

1. An instance of the 3-SAT problem is often given as a set of clauses $S = \{C_1, \dots, C_n\}$. Each clause C_i is a set of three literals l_i^1 , l_i^2 , and l_i^3 . A literal is either an atom $A \in \{A_1, \dots, A_m\}$ or its negation $\neg A$. For the sake of simplicity, we assume that $n \geq 2$ and $m \geq 2$ (we can add $\{A_1, \neg A_1, A_2\}$ and $\{A_2, \neg A_2, A_1\}$ to S without affecting the satisfiability of S).

To show that exact inference in Bayesian networks is NP-hard, we should somehow solve the problem of satisfying S using exact inference in a Bayesian network $N(S)$ constructed from S .

Consider a Bayesian network $N(S)$ with Boolean variables A_1, \dots, A_m for atoms, C_1, \dots, C_n for clauses and S_2, \dots, S_n for conjunctions of the clauses so that S_i is to be true whenever C_1, \dots, C_i are true.

The CPTs associated with these nodes are constructed as follows.

- A node A_i associated with an atom A_i does not have parents and

$$P(a_i) = P(\neg a_i) = \frac{1}{2}.$$

- A node C_j associated with a clause C_j depends directly on the k atoms appearing in its literals; $1 \leq k \leq 3$. The node is deterministic (logical or) so that at most one of the 2^k truth value combinations assigned to its parents makes C_j false. As regards CPT entries, $P(c_j) = 0$ for that combination and $P(c_j) = 1$ for others.
- The node S_2 depends on C_1 and C_2 and $P(s_2 \mid c_1, c_2) = 1$ and $P(s_2) = 0$ otherwise. Thus S_2 is also a deterministic node (logical and). Quite similarly, when $i > 2$, S_i depends on S_{i-1} and C_i . The CPT associated with S_i is defined by $P(s_i \mid s_{i-1}, c_i) = 1$ and $P(s_i) = 0$ for other combinations.

Now we have the following interconnection: the 3-SAT instance S is unsatisfiable if and only if $P(s_n) = 0$. It is also important to note that $N(S)$ can be constructed in time polynomial to the *length* of S (number of symbols needed to represent S as a string). To this end, it is really necessary to introduce S_2, \dots, S_n . If we tried to replace these Boolean variables by a single variable S , the respective CPT in $N(S)$ would become exponential in n (which depends linearly on the length of S). The moral is that we can save space substantially by introducing auxiliary variables.

2. (a) Obviously, we have $\sum_{i=1}^k p_i = 1$. The cumulative distribution for $1 \leq j \leq k$ is obtained by summing up the first j probability values:

$$P(X \in \{x_1, \dots, x_j\}) = \sum_{i=1}^j P(X = x_i) = \sum_{i=1}^j p_j.$$

This distribution can be calculated for each j as follows (assuming an array $p[1 \dots k]$ of the probability values):

$$\text{for } j = 1 \text{ to } k \text{ do } cp[j] := p[j] + cp[j - 1];$$

A sample for X is obtained in time linear to k as follows:

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r := random();
i := 1;
while cp[i] < r and i < k do i := i + 1;
sample := x[i];

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Here the array $x[1 \dots k]$ contains the discrete values of X . The search for the correct index value i can be boosted by binary search ($\log_2 k$ time can be achieved).

- (b) Create an array $\text{index}[1 \dots N]$ of index values $1 \dots k$ so that for each $1 \leq i \leq k$ there are $\text{round}(p_i \times N)$ copies of i successively in the array. Then shuffle the array by doing N exchange operations:

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for j = 1 to N do
  { i := round(random() × (N + 1 - j)) + (j - 1);
    c := index[j]; index[j] := index[i]; index[i] := c; }

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Individual samples are generated by executing for each j in the range from 1 to N an assignment $\text{sample} := x[\text{index}[j]]$. The distribution obtained in this way may appear too “perfect” for small N but nevertheless this might be a good approximation to use.

Another possibility is to create an array $\text{samples}[1 \dots M]$ that contains for each $1 \leq i \leq k$, $\text{round}(p_i \times M)$ successive copies of x_i . An individual sample is obtained by executing

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sample := samples[round(random() × M)].

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About the choice of M : one possibility is that $M \approx N$, or alternatively $M \ll N$, e.g., if $p_i \times M$ values turn out to be integers. The quality of the resulting distribution of X is now tightly connected to that of $\text{random}()$.

For the sake of simplicity, it is assumed above that $\text{round}(\text{random}() \times n)$ gives us a random integer in the range $1 \dots n$.