

# Quantum programming of the satisfiability problem with Rydberg atom graphs

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Finding a quantum computing method to solve nondeterministic polynomial time (NP)-complete problems is currently of paramount importance in quantum information science. Here we propose and experimentally demonstrate a Rydberg atom approach to program the 3-SAT problem, the prototypical NP-complete problem which allows general programming of all NP problems. We use Rydberg atom graphs, each of which consists of Rydberg atom dimers and trimers coupled with quantum wires in the Rydberg blockade interaction regime, to formulate general Boolean expressions, and obtain their many-body ground states to determine the satisfiabilities of the given 3-SAT problem instances quantum mechanically.

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## I. INTRODUCTION

Currently there are considerable efforts being devoted to making a quantum computer [1–3]. One prominent goal is to engineer a quantum system that can *formulate* quantum algorithms of classically difficult computational problems [4,5]. An efficient algorithm which can solve a problem in the computational complexity class of nondeterministic polynomial (NP)-complete can be used as a subroutine for the efficient algorithm for all other problems in NP, according to the Cook-Levin theorem [6]. So, if a quantum computer can solve an NP-complete problem efficiently, all other NP problems are also efficiently solvable by the polynomial time reduction to the NP-complete problem [7,8].

The Boolean satisfiability problem (SAT or B-SAT) and the 3-SAT problem that has clauses of at most three literals are a prototypical NP-complete problem, i.e., no classical algorithms can efficiently (i.e., in a polynomial time) solve the 3-SAT problem, unless  $P = NP$  [9,10]. There are limited physical implementations of the 3-SAT problem, which include an algorithmic conversion to a network-based biocomputation format [11], a quantum circuit approach using Grover's quantum search algorithm in conjunction with the David-Putnam-Logemann-Loveland algorithm [12], and an IBM-Q operation of Grover's quantum algorithm for the 3-SAT problem [13]. These approaches are nonimmune to errors, so it may be worthy to consider the robustness of quantum adiabatic computing.

In this paper, we introduce a quantum algorithm to formulate the 3-SAT problem with Rydberg atoms. Utilizing Rydberg atom dimers and trimers coupled with quantum wires, we formulate a quantum programming algorithm to

encode a given 3-SAT problem instance and to evaluate the satisfiability (i.e., the existence of a solution) of the 3-SAT instance experimentally. We utilize the facts that the 3-SAT problem is reducible to the maximum independent set (MIS) problem [14,15], which has been previously implemented with Rydberg atoms [16,17], and that the Rydberg atom MIS approach is reported to be of quantum speedup on computationally hardest graphs over classical simulated annealing [18].

## II. THE 3-SATISFIABILITY PROBLEM

The 3-SAT problem is to determine whether a given propositional logic formula (Boolean expression),  $\Psi(x_1, x_2, \dots)$ , of Boolean variables,  $x_1, x_2, \dots$ , is *satisfiable* (i.e., there exists a set of Boolean values for the variables satisfying the formula) or *unsatisfiable*. The 3-SAT formula  $\Psi(x_1, x_2, \dots)$  is given in the conjunctive normal form [19], i.e., a conjunction of  $N_C$  clauses,  $\Psi(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \bigwedge_{j=1}^{N_C} C_j$ , where each clause,  $C_j = \ell_{j,1} \vee \ell_{j,2} \vee \ell_{j,3}$ , is a disjunction of at most three literals,  $\ell_{j,k} \in \{x_k, \bar{x}_k | k = 1, \dots, n\}$  [20,21].

The given 3-SAT problem can be reduced to the MIS problem for an MIS graph  $G(V, E)$ , given by

$$V = \{(j, k) | \ell_{j,k} \in C_j\}, \quad (1a)$$

$$E = E_1 \cup E_2, \quad (1b)$$

$$E_1 = \{[(j, k_1), (j, k_2)] | k_1 \neq k_2\}, \quad (1c)$$

$$E_2 = \{[(j_1, k_1), (j_2, k_2)] | k_1 \neq k_2, \ell_{j_1, k_1} = \bar{\ell}_{j_2, k_2}\}, \quad (1d)$$

where  $V$  is the set of vertices of which an element  $(j, k)$  corresponds to the literal  $\ell_{j,k}$  in the  $j$ th clause  $C_j$ ;  $E$  is the set of all edges, the union of two edge sets  $E_1$  and  $E_2$ ;  $E_1$  is the set of all intraclause edges connecting two vertices in the same clause  $C_j$ ; and  $E_2$  is the set of all interclause edges which connect two vertices in different clauses, whose corresponding literals are negation to each other [14,15].

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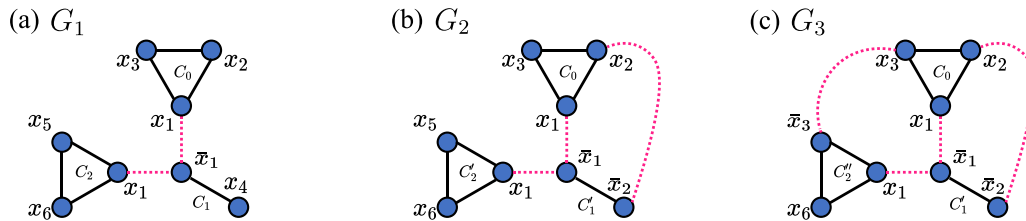


FIG. 1. (a) The MIS graph  $G_1$  reduced from the 3-SAT instance  $\Psi_1$  in Eqs. (2), (b)  $G_2$  from  $\Psi_2$ , and (c)  $G_3$  from  $\Psi_3$ , where vertices represent literals ( $x_1, \dots, x_6$  and negations), solid edges intraclause logics, and dashed edges the interclause logics (between literals and their negations).

Figure 1 shows examples of MIS graphs obtained with the above reduction algorithm in Eq. (1). The first graph,  $G_1$  in Fig. 1(a), is for a 3-SAT instance, given by

$$\Psi_1(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6) = C_0 \wedge C_1 \wedge C_2, \quad (2a)$$

$$C_0 = x_1 \vee x_2 \vee x_3, \quad (2b)$$

$$C_1 = \bar{x}_1 \vee x_4, \quad (2c)$$

$$C_2 = x_1 \vee x_5 \vee x_6, \quad (2d)$$

where the clauses having two or three literals are respectively mapped to the dimers or trimers (of solid edges) and the literal-negation pairs are mapped to the interclause edges (of dashed lines). Similarly, we define two more MIS graphs  $G_2$  and  $G_3$  for  $\Psi_2 = C_0 \wedge C'_1 \wedge C_2$  and  $\Psi_3 = C_0 \wedge C'_1 \wedge C'_2$ , with  $C'_1 = \bar{x}_1 \vee \bar{x}_2$  and  $C'_2 = x_1 \vee \bar{x}_3 \vee x_6$ , as respectively shown in Figs. 1(b) and 1(c).

### III. RYDBERG ATOM GRAPHS

Rydberg atoms have been used to solve the MIS problems [16–18,22,23]. The Hamiltonian of Rydberg atoms arranged for an MIS graph  $G$  is given (in  $\hbar = 1$  units) by

$$\hat{H}(G) = \sum_{(j,k) \in E(G)} U \hat{n}_j \hat{n}_k - \sum_{j \in V(G)} \left( \Delta \hat{n}_j - \frac{\Omega}{2} \hat{\sigma}_x^{(j)} \right), \quad (3)$$

where  $U$  is the interaction between edged atoms,  $\Omega$  and  $\Delta$  are the Rabi frequency and detuning of Rydberg excitation, and  $\hat{n}_j = (1 - \hat{\sigma}_z^{(j)})/2$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}_x^{(j)}$ ,  $\hat{\sigma}_z^{(j)}$  are the excitation and Pauli operators defined for the ground ( $|0\rangle$ ) and Rydberg ( $|1\rangle$ ) states of the  $j$ th atom. In the limit of  $\Omega \rightarrow 0$ , many-body ground states of  $\hat{H}(G)$  correspond to the MIS solutions of  $G$ , because  $U > 0$  means the MIS problem's constraint that only one vertex can be in MIS for any two vertices on the same edge, satisfying the condition of the independent set, and  $0 < \Delta < U$  maximizes the number of vertices in the independent set.

The MIS graphs in Fig. 1 are physically implementable with experimental graphs,  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$ ,  $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$ , and  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$ , in Figs. 2(a)–2(c), where the “normal” edges (solid line edges) are between Rydberg blocked pairs of atoms and long-distance edges (dashed, interclause edges) are implemented with Rydberg quantum wires [17,23,24]. In Fig. 2(a) for  $\Psi_1$ ,  $x_1$  in  $C_0$  and  $C_2$  are edged to  $\bar{x}_1$  in  $C_1$ , by placing the atom trios,  $C_0$  (upper)– $C_1$  (lower right) and  $C_1$  (lower right)– $C_2$  (lower left) closely, so that the atoms  $x_1$  in  $C_0$  (respectively, also in  $C_2$ ) and  $\bar{x}_1$  are at the distance  $d$ . In Fig. 2(b), the long edge between  $x_2$  and  $\bar{x}_2$  of  $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$  is implemented with a Rydberg quantum wire of two auxiliary atoms labeled by  $\{a_1, a_2\}$ . Also, in Fig. 2(c),

the two long edges  $x_2$ – $\bar{x}_2$  and  $x_3$ – $\bar{x}_3$  of  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$  are implemented respectively with two Rydberg quantum wires respectively with auxiliary atoms,  $\{a_1, a_2\}$  and  $\{a_3, a_4\}$ , respectively. These wire atoms mediate the Rydberg blockade between two literal atoms with far distance [17,24,25]. The many-body ground states of  $\hat{H}(G)$  for  $G = G_1^{\text{Exp}}$ ,  $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$ , and  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$  are summarized in Table I.

The positions of all atoms (literals and auxiliary atoms) of  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$  are obtained under the conditions that the distances of all edged atoms (including auxiliary atoms) are kept nearly at the same interatom distance,  $d = 7.0 \mu\text{m}$ , smaller than the Rydberg blockade distance  $d_B = 10.0 \mu\text{m}$ , and that all un-edged atoms are separated more than  $\sqrt{2}d$ . For this, we minimized the overlap integral defined by

$$F = \pi \sum_{(i,j) \in E} \int_{\frac{|\vec{r}_{ij}|}{2}}^{\frac{d}{2}} \left( \frac{d^2}{4} - r^2 \right) dr + \frac{\pi}{\sqrt{8}} \sum_{(i,j) \notin E} \int_{\frac{|\vec{r}_{ij}|}{2}}^{\frac{d}{\sqrt{2}}} \left( \frac{d^2}{2} - r^2 \right) dr \Theta(\sqrt{2}d - |\vec{r}_{ij}|), \quad (4)$$

where  $\vec{r}_{ij}$  is the displacement vector from the  $i$ th atom to the  $j$ th atom, and  $\Theta(x)$  is the Heaviside step function (1 for  $x > 0$ , 0 for  $x < 0$ ). The first term in Eq. (4) is the overlap of the unit spheres of all edged atoms, which is minimized for the spheres to be as close as possible. The second term is the overlap of the  $\sqrt{2}d$ -size spheres of all un-edged atoms, where the Heaviside function ensures the distance between un-edged atoms to be more than  $\sqrt{2}d$ .  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$  and  $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$  are then obtained as graph minors of  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$ . The positions of the atoms of these graphs are listed in Table II, along with  $G_1^{\text{Alt}}$ , to be discussed in Sec. VI.

### IV. RYDBERG ATOM EXPERIMENT

To solve the 3-SAT problem quantum mechanically, we perform many-body ground-state searching experiments with Rydberg atoms arranged for the corresponding MIS graphs. The experimental setup is a Rydberg atom quantum annealing machine, which consists of a cold atom apparatus, an optical tweezer array system, a Rydberg excitation laser system, and a detection apparatus [17,22,23,26]. The cold atom apparatus is a magneto-optical trap (MOT), in which atoms (rubidium,  $^{87}\text{Rb}$ ) are cooled in a vacuum chamber ( $2.6 \times 10^{-10}$  Torr) down to a temperature around 25  $\mu\text{K}$  by Doppler and polarization gradient cooling and optically pumped to the ground hyperfine state  $|0\rangle = |5S_{1/2}, F = 2, m_F = 2\rangle$ . The optical tweezer array system uses a spatial light modulator

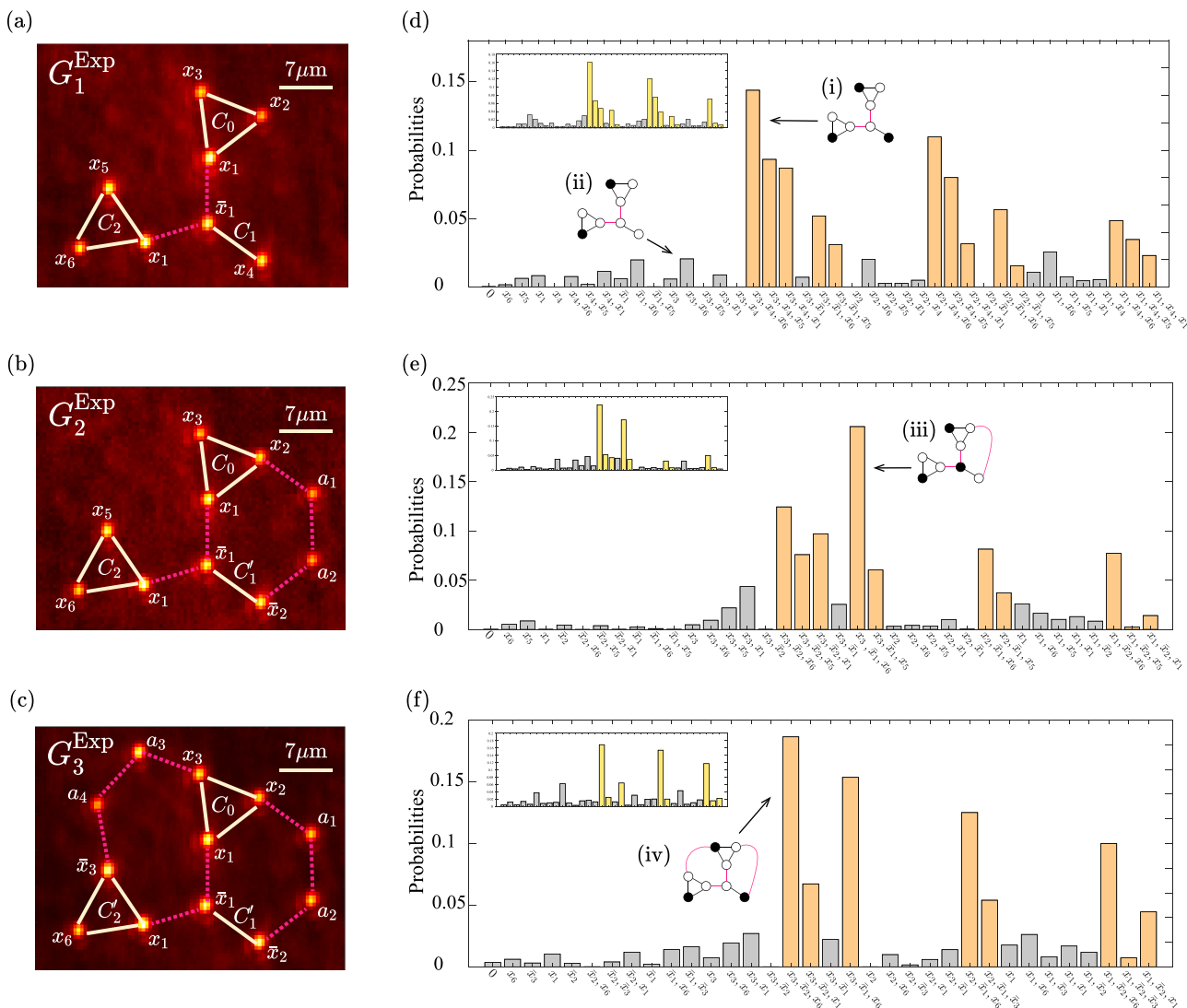


FIG. 2. (a) Experimental MIS graph  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$ , (b)  $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$ , and (c)  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$  of literal atoms ( $x_1, \dots, x_6$ ) and quantum wire atoms ( $a_1, \dots, a_4$ ). (d) Maximum likelihood probabilities of  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$  experiments, where the  $x$  axis denotes literal atoms in  $|1\rangle$  in each binary configuration. (e)  $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$  experiments. (f)  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$  experiments. For example, the peak (i) corresponds to  $|x_1 x_2 x_3; x_4; x_5 x_6\rangle = |001; 1; 001\rangle$ , (ii)  $|001; 0; 001\rangle$ , (iii)  $|x_1 x_2 x_3; x_5 x_6\rangle = |001; 01\rangle$ , and (iv)  $|x_1 x_2 x_3; x_6\rangle = |001; 1\rangle$ . Insets in (d)–(f) show numerical simulations with  $\gamma = 30$  ( $2\pi$ ) kHz of laser phase and dephasing noise taken into account.

(Meadowlarks ODPDM512) and an off-resonant 820-nm laser (a Ti:sapphire CW laser from Avesta) to produce a three-dimensional array of optical tweezers which capture single atoms and arrange them at target positions. The distance of all edged atoms is  $d = 7.0 \mu\text{m}$ , which is smaller than Rydberg blockade distance  $r_B = 10 \mu\text{m}$ . The van der Waals interaction of the edged atoms at is  $U/(2\pi) = 8.70$  MHz. The Rydberg excitation laser system excites the ground-state atoms to the Rydberg state  $|1\rangle = |71S_{1/2}, m_J = 1/2\rangle$  by the two-photon process through the near-resonant intermediate state  $|i\rangle = |5P_{3/2}, F' = 3, m'_F = 3\rangle$ , utilizing 780-nm (a homemade external-cavity diode laser) and 480-nm (Toptica TA-SHG Pro) lasers, of which the laser frequencies are stabilized down to a narrow linewidth of  $<30$  ( $2\pi$ ) kHz with a proportional-integral-derivative (PID) controller (Toptica FALC 110) and an ultralow

expansion (ULE) cavity (Stable Laser Systems, finesse 15 000). The two-photon Rabi frequency at the intensity peak of the lasers is  $\Omega_0 = \Omega_{0i}\Omega_{i1}/2\Delta_m = 1$  ( $2\pi$ ) MHz, where  $\Omega_{0i} = 93$  ( $2\pi$ ) MHz and  $\Omega_{i1} = 14$  ( $2\pi$ ) MHz are the one-photon Rabi frequencies for the  $|0\rangle\text{--}|i\rangle$  and  $|i\rangle\text{--}|1\rangle$  transitions, respectively, and  $\Delta_m = 660$  ( $2\pi$ ) MHz is the intermediate detuning. The detection apparatus combines an electron-multiplying charge-coupled device (Andor iXon Ultra 897) and an electrically tunable lens (ETL, EL-16-40-TC of Optotune) to image the fluorescence of ground-state single atoms via the  $|5S_{1/2}, F = 2\rangle\text{--}|5P_{3/2}, F = 3\rangle$  transition.

The experimental procedure of the quantum computing of the 3-SAT problem starts with an experimental MIS graph, chosen among  $G_{1,2,3}^{\text{Exp}}$ , of atoms arranged with optical tweezers and initially prepared in  $|0\rangle^{\otimes |G|}$ . After we turn off all the optical tweezers, we turn on Rydberg excitation and adiabatically

TABLE I. Many-body ground states of  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$ ,  $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$ , and  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$  graphs represented in symmetric base states defined by  $|S_1\rangle = (|001; 01; 100\rangle + |010; 01; 100\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ ,  $|S_2\rangle = (|001; 01; 001\rangle + |001; 01; 010\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ ,  $|S_3\rangle = (|001; 10; 001\rangle + |001; 10; 010\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ ,  $|S_4\rangle = (|010; 01; 001\rangle + |010; 01; 010\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ ,  $|S_5\rangle = (|010; 10; 001\rangle + |010; 10; 010\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ , and  $|S_6\rangle = (|100; 01; 001\rangle + |100; 01; 010\rangle)/\sqrt{2}$ .

Graph	State representation	Many-body ground states of $\hat{H}(G_{1,2,3}^{\text{Exp}})$ in their MIS phase
$G_1^{\text{Exp}}$	$ x_1x_2x_3; \bar{x}_1x_4; x_1x_5x_6\rangle$	$\sqrt{\frac{49}{200}}( S_2\rangle +  S_4\rangle) + \sqrt{\frac{9}{50}}( S_1\rangle +  S_6\rangle)$ $+ \sqrt{\frac{3}{50}} 100; 01; 100\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{9}{200}}( S_3\rangle +  S_5\rangle)$
$G_2^{\text{Exp}}$	$ x_1x_2x_3; \bar{x}_1\bar{x}_2; x_1x_5x_6\rangle \otimes  a_1a_2\rangle$	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{50}} S_3\rangle \otimes (\sqrt{\frac{18}{10}} 01\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{63}{10}} 10\rangle) + \sqrt{\frac{3}{500}} S_5\rangle \otimes  01\rangle$ $+ (\sqrt{\frac{197}{500}} S_2\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{107}{500}} S_6\rangle) \otimes  10\rangle$ $+ (\sqrt{\frac{131}{1000}} 001; 01; 100\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{93}{1000}} 100; 01; 100\rangle) \otimes  10\rangle$
$G_3^{\text{Exp}}$	$ x_1x_2x_3; \bar{x}_1\bar{x}_2; x_1\bar{x}_3x_6\rangle \otimes  a_1a_2\rangle \otimes  a_3a_4\rangle$	$\sqrt{\frac{1}{1000}} 001; 10; 001\rangle \otimes (\sqrt{46} 01\rangle + \sqrt{53} 10\rangle) \otimes  01\rangle$ $+ \sqrt{\frac{46}{1000}} 010; 10; 001\rangle \otimes  01\rangle \otimes ( 01\rangle +  10\rangle)$ $+ \sqrt{\frac{17}{1000}} 010; 10; 010\rangle \otimes  01\rangle \otimes  10\rangle$ $+ (\sqrt{\frac{121}{1000}} 001; 01; 001\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{65}{1000}} 001; 01; 100\rangle) \otimes  10\rangle \otimes  01\rangle$ $+ \sqrt{\frac{46}{1000}} 100; 01; 010\rangle \otimes  10\rangle \otimes  10\rangle$ $+ (\sqrt{\frac{4}{25}} 100; 01; 001\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{3}{25}} 100; 01; 100\rangle) \otimes  10\rangle \otimes ( 01\rangle +  10\rangle)$

change the Hamiltonian from  $\hat{H}(\Delta = -0.7\Delta_0, \Omega = 0, t = 0)$  for the paramagnetic phase to  $\hat{H}(\Delta = \Delta_0, \Omega = 0, t = t_f)$  for the MIS phase, along the control path denoted in the phase diagram [27,28] in Fig. 3. The control parameters  $\Omega$  and  $\Delta$  are changed with a radio-frequency synthesizer (Moglabs XRF) and acousto-optic modulators (AOMs) in a method similar to that introduced in Refs. [22,23], with  $\Omega_0/(2\pi) = 1.0$  MHz,  $\Delta_0/(2\pi) = 5$  MHz, and  $t_f = 2.88$   $\mu$ s. After the quantum annealing, all optical tweezers are turned back to recapture resulting ground-state atoms, which are then imaged to record a resulting experimental MIS solution. The above

procedure is repeated  $M = 5235, 5000,$  and  $8000$  times for  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}, G_2^{\text{Exp}},$  and  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$  graphs, respectively, to obtain the probability distribution of all  $2^{|G|}$  binary-spin configurations of all atoms.

## V. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Experimental results are shown in Figs. 2(d)–2(f) for  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}, G_2^{\text{Exp}},$  and  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$ , respectively, where the experimentally most likely probabilities are plotted for all binary configurations of literal atoms with the  $x$  axis denoting atoms in  $|1\rangle$  only, and all antiblockade atom configurations (of little probabili-

TABLE II. Atom positions of  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}, G_2^{\text{Exp}}, G_3^{\text{Exp}},$  and  $G_1^{\text{Alt}}$ .

Graphs	Atom positions ( $x, y, z$ ) ( $\mu$ m)			
$G_1^{\text{Exp}}$	$x_1:$	$(-1.51, -0.97, 0)$	$x_2:$	$(4.01, -5.28, 0)$
	$x_3:$	$(-2.49, -7.90, 0)$	$\bar{x}_1:$	$(-1.70, 6.03, 0)$
	$x_4:$	$(4.09, 9.97, 0)$	$x_1:$	$(-8.47, 7.80, 0)$
	$x_5:$	$(-12.35, 1.97, 0)$	$x_6:$	$(-15.46, 8.24, 0)$
$G_2^{\text{Exp}}$	$x_1:$	$(-1.51, -0.97, 0)$	$x_2:$	$(4.01, -5.28, 0)$
	$x_3:$	$(-2.49, -7.90, 0)$	$\bar{x}_1:$	$(-1.50, 6.03, 0)$
	$\bar{x}_2:$	$(4.09, 9.97, 0)$	$x_1:$	$(-8.47, 7.80, 0)$
	$x_5:$	$(-12.35, 1.97, 0)$	$x_6:$	$(-15.46, 8.24, 0)$
	$a_1:$	$(9.69, -1.20, 0)$	$a_2:$	$(9.71, 5.80, 0)$
$G_3^{\text{Exp}}$	$x_1:$	$(-1.51, -0.97, 0)$	$x_2:$	$(4.01, -5.28, 0)$
	$x_3:$	$(-2.49, -7.90, 0)$	$\bar{x}_1:$	$(-1.50, 6.03, 0)$
	$\bar{x}_2:$	$(4.09, 9.97, 0)$	$x_1:$	$(-8.47, 7.80, 0)$
	$\bar{x}_3:$	$(-12.35, 1.97, 0)$	$x_6:$	$(-15.46, 8.24, 0)$
	$a_1:$	$(9.69, -1.20, 0)$	$a_2:$	$(9.71, 5.80, 0)$
	$a_3:$	$(-9.05, -10.36, 0)$	$a_4:$	$(-13.50, -4.93, 0)$
$G_1^{\text{Alt}}$	$x_1:$	$(-7.20, 0.03, 0)$	$x_2:$	$(-13.44, 3.60, 0)$
	$x_3:$	$(-13.44, -3.60, 0)$	$\bar{x}_1:$	$(0, 0, 0)$
	$x_4:$	$(3.60, 0, 6.24)$	$x_1:$	$(3.60, 0, -6.24)$
	$x_5:$	$(3.60, 0, -13.44)$	$x_6:$	$(9.84, 0, -9.84)$

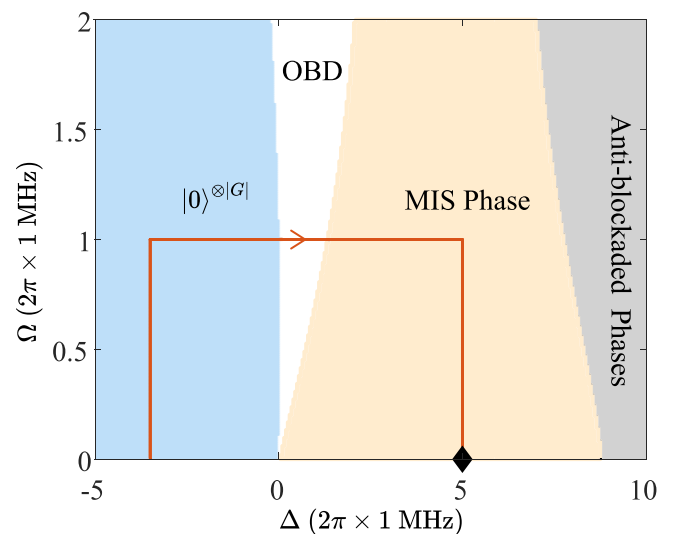


FIG. 3. Phase diagram of  $\hat{H}(G_1^{\text{Exp}})$  with the control path is shown with an arrow from the paramagnetic phase via the order-by-disorder (OBD) phase to the MIS phase. The phase diagrams of  $\hat{H}(G_2^{\text{Exp}})$  and  $\hat{H}(G_3^{\text{Exp}})$  are similar.

ties) are omitted for the sake of presentation. The maximum likelihood probability calculation [29] assumed state preparation and measurement (SPAM) errors [30],  $P(1 | 0) = 3.9\%$  and  $P(0 | 1) = 7.9\%$ , which are experimentally calibrated. Also the Rydberg quantum-wire compilation method [23] is used to impose the antiferromagnetic atom chain condition,  $|a_1 a_2\rangle$  and  $|a_3 a_4\rangle = |01\rangle$  or  $|10\rangle$  among collected experimental data. In Figs. 2(d)–2(f), orange bars are the 3-SAT solution states with one atom excited in each clause, while gray bars are nonsolution states. For example, in Fig. 2(d) for  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$ , the maximal peak (i) of  $|x_1, x_2, x_3; \bar{x}_1 x_4; x_1, x_5, x_6\rangle = |001; 01; 001\rangle$  is a 3-SAT solution and the peak (ii) of  $|001; 00; 001\rangle$ , in which two atoms in  $C_1$  and  $C_0$  are excited but none in  $C_1$ , is not a solution. Similarly, most of the dominant peaks in Figs. 2(d)–2(f) are verified to be 3-SAT solutions, which are orange colored, e.g.,  $\{x_1, x_4, x_1\}$ ,  $\{x_1, x_4, x_5\}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\{x_3, x_4, x_6\}$  for  $\Psi_1$ ,  $\{x_1, \bar{x}_2, x_1\}$ ,  $\{x_1, \bar{x}_2, x_5\}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\{x_3, \bar{x}_2, x_6\}$  for  $\Psi_2$ , and  $\{x_1, \bar{x}_2, x_1\}$ ,  $\{x_1, \bar{x}_2, \bar{x}_3\}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\{x_3, \bar{x}_2, x_6\}$  for  $\Psi_3$ .

For comparison, the insets of Figs. 2(d)–2(f) show a numerical simulation of the same physical process traced with a Lindbladian equation taking into account experimental error sources such as the spontaneous decay rate ( $\gamma/2\pi = 30$  kHz) and laser phase noise. The numerical simulations are conducted to compare our experimental results of the experimental graphs  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$ ,  $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$ , and  $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$ . We take into account the spontaneous decay from the intermediate state  $|i\rangle$ , in calculating the Lindblad equation given by

$$\frac{d\rho}{dt} = -\frac{i}{\hbar}[H, \rho] + \sum_{j=1}^N \left( L_j \rho L_j^\dagger - \frac{1}{2}\{L_j^\dagger L_j, \rho\} \right), \quad (5)$$

where  $\rho$  is the density matrix,  $H$  is the system Hamiltonian, and  $L_j = \sqrt{\gamma_i/2}\sigma_z^{(j)}$  is the Lindblad operator. For our detuning from  $|i\rangle$  and the Rabi frequencies, the scattering rate to  $|i\rangle$  is estimated to be  $\gamma = (2\pi) 30$  kHz. Then the numerical calculation is conducted with the Monte Carlo method to consider the laser phase noise, according to a measured spectral density of the noise which is about  $10^4$  rad<sup>2</sup>/Hz in the range of the MHz. We also consider the nonuniform Rabi frequencies of the individual atoms, which are 85%–99.8% from the Rabi frequency at the laser beam center, due to the finite diameter of 50  $\mu\text{m}$  and the fluctuation of atom positions  $\delta x = 0.1$   $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $\delta y = 0.1$   $\mu\text{m}$ ,  $\delta z = 0.6$   $\mu\text{m}$  [17]. The difference between the simulation and experiment is attributed to mainly the distance error between atoms and the laser beam center, which results in nonuniform Rabi frequencies of atoms in Eq. (3).

Finally we determine whether the satisfiability of a 3-SAT instance is experimentally checkable, i.e., whether the total probability of the MIS solution states is measured higher than the corresponding random guess probability. In random guessing, we can substitute all possible  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6\}$  cases to  $\Psi_1$ ,  $\Psi_2$ , and  $\Psi_3$ . However, as  $x_4$  is a do-not-care term in the  $\Psi_2$  and  $\Psi_3$  cases and similarly  $x_5$  is a do-not-care term in the  $\Psi_3$  case only, all  $\{x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4, x_5, x_6\}$ 's are applicable to  $\Psi_2$ , and  $\Psi_3$  as well as  $\Psi_1$ . Numerical simulation finds that the random guessing probabilities are 53.13%, 53.13%, and 50% for  $\Psi_1$ ,  $\Psi_2$ , and  $\Psi_3$ , respectively. In our experiments, the probabilities of the orange bars in Fig. 2(d) for  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$

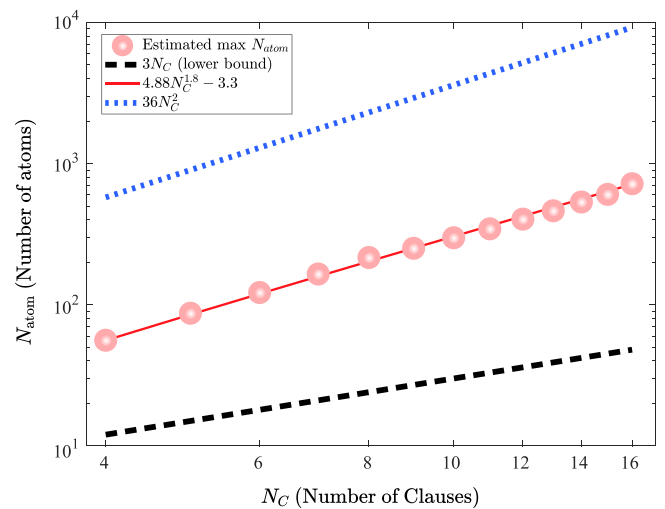


FIG. 4. Estimation of the required number of atoms for MIS graphs mapped from 3-SAT problems. The lower bound is estimated from 3-SAT instances with no negation literal pairs and restricted to  $3N_C$  (black dashed line). The upper bound is calculated from 3-SAT instances with maximal negation literal pairs (red dots) and scaled to  $4.88N_C^{1.8}$  (solid line). It is also compared with the scaling result when the “crossing lattice” scheme is used (blue dotted line).

are summed to be 81%, significantly higher than the random guess probability 53.13% of this instance. Likewise, the satisfiabilities of  $\Psi_2$  and  $\Psi_3$  are sufficiently evaluable with the measured probabilities 78% ( $G_2^{\text{Exp}}$ ) and 74% ( $G_3^{\text{Exp}}$ ), higher than 53.13% and 50% of these instances, respectively.

## VI. DISCUSSION

While all MIS graphs are in principle implementable in the three-dimensional space with quantum wires [17], it is worthwhile to discuss the scaling issue of the Rydberg atom approach to the 3-SAT problem. First, we estimate the number of atoms,  $N_A$ , necessary for general 3-SAT instances. For a Boolean expression that has  $N_C$  clauses, the lower bound is  $N_A \gtrsim 3N_C$ . The upper bound is the case of maximal literal-negation pairs, as the corresponding MIS graph has maximal interclause interactions. Physical implementation requires auxiliary atoms using either the “crossing lattice” scheme [31] or the “quantum wire” scheme [17], both of which have recently been suggested and are experimentally demonstrable. In the “crossing lattice” scheme, each vertex is transformed to an atom chain on a 2D surface, and the interactions between the vertices are implemented with “crossing gadgets” of at most 8 atoms. So, the upper bound of  $N_A$  is estimated to be  $36N_C^2$  for a  $3N_C$ -vertex nonunit disk graph with arbitrary connectivity. In the “quantum wire” scheme, we numerically estimate the upper bound of the required number of atoms for implementing the MIS graphs as in Fig. 4, where we assume all interclause interactions are implemented with quantum wires consisting of an average of 4 atoms. The upper bound of the total number of atoms scales as  $\sim 4.88N_C^{1.8}$ , obtained from the curve fit of calculated values (solid line), being compared with the scaling of the “crossing lattice” scheme (blue dotted line). So, in the “quantum wire” scheme,

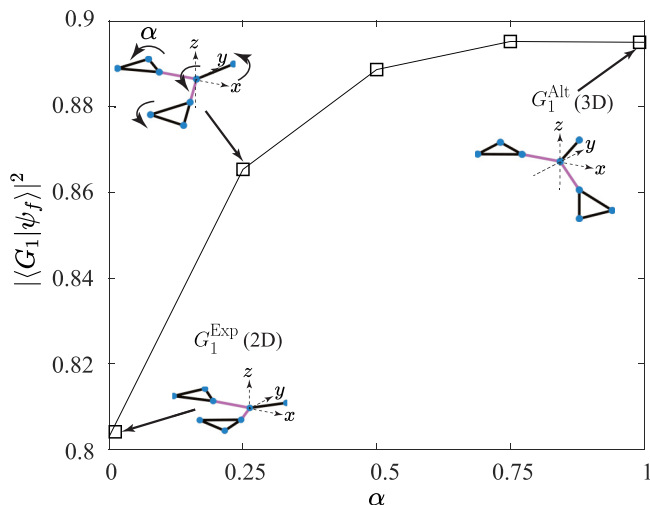


FIG. 5. Ground-state fidelity  $|(G_1|\psi_f)|^2$  according to the structural deformation from  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$  to  $G_1^{\text{Alt}}$  with respect to a normalized rotation angle  $\alpha$ .

the required number of total atoms is numerically estimated to be upper-bounded by a scaling of  $N_C^{1.8}$  for the case of maximal literal-negation pairs and linear to  $N_C$  for the case of maximum degree 6 in 3D [32].

We can estimate the experimental time budget to access a large-scale 3-SAT problem. The probability to successfully obtain the solutions of the 3-SAT problem, after  $M$  experimental repetitions, is given by

$$P_s(p, M) = \sum_{j=1}^M (1-p)^{j-1} p = 1 - (1-p)^M, \quad (6)$$

where  $p$  is the ground-state probability of the corresponding MIS graph of  $N_A$  atoms. With the experimental scaling  $p \sim 1.04^{-N_A}$  of a state-of-the-art experimental platform [18], the ground-state probability of an  $N_A = 400$  MIS graph is estimated to be  $p(N_A = 400) \sim 10^{-7}$ . The required number of repetitions to achieve  $P_s > 20\%$ , for example, is given by  $M > \log_{10} 0.8 / \log_{10}(1-p)$ , which estimates about  $M \sim 10^6$  experimental repetitions. So, an  $N_A = 400$  MIS graph experiment, which can serve 3-SAT instances with approximately 12 ~ 140 clauses, would take one week in the typical repetition rate of 2 ~ 3 Hz of the current experimental platforms.

Technical improvements can be considered for future experiments, which include three-dimensional Rydberg atom graphs and adiabatic control path optimization. First, the fidelity of the many-body ground state depends on the residual interactions between the atoms placed outside the blockade distance  $d_B$ , which are small but not zero. So arranging atoms in the full three-dimensional space would be useful to describe the Hamiltonian  $\hat{H}(G)$  as exactly as possible so that the long-range interactions are minimized. In Fig. 5, we calculate the fidelity  $|(H(G_1^{\text{Exp}})|\Psi_f)|^2$ , where  $|H(G_1^{\text{Exp}})\rangle$  is the analytic many-body ground state of  $H(G_1^{\text{Exp}})$  and  $|\Psi_f\rangle$  is the numerically estimated final many-body state after the quasia-diabatic evolution under our experimental condition (without decoherence taken into account). For the experimental graph  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$  in 2D, the fidelity is estimated to be 81%, due to the

contribution of long-range residual Rydberg interactions among atoms spaced beyond the Rydberg blockade radius. In our atomic arrangements for  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$ , the average strength of the residual interactions is  $\langle U_{\text{res}} \rangle / 2\pi = 0.64$  MHz, and their distribution is asymmetric. However, we can transform the structure of  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$  to an alternative graph  $G_1^{\text{Alt}}$ , which is more symmetric in geometry (see Table II for atomic positions). A structural transformation is conducted as in Fig. 5, by rotating the clauses  $C_0$ ,  $C_1$ , and  $C_2$  with respect to the edges from the literal atom  $\bar{x}_1$  (central atom), respectively. These geometric changes are parametrized to a normalized rotation angle  $\alpha$  (0 at  $G_1^{\text{Exp}}$ , and 1 at  $G_1^{\text{Alt}}$ ). For the graph  $G_1^{\text{Alt}}$ , the average residual interaction strength is reduced to  $\langle U_{\text{res}} \rangle / 2\pi = 0.40$  MHz. Then it is found that the ground-state fidelity  $|(H(G_1^{\text{Exp}})|\Psi_f)|^2$  after the same quasia-diabatic evolution is improved to 90%. So three-dimensional atom allocations have more degrees of freedom for better experimental performances. Figure 5 shows the improvement of the ground-state fidelity  $|(G_1|\psi_f)|^2$  during the structural transformation. We expect to compare the experimental fidelity of the suggested 3D atomic graph  $G_1^{\text{Alt}}$  in the near future, though we cannot currently make the experimental consistency between 2D and 3D graphs. The existing experimental errors such as the hardness of preparing the uniform 3D traps and imaging them are to be overcome.

Adiabatic control path optimization can be also considered. For example, along the Hamiltonian path in Fig. 3, the optimal time schedule of the annealing path  $\Delta(t)$  during the constant  $\Omega(t)$  might be other than the linear ramps due to the structure of the eigenenergy landscape in the control path. One way to find a time schedule for obtaining better ground-state probability is to apply an adiabaticity parameter  $\gamma = |\delta E^2(t) / \Delta(t)|$ , where  $\delta E(t)$  is the energy gap between the ground and the first excited eigenstates at  $t$ . Then the proper time schedule of  $\Delta(t)$  can be found within a regime of  $\gamma \gg 1$  for all  $t$  [33]. For larger and more complex problem instances in which the energy gaps are hard to be known, closed-loop optimization methods might be applied. An ansatz of the control path is initially guessed, then updated according to the overlap of the ground state of the system. The recently suggested approaches of closed-loop optimizations are using genetic [34] and variational [35] methods. In the genetic approach, the time schedule  $\Delta(t)$  is often modeled to a polynomial ansatz, then the coefficients of the polynomial are found to optimize the ground-state probability after the adiabatic evolution. In the variational approach, the entire time window for adiabatic evolution is divided into several chunks. For  $L$  chunks, the detunings  $\Delta_i$  in each chunk where  $i \in \{1, \dots, L\}$  are to be found. The annealing path becomes the piecewise linear sweeps between adjacent detunings  $\Delta_i$ .

## VII. CONCLUSION

In summary, Rydberg atom interactions have been used to encode and solve the 3-SAT problem, a task involving determining the satisfiability of a Boolean function. The proposed Rydberg 3-SAT algorithm achieves this by constructing a general Boolean function using the three types of building blocks: Rydberg atom dimers, trimers, and quantum wires. The satisfiability of the function is then ascertained by searching

for its ground state within the structured Rydberg atom arrangement. Consequently, this implementation of the 3-SAT problem through a Rydberg atom graph has the potential to encode various decision-based computational challenges associated with NP problems. It is noted that the presented proof-of-principle experiments do not imply computational advantage over classical heuristic solvers. Instead, their value lies in surpassing classical brute force methods. To advance the Rydberg atom approach toward quantum computing

further, not only technical improvements of Rydberg atom experiments but also quantum-classical combined algorithmic developments are warranted.

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