Туре	Description
com plex	This data type represents a complex number. We can build this type is-from either two ints or two floats of equal size, depending on the precision you want. This means we pass either an int or a float as the size, e.g. complex[int[32]] name;. The keyword im represents the complex unit $i = \sqrt{-1}$.
bool	Like the $\mbox{\sc bit},$ this type can take one of two values, in this case $\mbox{\sc true}$ or false.

Constants

We can declare constant (immutable) classical types using the const keyword.

```
const uint[16] x = 44;
```

Shorthands

There are some shorthands useful when declaring classical types.

- When declaring an array of bits, we can use a string of 0 and 1 characters. E.g. bit[10] my_bits = '0011111011\';
- We can use scientific notation to declare large or small numbers. E.g. float[32] name = 2.34e5;.
- QASM supports some popular mathematical constants that we can use to declare types. For example;
- When declaring ints and floats, we can use the ywords pi, tau, and euler. E.g. float[32] name = 4*euler;.
- When declaring a complex type, we can use the im keyword to represent the imaginary unit. E.g. complex[float[32]] my_complex = 3.1 + 1.2im;.

Arrays of Classical Types

We've already seen how to create arrays of bits and qubits with the square bracket syntax:

```
qubit[3] qr; // array of 3 qubits
bit[3] cr; // array of 3 bits
```

But we can also create arrays of the higher-level classical types through the array keyword. This keyword should be followed by the type, and the size of the array in square brackets. For example, the code below creates an array of 10 16-bit ints, named int_array:

```
array[int[16], 10] int_array;
```

And we can access each element of int_array using square brackets as we did with bit and qubit arrays. We can also specify all the values of an array when declaring it using curly brackets,

```
array[float[64], 3] my_array = {0.1, 2.9, pi};
```

QASM also support multi-dimensional arrays, we just need to pass the extra dimension to the array constructor. In the code below we create a 2D array of 32-bit units, named matrix;

```
// 8x8, 2D array
array[uint[32], 8, 8] matrix;
```

Built-In Classical Instructions

QASM supports some common operations between classical data of the same type. All instructions shown here must have a data type on the left-hand side (LHS) of the instruction, and a value of the same type on the right-hand side (RHS). For example, the assignment operator (=) sets the value of the data on the LHS to the value on the RHS,

```
bit x; // declare bit
x = 1; // set x to 1
```

All data types except complex support the comparison operators shown in Table 10-2 below.

Table 10-2. Classical comparisons supported by QASM

Name	Symbol	Description
Equal to	==	Compares the value on the RHS to the value on the LHS, and returns True if, and only if, both sides are equal
Not equal to	!=	Returns False if, and only if, both sides are equal
Less than	<	Returns True if LHS is less than RHS
Greater than	>	Returns True is LHS is greater than RHS
Less than or equal to	<=	Returns True if the LHS is less than or equal to the RHS $$
Greater than or equal to	>=	Returns $True$ if the LHS is greater than or equal to the RHS

All numeric types (int, float, angle, and complex) support the basic arithmetic operations in Table 10-3 below.

Table 10-3. Classical numeric instructions supported by QASM

Name	Symbol	Description		
Addition	+	Returns value of LHS added to RHS		
Multiplication *		Returns value of LHS multiplied by RHS		
Power	**	Returns value of LHS to the power (exponent) of RHS		
Division	/	Returns value of LHS divided by RHS (note that dividing two ints returns an int)		

Along with the operations in Table 10-3 above, integers (int) also support the modulo operation shown in Table 10-4 below.

Table 10-4. Classical integer instructions supported by QASM

Name	Symbol	Description
Modulo	%	Returns the value of the LHS modulo RHS (i.e, the remainder of LHS divided by RHS)

As with most programming languages, we can also condition operations on the state of a bool and the if keyword. The if keyword must be followed by the bool (in parentheses), then by the conditioned logic (in curly brackets). We can then follow this with the else keyword to trigger instructions only if the statement was false. For example, the code below calculate the maximum value of a and b₃ and stores it in c₃.

```
if (a < b) {
    c = b;
} else {
    c = a;
};</pre>
```

With this classical logic, we can now encode more complicated quantum circuits, such as the famous quantum teleportation circuit shown in Figure 10-10.

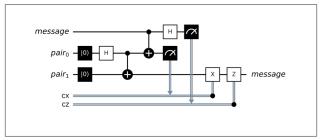


Figure 10-10. The quantum teleportation protocol

The QASM code below encodes the teleportation protocol shown above.

```
// Declare two bits to be transmitted
bit cz;
bit cx;

// declare message and entangled pair
qubit message;
qubit[2] pair;
```

```
// Third party entangles pair
h pair[0]:
cx pair[0], pair[1];
// Third party gives pair[0] to message sender
// and pair[1] to message recipient
// Message sender then entangles pair[0] with
// the message gubit, and measures
cx message, pair[0];
h message:
cz = measure message;
cx = measure pair[0];
// Message sender sends two classical bits to
// message recipient
if (cx == 1) {
   x pair[1];
}
if (cz == 1) {
    z pair[1];
}
```

QASM supports while loops, which repeat instructions as long as a condition is true. For example, the code below implements a very inefficient way of resetting a qubit (q) to $|0\rangle_{1}$

```
qubit q;
bit b = 1;
while (b==1) {
    h q;
    b = measure q;
}
```

QASM also support for loops, which repeat instructions for each item in an array. For example, the code below applies a H-gate to each qubit in qr₁

```
qubit[3] qr;
```

```
for q in qr {
    h q;
}
```

Building Quantum Programs

We have now covered everything needed to create rich, circuitlevel quantum programs in QASM. In this section, we'll look at two QASM features that make managing and reusing programs easier.

Subroutines

Similar to custom gate definitions, we can combine both classical and quantum instructions into a *subroutine*. A subroutine definition starts with the def keyword, followed by the name of the subroutine. Next, we declare and name the data types the subroutine will act on (in parentheses), then indicate the data type that the subroutine returns (after a -> symbol). The subroutine instructions follow, enclosed by curly brackets.

To illustrate, the code below creates a subroutine named bell_measurement that measures two qubits in the Bell basis. This subroutine takes an array of two qubits and returns two bits;

```
def bell_measure(qubit[2] qr) -> bit[2] {
   CX qr[0], qr[1];
   h qr[0];
   return measure qr;
}
```

To use this subroutine in a program, we follow the subroutine's name with the arguments, enclosed in parentheses,

```
qubit[2] qr;
bit[2] cr;
cr = bell measure(qr);
```

Note that you can declare classical data types in the body of a subroutine, but not quantum data types.

Inputs and Outputs

We've seen that instructions and subroutines can accept inputs and return outputs, and this is also true of entire QASM programs; when we declare classical data, we can prefix the declaration with the input keyword, which means the value of that data will only be known at run-time. In the code below, we declare an array of 20 angles named point; and tell QASM that this value will only be known at run-time;

input angle[20] point;

By leaving some values unknown when compiling, we can avoid repeating long compilation and optimization processes. This is especially useful for near-term, variational algorithms that require many circuit runs with different gate parameters.

We can also specify any classical data types that our program should output using the output keyword. If we don't specify any outputs, then the QASM program will output *all* classical data.

Index

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Francis Harkins

Colophon

The animal on the cover of *Qiskit Pocket Guide* is a rock quail (*Latin name*).

Many of the animals on O'Reilly covers are endangered; all of them are important to the world.

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