are needed for reinitialization itself.

:simple-p
Operation on si:process
Returns nil for a normal process, t for a simple process. See page 549.

26.4.2 Run and Arrest Reasons

:run-reasons
Operation on si:process
Returns the list of run reasons, which are the reasons why this process should be active (allowed to run).

:run-reason object
Operation on si:process
Adds object to the process’s run reasons. This can activate the process.

:revoke-run-reason object
Operation on si:process
Removes object from the process’s run reasons. This can stop the process.

:arrest-reasons
Operation on si:process
Returns the list of arrest reasons, which are the reasons why this process should be inactive (forbidden to run).
:arrest-reason object
   Operation on si:process
   Adds object to the process's arrest reasons. This can stop the process.

:revoke-arrest-reason object
   Operation on si:process
   Removes object from the process's arrest reasons. This can activate the process.

:active-p
   Operation on si:process

:runnable-p
   Operation on si:process
   These two operations are the same. t is returned if the process is active, i.e. it can run if
   its wait-function allows. nil is returned if the process is stopped.

26.4.3 Bashing the Process

:preset function &rest args
   Operation on si:process
   Sets the process's initial function to function and initial arguments to args. The process is
   then reset so that it will throw out of any current computation and start itself up by
   applying function to args. A :preset operation on a stopped process will return
   immediately, but will not activate the process; hence the process will not really apply
   function to args until it is activated later.

:reset &optional no-unwind kill
   Operation on si:process
   Forces the process to throw out of its present computation and apply its initial function to
   its initial arguments, when it next runs. The throwing out is skipped if the process has
   no present computation (e.g. it was just created), or if the no-unwind option so specifies.
   The possible values for no-unwind are:
   :unless-current
   nil
   Unwind unless the stack group to be unwound is the one we are currently
   executing in. or belongs to the current process.
   
   :always
   Unwind in all cases. This may cause the operation to throw through its
caller instead of returning.
   
   t
   Never unwind.

If kill is t, the process is to be killed after unwinding it. This is for internal use by the
:kill operation only.

A :reset operation on a stopped process will return immediately, but will not activate the
process; hence the process will not really get reset until it is activated later.

:flush
   Operation on si:process
   Forces the process to wait forever. A process may not :flush itself. Flushing a process is
different from stopping it, in that it is still active and hence if it is reset or preset it will
start running again.
:kill

Gets rid of the process. It is reset, stopped, and removed from sys:all-processes.

:interrupt function &rest args

Forces the process to apply function to args. When function returns, the process will continue the interrupted computation. If the process is waiting, it wakes up, calls function, then waits again when function returns.

If the process is stopped it will not apply function to args immediately, but will later when it is activated. Normally the :interrupt operation returns immediately, but if the process's stack group is in an unusual internal state it may have to wait for it to get out of that state.

26.5 Process Flavors

These are the flavors of process provided by the system. It is possible for users to define additional flavors of their own.

si:process

This is the standard default kind of process.

si:simple-process

A simple process is not a process in the conventional sense. It has no stack group of its own; instead of having a stack group that gets resumed when it is time for the process to run, it has a function that gets called when it is time for the process to run. When the wait-function of a simple process becomes true, and the scheduler notices it, the simple process's function is called in the scheduler's own stack group. Since a simple process does not have any stack group of its own, it can't save control state in between calls; any state that it saves must be saved in data structure.

The only advantage of simple processes over normal processes is that they use up less system overhead, since they can be scheduled without the cost of resuming stack-groups. They are intended as a special, efficient mechanism for certain purposes. For example, packets received from the Chaosnet are examined and distributed to the proper receiver by a simple process that wakes up whenever there are any packets in the input buffer. However, they are harder to use, because you can't save state information across scheduling. That is, when the simple process is ready to wait again, it must return; it can't call process-wait and continue to do something else later. In fact, it is an error to call process-wait from inside a simple process. Another drawback to simple processes is that if the function signals an error, the scheduler itself will be broken and multiprocessing will stop; this situation can be hard to repair. Also, while a simple process is running, no other process will be scheduled; so simple processes should never run for a long time without returning.

Asking for the stack group of a simple process does not signal an error, but returns the process's function instead.
Since a simple process cannot call `process-wait`, it needs some other way to specify its wait-function. To set the wait-function of a simple process, use `si:set-process-wait` (see below). So, when a simple process wants to wait for a condition, it should call `si:set-process-wait` to specify the condition, then return.

`si:set-process-wait`  
*simple-process*  
*wait-function*  
*wait-argument-list*  
Sets the *wait-function* and *wait-argument-list* of *simple-process*. See the description of the *si:simple-process* flavor (above) for more information.

### 26.6 Other Process Functions

`process-enable`  
`process`  
Activates `process` by revoking all its run and arrest reasons, then giving it a run reason of `:enable`.

`process-reset-and-enable`  
`process`  
Resets `process`, then enables it.

`process-disable`  
`process`  
Stops `process` by revoking all its run reasons. Also revokes all its arrest reasons.

The remaining functions in this section are obsolete, since they simply duplicate what can be done by sending a message. They are documented here because their names are in the global package.

`process-preset`  
`process`  
`function`  
`&rest`  
`args`  
Sends a `:preset` message.

`process-reset`  
`process`  
Sends a `:reset` message.

`process-name`  
`process`  
Gets the name of a process, like the `:name` operation.

`process-stack-group`  
`process`  
Gets the current stack group of a process, like the `:stack-group` operation.

`process-initial-stack-group`  
`process`  
Gets the initial stack group of a process, like the `:initial-stack-group` operation.

`process-initial-form`  
`process`  
Gets the initial "form" of a process, like the `:initial-form` operation.

`process-wait-function`  
`process`  
Gets the current wait-function of a process, like the `:wait-function` operation.
process-wait-argument-list \( p \)
gets the arguments to the current wait-function of a process, like the :wait-argument-list operation.

process-whostate \( p \)
gets the current who-line state string of a process, like the :whostate operation.