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# Survivable Network Design for Group Connectivity in Low-Treewidth Graphs 

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#### Abstract

In the Group Steiner Tree problem (GST), we are given a (edge or vertex)-weighted graph $G=(V, E)$ on $n$ vertices, together with a root vertex $r$ and a collection of groups $\left\{S_{i}\right\}_{i \in[h]}: S_{i} \subseteq$ $V(G)$. The goal is to find a minimum-cost subgraph $H$ that connects the root to every group. We consider a fault-tolerant variant of GST, which we call Restricted (Rooted) Group SNDP. In this setting, each group $S_{i}$ has a demand $k_{i} \in[k], k \in \mathbb{N}$, and we wish to find a minimum-cost subgraph $H \subseteq G$ such that, for each group $S_{i}$, there is a vertex in the group that is connected to the root via $k_{i}$ (vertex or edge) disjoint paths.

While GST admits $O\left(\log ^{2} n \log h\right)$ approximation, its higher connectivity variants are known to be Label-Cover hard, and for the vertex-weighted version, the hardness holds even when $k=2$ (it is widely believed that there is no subpolynomial approximation for the Label-Cover problem [Bellare et al., STOC 1993]). More precisely, the problem admits no $2^{\log ^{1-\epsilon} n}$-approximation unless NP $\subseteq \operatorname{DTIME}\left(n^{\text {polylog(n) }}\right)$. Previously, positive results were known only for the edgeweighted version when $k=2$ [Gupta et al., SODA 2010; Khandekar et al., Theor. Comput. Sci., 2012] and for a relaxed variant where $k_{i}$ disjoint paths from $r$ may end at different vertices in a group [Chalermsook et al., SODA 2015], for which the authors gave a bicriteria approximation. For $k \geq 3$, there is no non-trivial approximation algorithm known for edge-weighted Restricted Group SNDP, except for the special case of the relaxed variant on trees (folklore).

Our main result is an $O(\log n \log h)$ approximation algorithm for Restricted Group SNDP that runs in time $n^{f(k, w)}$, where $w$ is the treewidth of the input graph. Our algorithm works for both edge and vertex weighted variants, and the approximation ratio nearly matches the lower


[^0]bound when $k$ and $w$ are constants. The key to achieving this result is a non-trivial extension of a framework introduced in [Chalermsook et al., SODA 2017]. This framework first embeds all feasible solutions to the problem into a dynamic program (DP) table. However, finding the optimal solution in the DP table remains intractable. We formulate a linear program relaxation for the DP and obtain an approximate solution via randomized rounding. This framework also allows us to systematically construct DP tables for high-connectivity problems. As a result, we present new exact algorithms for several variants of survivable network design problems in low-treewidth graphs.

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## 1 Introduction

Network design is an important subject in computer science and combinatorial optimization. The goal in network design is to build a network that meets some prescribed properties while minimizing the construction cost. Survivable network design problems (SNDP) are a class of problems where we wish to design a network that is resilient against link or node failures.

These problems have been phrased as optimization problems on graphs, where we are given an $n$-vertex (undirected or directed) graph $G=(V, E)$ with costs on edges or vertices together with a connectivity requirement $k: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{N}$. The goal is to find a minimum-cost subgraph $H \subseteq G$, such that every pair $u, v \in V$ of vertices are connected by $k(u, v)$ edgedisjoint (resp., openly vertex-disjoint) paths. In other words, we wish to design a network in which every pair of vertices remains connected (unless $k(u, v)=0$ ), even after removing $k(u, v)-1$ edges (or vertices). The edge-connectivity version of SNDP (EC-SNDP) models the existence of link failures and the vertex-connectivity (VC-SNDP) models the existence of both link and node failures. These two problems were known to be NP-hard and have received a lot of attention in the past decades (see, e.g., $[26,16,31,33]$ ).

While VC-SNDP and EC-SNDP address the questions that arise from designing telecommunication networks, another direction of research focuses on the questions that arise from media broadcasting as in cable television or streaming services. In this case, we may wish to connect the global server to a single local server in each community, who will forward the
stream to all the clients in the area through their own local network. The goal here is slightly different from the usual SNDP, as it is not required to construct a network that spans every client; instead, we simply need to choose a local server (or representative), which will take care of connecting to other clients in the same group. This scenario motivates the Group Steiner Tree problem (GST) and its fault-tolerant variant, the Rooted Group SNDP.

In Rooted Group SNDP, we are given a graph $G=(V, E)$ with costs on edges or vertices, a root vertex $r$, and a collection of subsets of vertices called groups, $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{h}$, together with connectivity demands $k_{1}, \ldots, k_{h} \in[k], k \in \mathbb{N}$. The goal in this problem is to find a minimum cost subgraph $H \subseteq G$ such that $H$ has $k_{i}$ edge-disjoint (or openly vertex-disjoint) paths connecting the root vertex $r$ to some vertex $v_{i} \in S_{i}$, for all $i \in[h]$. In other words, we wish to choose one representative from each group and find a subgraph of $G$ such that each representative is $k$-edge-(or vertex)-connected to the root.

When $k=1$, the problem becomes the well-known Group Steiner Tree (GST) problem. Here, we are given a graph $G=(V, E)$ with edge or vertex costs, a root $r$ and a collection of subsets of vertices called groups, $S_{1}, \ldots, S_{h} \subseteq V$, and the goal is to find a minimum-cost subgraph $H \subseteq G$ that has a path to some vertex in each $S_{i}$, for $i \in[h]$. The GST problem is known to admit an $O\left(\log ^{3} n\right)$-approximation algorithm [22] and cannot be approximated to a factor of $\log ^{2-\epsilon} n$ unless NP $\subseteq \operatorname{ZPTIME}\left(n^{\text {polylog(n) }}\right)$ [25].

The Rooted Group SNDP generalizes GST to handle fault tolerance. The case where $k=2$ is studied in [27, 23], culminating in the $\tilde{O}\left(\log ^{4} n\right)$-approximation algorithm for the problem. For $k \geq 3$, there is no known non-trivial approximation algorithm. It is known among the experts that this problem is at least as hard as the Label-Cover problem ${ }^{2}$.

Chalermsook, Grandoni and Laekhanukit [13] studied a relaxed version of the problem in which we are not restricted to connect to a single vertex in each group and thus need only $k_{i}$ edge-disjoint paths connecting the root vertex to the whole group $S_{i}$. Despite being a relaxed condition, the problem remains as hard as the Label-Cover problem, and they only managed to design a bicriteria approximation algorithm.

To date, there is no known bicriteria or even sub-exponential-time poly-logarithmic approximation for Rooted Group SNDP when $k \geq 3$. The following is an intriguing open question:

What are the settings (i.e., ranges of $k$ or graph classes) in which Rooted Group SNDP admits a poly-logarithmic approximation?

In this paper, we focus on developing algorithmic techniques to approach the above question. We design poly-logarithmic algorithms for a special class of graphs - graphs with bounded treewidth - in the hope that it will shed some light towards solving the problem on a more general class of graphs, for instance, planar graphs (this is the case for the Steiner tree problem, where a sub-exponential-time algorithm for planar graphs is derived via decomposition into low-tree width instances [32]).

Our main technical building block is a dynamic program (DP) that solves rooted versions of EC-SNDP and VC-SNDP in bounded-treewidth graphs. However, a straightforward DP computation is not applicable for Restricted Rooted Group SNDP, simply because the problem is NP-hard on trees (so it is unlikely to admit a polynomial-size DP-table). Hence, we "embed" the DP table into a tree and apply a polylogarithmic approximation algorithm using randomized rounding of a suitable LP-formulation by Chalermsook et al. [12]. We remark that when the cost is polynomially bounded (e.g., in the Word RAM model with words of size

[^1]$O(\log n)$ ), polynomial-time algorithms for EC-SNDP and VC-SNDP follows from Courcelle's Theorem $[17,6]$ (albeit, with much larger running time). However, employing the theorem as a black-box does not allow us to design approximation algorithms for Restricted Rooted Group SNDP.

To avoid confusion between the relaxed and restricted version of Rooted Group SNDP (usually having the same name in literature), we refer to our problem as Restricted Group SNDP. (For convenience, we also omit the word "rooted".)

### 1.1 Related Work

SNDP problems on restricted graph classes have also been studied extensively. When $k=1$, the problems are relatively well understood. Approximation algorithms and PTAS have been developed for many graph classes: low-treewidth graphs [1, 18], metric-cost graphs [14], Euclidean graphs [9], planar graphs [8], and graphs of bounded genus [7]. However, when $k \geq 2$, the complexity of these problems remains wide open. Borradaile et al. [7, 10] showed an algorithm for $k=1,2,3$ on planar graphs, but under the assumption that one can buy multiple copies of edges (which they called relaxed connectivity setting). Without allowing multiplicity, very little is known when $k \geq 2$ : Czumaj et al. [19] showed a PTAS for $k=2$ in unweighted planar graphs, and Berger et al. [3] showed an exact algorithm running in time $2^{O\left(w^{2}\right)} n$ for the uniform demand case (i.e., $k(u, v)=2$ for all pairs $\left.(u, v)\right)$. Thus, without the relaxed assumption, with non-uniform demands or $k>2$, the complexity of SNDP problems on bounded-treewidth graphs and planar graphs is not adequately understood.

The technique of formulating an LP from a DP table has been used in literature. It is known that any (discrete) DP can be formulated as an LP, which is integral [30]. (For Stochastic DP, please see, e.g., $[29,21,11,20]$.) However, the technique of producing a tree structure out of a DP table is quite rare. Prior to this paper the technique of rounding LP via a tree structure was used in [24] to approximate the Sparsest-Cut problem. The latter algorithm is very similar to us. However, while we embed a graph into a tree via a DP table, their algorithm works directly on the tree decomposition. We remark that our technique is based on the previous work in [12] with almost the same set of authors.

### 1.2 Hardness of Approximating Restricted Group SNDP

As mentioned, it is known among the experts that vertex-cost variant of the Restricted Group SNDP has a simple reduction for the Label-Cover problem and more generally, the $k$ Constraint Satisfaction problem ( $k$-CSP). The original construction was given by Khandekar, Kortsarz and Nutov [27] for the Restricted Group SNDP on directed graphs. However, the same construction applies for the Vertex-Weighted Restricted Group SNDP. The $k$-CSP hardness implies that even for $k_{i} \in\{0,2\}$, Vertex-Weighted Restricted Group SNDP cannot be approximated to within a factor of $2^{\log ^{1-\epsilon} n}$, for any $\epsilon>0$, unless $\operatorname{NP} \subseteq \operatorname{DTIME}\left(n^{\text {polylog(n) }}\right)$, and the approximation hardness is conjectured to be polynomial on $n$, say $n^{\delta}$ for some $0<\delta<1$, under the Sliding Scale Conjecture [2]. So far, we do not know of any non-trivial approximation for this problem for $k \geq 2$.

To be formal, the approximation hardness of Vertex-Weighted Restricted Group SNDP is stated below. While the hardness result is considered a folklore, we are aware that this fact might not be clear for the readers. We provide the proof sketch in the full version of the paper.

- Theorem 1 (Folklore). Consider the Vertex-Weighted Restricted Group SNDP problem when $k_{i}$ are bounded for all $i$. The problem admits no $2^{\log ^{1-\epsilon}}{ }^{n}$-approximation algorithm, for any constant $\epsilon>0$, unless $\mathrm{NP} \subseteq \mathrm{DTIME}\left(n^{\text {polylog(n) }}\right)$. Moreover, assuming the Sliding

Scale Conjecture, there exists a constant $0<\delta<1$ such that the problem admits no $n^{\delta}$ approximation algorithm.

The edge-cost variant has been studied in [27, 23], and a polylogarithmic approximation is known for the case $k=2$ [27]. For $k>3$, there is no known non-trivial approximation algorithm. The relaxed variant where the $k$ disjoint paths from the root may end at different vertices in each group $S_{i}$ has also been studied in [27, 23]. Chalermsook, Grandoni and Laekhanukit proposed a bicriteria approximation algorithm for the Relaxed Restricted Group SNDP [13]; however, their technique is not applicable for the restricted version. Note that the hardness of the edge-cost variant of Relaxed Restricted Group SNDP is $k^{1 / 6-\epsilon}$, for any $\epsilon>0$ [13]. It is not hard to construct the same hardness result for Restricted Group SNDP. We believe that Restricted Group SNDP is strictly harder than the relaxed variant.

### 1.3 Our Results \& Techniques

Our main result is the following approximation result for Restricted Group SNDP.

- Theorem 2. There is a randomized algorithm that runs in time $n^{f(w, k)}$, for some function $f$, and returns, with high probability, a feasible solution to Restricted Group SNDP that has expected cost at the most $O(\log n \log h)$ times the cost of an optimal solution. Moreover, the algorithm works for both edge and vertex weighted variants.

The proof of this theorem relies on the technique introduced in [12]. We give an overview of this technique and highlight how this paper departs from it.

In short, this technique "bridges" the ideas of dynamic program (DP) and randomized LP rounding in two steps ${ }^{3}$. Let us say that we would like to approximate optimization problem. In the first step, a "nice" DP table that captures the computation of the optimal solution is created, and there is a 1-to- 1 correspondence between the DP solution and the solution to the problem. However, since the problem is NP-hard (in our case, even hard to approximate to within some poly-logarithmic factor), we could not follow the standard bottom-up computation of DP solutions. The idea of the second step is to instead write an LP relaxation that captures the computation of the optimal DP solution, and then use a randomized dependent rounding to get an approximate solution instead; the randomized rounding scheme is simply the well-known GKR rounding [22]. Roughly speaking, the size of the DP table is $n \cdot w^{O(w)}$, while the LP relaxation has $n^{O(w \log w)}$ variables and constraints, so we could get an $O(\log n \log h)$ approximation in time $n^{O(w \log w)}$.

The main technical hurdle that prevents us from using this technique to Restricted Group SNDP directly is that there was no systematic way to generate a "good" DP table for arbitrary connectivity demand $k$. (The previous result was already complicated even for $k=1$.) This is where we need to depart from the previous work. We devise a new concept that allows us to systematically create such a DP table for any connectivity demand $k$. Our DP table has size $n \cdot f(k, w)$ for some function $k$ and $w$, and it admits the same randomized rounding scheme in time $n^{g(k, w)}$, therefore yielding the main result.

As by-products, we obtain new DP algorithms for some well-studied variants of SNDP, whose running time depends on the treewidth of the input graph (in particular, $n \cdot f(k, w)$ ).

[^2]Subset connectivity problems: Subset $k$-Connectivity is a well-studied SNDP problem (Subset $k$-EC and Subset $k$-VC for edge and vertex connectivity, respectively). In this setting, all pairs of terminals have the same demands, i.e., $k(u, v)=k$ for all $u, v \in T$. This is a natural generalization of Steiner tree that has received attention [14, 31, 28].

- Theorem 3. There are exact algorithms for Subset $k$-EC and Subset $k$-VC that run in time $f_{1}(k, w) n$ for some function $f_{1}$. This result holds for vertex- or edge-costs.

Rooted SNDP: Another setting that has been studied in the context of vertex connectivity requirements is the Rooted SNDP [15, 31]. In this problem, there is a designated terminal vertex $r \in T$, and all positive connectivity requirements are enforced only between $r$ and other terminals, i.e. $k(u, v)>0$ only if $u=r$ or $v=r$. For the edge connectivity setting, Rooted SNDP captures Subset $k$-EC ${ }^{4}$.

- Theorem 4. There are exact algorithms for Rooted EC-SNDP and Rooted VC-SNDP that run in time $f_{2}(k, w) n$ for some function $f_{2}$. This result holds for costs on vertices or edges.

Further technical overview: Let us illustrate how our approach is used to generate the DP table, amenable for randomized rounding. The following discussion assumes a certain familiarity with the notion of treewidth and DP algorithms in low-treewidth graphs.

Given graph $G=(V, E)$, let $\mathcal{T}$ be a tree decomposition of $G$ having width $w$, i.e. each node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ corresponds to a bag $X_{t} \subseteq V(G):\left|X_{t}\right| \leq w$. Let $\mathcal{T}_{t}$ denote the subtree of $\mathcal{T}$ rooted at $t$. For each $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, let $G_{t}$ denote the subgraph induced on all bags belonging to the subtree of $\mathcal{T}$ rooted at $t$, i.e. $G_{t}=G\left[\bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{T}_{t}} X_{t}\right]$. At a high level, DPs for minimization problems in low-treewidth graphs proceed as follows. Let $\Pi$ denote the set of all possible profiles defined on the basis of some relevant property of the graph. For each node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, there is a profile $\pi_{t} \in \Pi$, and we define a DP cell $c\left[t, \pi_{t}\right]$ for each possible such profile, which stores the minimum-cost of a solution (a subgraph of $G_{t}$ ) that is consistent with the profile $\pi_{t}$. Then, a recursive rule is applied: Let $t^{\prime}, t^{\prime \prime}$ be the left and right children of $t$ in $\mathcal{T}$ respectively. The DP makes a choice to "buy" a subset of edges $Y \subseteq E\left(G\left[X_{t}\right]\right)$ (that appear in bag $X_{t}$ ) and derives the cost by minimizing over all profiles $\pi_{t^{\prime}}, \pi_{t^{\prime \prime}}$ that are "consistent" with $\pi_{t}$ :

$$
c\left[t, \pi_{t}\right]=\min _{\pi_{t^{\prime}}, \pi_{t^{\prime \prime}}, Y:\left(\pi_{t^{\prime}}, \pi_{t^{\prime \prime}}, Y\right) \bowtie \pi_{t}}\left(\operatorname{cost}(Y)+c\left[t^{\prime}, \pi_{t^{\prime}}\right]+c\left[t^{\prime \prime}, \pi_{t^{\prime \prime}}\right]\right)
$$

where the $\operatorname{sign}\left(\pi_{t^{\prime}}, \pi_{t^{\prime \prime}}, Y\right) \bowtie \pi_{t}$ represents the notion of consistency between the profiles. Different optimization problems have different profiles and consistency rules. Often, consistency rules that are designed for connectivity-1 problems (such as Steiner tree) are not easily generalizable to higher connectivity problems (such as SNDP).

In this paper, we devise a new consistency rule (abbreviated by $\approx$ ) for checking "reachability" (or connectivity 1) in a graph, which allows for easy generalization to handle high connectivity problems.

Roughly speaking, our consistency rule $\approx$ solves the Steiner tree problem (connectivity-1 problem). To solve a connectivity- $k$ problem, we have a DP cell $c[t, \vec{\pi}]$ for each $\vec{\pi} \in \Pi^{k}$. Then the consistency check is a "direct product" test for all coordinates, i.e.,

$$
\left(\vec{\pi}_{t^{\prime}}, \vec{\pi}_{t^{\prime \prime}}, \vec{Y}\right) \approx \approx^{k} \vec{\pi}_{t} \Longleftrightarrow(\forall j \in[k])\left(\pi_{t^{\prime}, j}, \pi_{t^{\prime \prime}, j}, Y_{j}\right) \approx \pi_{t, j}
$$

[^3]In this way, our new concept makes it a relatively simple task to generalize a DP for connectivity- 1 problems to a DP for connectivity-k problems (and facilitate the proof of correctness). There is a slight change in the way DPs are designed for each problem, but they follow the same principle.

Organization: We develop our techniques over several sections, and along the way, show non-trivial applications for various SNDP problems. Section 2 provides some notation and important definitions. Section 3 presents the new viewpoint for designing DP and presents a simple showcase by deriving (known) results. Section 4 presents algorithms for EC-SNDP. Lastly, Section 5 presents an approximation algorithm for group connectivity problems.

## 2 Preliminaries

Tree decomposition: Let $G$ be any graph. A tree decomposition of $G$ is a tree $\mathcal{T}$ with a collection of bags $\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} \subseteq 2^{V(G)}$ (i.e., each node of $\mathcal{T}$ is associated with a subset of nodes of $V(G))$ that satisfies the following properties:

- $V(G)=\bigcup_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} X_{t}$
- For any edge $u v \in E(G)$, there is a bag $X_{t}$ such that $u, v \in X_{t}$.
- For each vertex $v \in V(G)$, the collection of nodes $t$ whose bags $X_{t}$ contain $v$ induces a connected subgraph of $\mathcal{T}$. That is, $\mathcal{T}\left[\left\{t \in V(\mathcal{T}): v \in X_{t}\right\}\right]$ is a subtree of $\mathcal{T}$.

The treewidth of $G$, denoted $t w(G)$, is the minimum integer $k$ for which there exists a tree decomposition $\left(\mathcal{T},\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})}\right)$ such that $\max \left|X_{t}\right| \leq k+1\left(\max \left|X_{t}\right|-1\right.$ is the width of $\mathcal{T}$ ).

Fix a tree decomposition $\left(\mathcal{T},\left\{X_{t}\right\}\right)$ with the stated properties. For each node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, denote by $\mathcal{T}_{t}$ the subtree of $\mathcal{T}$ rooted at $t$ and by $p(t)$ the parent node of $t$ in $V(\mathcal{T})$. We also define $G_{t}$ as the subgraph induced by $\mathcal{T}_{t}$; that is, $G_{t}=G\left[\bigcup_{t^{\prime} \in \mathcal{T}_{t}} X_{t^{\prime}}\right]$.

For each $v \in V$, let $t_{v}$ denote the topmost node for which $v \in X_{t_{v}}$. For each $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, we say that an edge $u v \in E(G)$ appears in the bag $X_{t}$ if $u, v \in X_{t}$, and only if $t$ is the topmost node in which this happens. We denote the edges inside the bag $X_{t}$ by $E_{t}$. For a subset $\mathcal{S} \subseteq V(\mathcal{T})$, we define $X_{\mathcal{S}}:=\bigcup_{t \in \mathcal{S}} X_{t}$.

We will use the following result, which shows that a tree decomposition of $G$ of width $O(t w(G))$ is computable in time $O\left(2^{O(t w(G))} n\right)$.

- Theorem 5 ([5]). There is an algorithm that, given a graph $G$, runs in time $O\left(2^{O(t w(G))} n\right)$ and finds the tree decomposition $\left(\mathcal{T},\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})}\right)$ such that $\left|X_{t}\right| \leq 5 t w(G)$ for all $t$.

In order to simplify notation, we assume that $\mathcal{T}$ is a binary tree. Furthermore, we require the height of $\mathcal{T}$ to be $O(\log n)$ in Section 5. The following lemma, based on the results of Bodlaender [4], summarizes the properties we assume.

- Lemma 6 (in [12], based on [4]). Given a tree decomposition $\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime},\left\{X_{t}^{\prime}\right\}_{t \in V\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)}\right)$, we can transform it into a tree decomposition $\left(\mathcal{T},\left\{X_{t}\right\}_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})}\right)$ with the following properties:
(i) the height of $\mathcal{T}$ is at most $O(\log n)$;
(ii) each bag $X_{t}$ satisfies $\left|X_{t}\right| \leq O(w)$;
(iii) every leaf bag has no edges $\left(E_{t}=\emptyset\right.$ for leaf $t \in \mathcal{T}$ );
(iv) every non-leaf has exactly 2 children.

Furthermore, this transformation runs in linear time.

Connection sets and operators: Let $S \subseteq V$. A connection set $\Lambda$ over $S$ is a subset of $S \times S$ which will be used to list pairs that are connected via a path, i.e., $(u, v) \in \Lambda$ if there is a path connecting $u$ to $v$.

Let $\Lambda$ be a connection set over $S$. The transitive closure operator, denoted by $\operatorname{tc}(\cdot)$, is defined naturally such that $\operatorname{tc}(\Lambda)$ contains all pairs $\left(w, w^{\prime}\right)$ for which there is a sequence $\left(w=w_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{q}=w^{\prime}\right)$ and $\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right) \in \Lambda$ for all $i<q$. Let $S^{\prime} \subseteq S$. The projection operator " $\mid$ " is defined such that $\left.\Lambda\right|_{S^{\prime}}=\Lambda \cap\left(S^{\prime} \times S^{\prime}\right)$.

Given two connection sets $\Lambda_{1}$ of $S_{1}$ and $\Lambda_{2}$ of $S_{2}$, the union $\Lambda_{1} \cup \Lambda_{2}$ is a connection set over $S_{1} \cup S_{2}$.

## 3 New Key Concept: Global $\Leftrightarrow$ Local Checking for DP

This section introduces the key concept devised for handling all our problems systematically.

High-level intuition: Our DP will try to maintain a pair of local and global information about connectivity in the graph. Roughly speaking, a local connection set $\Gamma_{t}$ for $t$ (more precisely, for $X_{t}$ ) gives information about connectivity of the solution inside the subgraph $G_{t}$ (the subgraph induced in subtree $\mathcal{T}_{t}$ ), while the other connection $\Delta_{t}$ for $t$ gives information about connectivity of the global solution (i.e., the solution for the whole graph $G$ ).

For instance, if we have a tentative solution $Y \subseteq E(G)$, we would like to have the information about the reachability of $Y$ inside each bag, i.e., $\Delta_{t}=\left.\operatorname{tc}(Y)\right|_{t}$, so we could check the reachability between $u$ and $v$ simply by looking at whether $(u, v) \in \Delta_{t}$. However, a DP that is executing at node $t$ may not have this global information, and this often leads to complicated rules to handle this situation.

We observe that global information can be passed along to all cells in the DP with simple local rules so that checking whether the connectivity requirements are satisfied can be done locally inside each DP cell. In the next section, we elaborate on this more formally.

Equivalence: One could imagine having a DP cell $c\left[t, \Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}\right]$ for all possible connection sets $\Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}$, which makes a decision on $Y_{t}$, the set of edges bought by the solution when executing the DP. The roles of $\Gamma_{t}$ and $\Delta_{t}$ are to give information about local and global reachability, respectively. We are seeking a solution $Y$ that is "consistent" with these profiles, where $Y$ can be partitioned based on the tree $\mathcal{T}$ as $Y_{t}=Y \cap E_{t}$.

Given $Y$, we say that the pairs $\left\{\left(\Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}\right)\right\}_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})}$ satisfy the local (resp., global) connectivity definition if, for every node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ (having left and right children as $t^{\prime}$ and $t^{\prime \prime}$, respectively),

## Local

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\Gamma_{t} & := \begin{cases}\emptyset & \text { if } t \text { is a leaf of } \\
\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Gamma_{t^{\prime}} \cup \Gamma_{t^{\prime \prime}} \cup Y_{t}\right)\right|_{t} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
\Delta_{t} & := \begin{cases}\Gamma_{t} & \text { if } t=\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}) \\
\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Delta_{p(t)} \cup \Gamma_{t}\right)\right|_{t} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{array}
$$

## Global

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Gamma_{t} & :=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(Y \cap E\left(G_{t}\right)\right)\right|_{t} \\
\Delta_{t} & :=\left.\operatorname{tc}(Y)\right|_{t}
\end{aligned}
$$

where the projection operator on $X_{t}$ is simplified as $\left.\right|_{t}$.
The main idea is that the local connectivity definition gives us "local" rules that enforce consistency of consecutive bags, and this would be suitable for being embedded into a DP. The global connectivity rules, however, are not easily encoded into DP, but it is easy to argue intuitively and formally about their properties. The following lemma (proof in Appendix A) shows that the local and global connectivity definitions are, in fact, equivalent.

Lemma 7. Let $Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$ be a subset of edges and $\left(\Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}\right)$ a pair of connectivity sets for every $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$. Then, the pairs $\left(\Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}\right)$ satisfy the local connectivity definition iff they satisfy the global connectivity definition.

The notions of local and global connectivity, as well as the equivalence between them can be generalized both for the edge-connectivity version with vertex-costs as well as vertexconnectivity with vertex-costs. We defer the details of this generalization to the full version of the paper.

A warmup application: Steiner trees. We now show an approach that allows us to solve the Steiner Tree problem exactly in $n w^{O(w)}$ time, given a tree decomposition of width $w$. We remark that the best known algorithm due to Cygan et al. [18] runs in time $2^{O(w)} n$. In this problem, we are given graph $G=(V, E)$ with edge-costs and terminals $T=\left\{v_{1}, \ldots, v_{h}\right\}$, and the goal is to find a min-cost subset $E^{*} \subseteq E$ that connects all the terminals. For simplicity, we denote $v_{1}$ by "root" $r$, and add $r$ to every bag. The goal is now to connect the root to all other terminals in $T \backslash r$.

Our DP table has a cell $c[t, \Gamma, \Delta]$ for every node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ and every pair of connection sets $(\Gamma, \Delta)$ for $t$. We initialize the DP table by setting $c[t, \Gamma, \Delta]$ for all the leaf nodes, and setting certain cells as invalid (by setting $c[t, \Gamma, \Delta]=\infty$ ):

- For every leaf node $t$ and every pair $(\Gamma, \Delta)$, we set $c[t, \Gamma, \Delta]=0$ if $\Gamma=\emptyset$ and $c[t, \Gamma, \Delta]=\infty$ otherwise.
- We mark the cells $(\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}), \Gamma, \Delta)$ as invalid if $\Gamma \neq \Delta$.
- Let $v_{i} \in T$ be one of the terminals, and $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ a node. We mark a cell $(t, \Gamma, \Delta)$ as invalid if $v_{i} \in X_{t}$ but $\left(r, v_{i}\right) \notin \Delta$.

For all other cells, we compute the result from their children. Let $t$ be a node with left-child $t^{\prime}$ and right-child $t^{\prime \prime}$. Let $(\Gamma, \Delta),\left(\Gamma^{\prime}, \Delta^{\prime}\right),\left(\Gamma^{\prime \prime}, \Delta^{\prime \prime}\right)$ be pairs of connection sets for $t, t^{\prime}, t^{\prime \prime}$, respectively, and $Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$. We say that $(\Gamma, \Delta)$ is consistent with $\left(\left(\Gamma^{\prime}, \Delta^{\prime}\right),\left(\Gamma^{\prime \prime}, \Delta^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)$ via $Y_{t}\left(\right.$ abbreviated by the notation $\left.(\Gamma, \Delta) \stackrel{Y_{t}}{\longleftrightarrow}\left(\left(\Gamma^{\prime}, \Delta^{\prime}\right),\left(\Gamma^{\prime \prime}, \Delta^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)\right)$ if

$$
\Gamma=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Gamma^{\prime} \cup \Gamma^{\prime \prime} \cup Y_{t}\right)\right|_{t} \quad \Delta^{\prime}=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Delta \cup \Gamma^{\prime}\right)\right|_{t^{\prime}} \quad \Delta^{\prime \prime}=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Delta \cup \Gamma^{\prime \prime}\right)\right|_{t^{\prime \prime}}
$$

Now, for any choice of valid DP cells $\left(t, \Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}\right)$ and edge subsets $Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$ for every $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ (notice that a DP solution uses precisely one cell per node $t$ ), we apply Lemma 7 to conclude that since the local connectivity definition is satisfied for $\left(\Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}\right)$ pairs, so does the global connectivity definition. Since, for every valid DP cell $(t, \Gamma, \Delta)$ such that $t$ contains a terminal $v_{i},\left(r, v_{i}\right) \in \Delta$, we conclude that every terminal is connected to the root in the solution $Y=\bigcup_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} Y_{t}$. Thus, the cost of the optimum solution can be found at one of the cells $c[\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}), \Gamma, \Delta]$ (with $\Gamma=\Delta$ ).

Conversely, given a solution $F \subseteq E(G)$, we can define $F_{t}:=F \cap E_{t}$, and a pair $\left(\Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}\right)$ for every $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, using the global connectivity definition. Lemma 7 implies that the pairs $\left(\Gamma_{t}, \Delta_{t}\right)$ satisfy the local connectivity definition, and therefore define valid DP cells (notice that for every terminal $v_{i}, F$ connects $v_{i}$ to the root, so $\left(r, v_{i}\right) \in \Delta_{t}$ for every $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ such that $v_{i} \in X_{t}$ ). We thus establish that for every valid DP solution there is a corresponding feasible solution $F \subseteq E(G)$, and vice-versa.

## 4 Extension to High Connectivity

This section shows how to apply our framework to problems with high connectivity requirements. We focus on edge-connectivity and leave the case of vertex-connectivity to the full version.

When solving a problem in a high connectivity setting, there may be a requirement of $k$ disjoint paths. In particular, for each demand pair $(u, v)$, there must be $k(u, v)$ disjoint paths in the solution. So we could start naturally with a profile of the form:

$$
\left(\Gamma_{t, 1}, \ldots, \Gamma_{t, k}\right)\left(\Delta_{t, 1}, \ldots, \Delta_{t, k}\right)
$$

for each node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, and enforce the local consistency conditions for each coordinate. Here, each pair ( $\Gamma_{t, j}, \Delta_{t, j}$ ) would correspond to connectivity in some subgraph $H_{j} \subseteq G$, where $H_{j}$ serve the $j$-th path of the demand $(u, v)$.

However, this idea does not work as a different demand pair, say $(a, b)$, might use a path that belongs to different subgraphs $H_{j}$ as defined above. In other words, the disjoint paths for the demand pair ( $a, b$ ) might require a different partitioning of the solution set $H$. Therefore, we need to enumerate all possible ways for the demands to "locally" partition the graph and use them to support all $k$ disjoint paths for each one of them. This requires a more careful local consistency check between the DP cells.

We consider the Rooted EC-SNDP problem with edge-costs as an example to explain how to apply our framework to high-connectivity settings, that is, we will prove Theorem 4. For convenience, we add $r$ to every bag. To avoid confusion, the root of the tree $\mathcal{T}$ will be referred explicitly as $\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T})$.

The organization of this section is as follows. In Section 4.1, we explain the setup of the cells of the DP table and a high-level intuition about how the DP works. In Section 4.2 we describe the algorithm, in particular, how to compute the values of the DP table. We leave the discussion of its correctness and running time to Appendix B.2.

### 4.1 Profiles

As in any standard dynamic programming approach based on tree decomposition, we have a profile for each node $t$, which tries to solve the subproblem restricted to $G_{t}$ in some way.

Let $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$. A connection profile for $t$ is a k-tuple $\vec{\Gamma}=\left(\Gamma_{1}, \Gamma_{2}, \ldots, \Gamma_{k}\right)$ such that $\Gamma_{i} \subseteq X_{t} \times X_{t}$. Let $\mathcal{X}_{t}$ be the set of all connection profiles for $t$. A profile $\Psi$ of node $t$ is a collection of pairs of connection profiles $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta})$, i.e., $\Psi \subseteq \mathcal{X}_{t} \times \mathcal{X}_{t}$. A partial solution $F \subseteq E\left(G_{t}\right)$ is said to be consistent with profile $\Psi$ for $t$ if, for all $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi$,

- For each $(u, v) \in \Gamma_{i}$ and $(a, b) \in \Gamma_{j}$ for $i \neq j$, there are paths $P_{u v}, P_{a b} \subseteq F$ connecting the respective vertices in $G_{t}$ such that $P_{u v}$ and $P_{a b}$ are edge-disjoint.
- There is a global solution $F^{\prime} \supseteq F$ such that, for each $(u, v) \in \Delta_{i}$ and $(a, b) \in \Delta_{j}$ for $i \neq j$, there are paths $Q_{u v}, Q_{a b} \subseteq F^{\prime}$ connecting the respective vertices in $G$ such that $P_{u v}$ and $P_{a b}$ are edge-disjoint.
In other words, a solution consistent with a profile must "implement" all connectivity requirements by $\vec{\Gamma}$ and must be extensible to satisfy $\vec{\Delta}$.

Passing down both local and global requirements in the DP table leads to a clean and simple DP algorithm. Our DP table has a cell $c[t, \Psi]$ for each $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ and each profile $\Psi$ for $t$. This cell tentatively stores the optimal cost of a solution consistent with profile $\Psi$.

### 4.2 The DP

Valid cells: Some table entries do not correspond to valid solutions of the problem, so we mark them as invalid and remove them from consideration (another way to think about this is that we initialize $c[t, \Psi]=\infty$ for all invalid cells), i.e., the following cells are invalid:

- Any leaf that has non-empty connectivity requirements is invalid. That is, $c[t, \Psi]=0$ if $\Psi \subseteq\{(\emptyset, \ldots, \emptyset)\} \times \mathcal{X}_{t} ;$ otherwise, $c[t, \Psi]=\infty$.
- Any cell that cannot be extended into a feasible solution is invalid. If there is no pair $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi$ such that $\left(r, \gamma_{i}\right) \in \Delta_{j}$ for all $j \in\left[k_{i}\right]$, then there are fewer than $k_{i}$ edge-disjoint paths between $r$ and $\gamma_{i}$, and therefore the cell is invalid, so $c\left[t_{\gamma_{i}}, \Psi\right]=\infty$.
- The node $\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T})$ together with profile $\Psi$ is an invalid cell if there is a pair $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi$ such that $\Gamma_{j} \neq \Delta_{j}$ for some $j$. In this case, we set $c[\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}), \Psi]=\infty$.
- Lemma 8. For every $t \in \mathcal{T}$, there are at most $\exp \left(w^{O(w k)}\right)$ many valid cells $(t, \Psi)$.

We remark that, though the solution can be partitioned differently for each demand, the number of different partitions of a solution still depends on its size. Therefore, once we look at the partitions for each bag $X_{t}$, the number of possibilities is bounded by a function of $w$ and $k$.

DP computation: For all other cells, we compute their values from the values of their children. Let $t$ be a node with left-child $t^{\prime}$ and right-child $t^{\prime \prime}$. Let $\Psi, \Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}$ be their profiles respectively, and $Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$. We say that $\Psi$ is consistent with $\left(\Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}\right)$ via $Y_{t}$ (abbreviated by $\left.\Psi \stackrel{Y_{t}}{\longleftrightarrow}\left(\Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}\right)\right)$ if the following conditions are satisfied. For each pair $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi$, there are $\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{\prime}, \vec{\Delta}^{\prime}\right) \in \Psi^{\prime}$ and $\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{\prime \prime}, \vec{\Delta}^{\prime \prime}\right) \in \Psi^{\prime \prime}$, together with a partition of $Y_{t}$ into $Y_{1} \cup Y_{2} \cup \ldots \cup Y_{k}$ such that, for every $j \in[k]$,

$$
\Gamma_{j}=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Gamma_{j}^{\prime} \cup \Gamma_{j}^{\prime \prime} \cup Y_{j}\right)\right|_{t} \quad \Delta_{j}^{\prime}=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Delta_{j} \cup \Gamma_{j}^{\prime}\right)\right|_{t^{\prime}} \quad \Delta_{j}^{\prime \prime}=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Delta_{j} \cup \Gamma_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right)\right|_{t^{\prime \prime}}
$$

Similarly, for any $\left(\overrightarrow{\Gamma^{\prime}}, \overrightarrow{\Delta^{\prime}}\right) \in \Psi^{\prime}$ (resp., $\left(\overrightarrow{\Gamma^{\prime}}, \overrightarrow{\Delta^{\prime \prime}}\right) \in \Psi^{\prime \prime}$ ) there are $\left(\overrightarrow{\Gamma^{\prime \prime}}, \overrightarrow{\Delta^{\prime \prime}}\right) \in \Psi^{\prime \prime}$ (resp., $\left.\left(\overrightarrow{\Gamma^{\prime}}, \overrightarrow{\Delta^{\prime}}\right) \in \Psi^{\prime}\right)$ plus $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi$ and some partition of $Y_{t}$, satisfying similar conditions as above.

Then the value of $c[t, \Psi]$ can be defined recursively among valid cells:

$$
c[t, \Psi]=\min _{\Psi \underset{\Psi}{\Psi} \nmid\left(\Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}\right)}\left(c\left[t^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime}\right]+c\left[t^{\prime \prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}\right]+c\left(Y_{t}\right)\right)
$$

The final solution can be computed as min $\left\{c[\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}), \Psi] \mid(\forall(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi)(\forall j \in[k]) \Gamma_{j}=\Delta_{j}\right\}$. The correctness of this DP is deferred to Appendix B.1.

## 5 Algorithms for Restricted Group SNDP

In Section 4, we showed how to find the optimum solution to the EC-SNDP by solving a DP. This is only possible because we know the exact demands that correspond to a subproblem, and we mark cells as invalid if these demands are not met. In the Restricted Group SNDP, each group can be connected in subproblems corresponding to different part of the trees, and hence it is no longer possible to solve the DP in a standard way.

We do, however, have sufficient technical tools to prove Theorem 2. Instead of simply solving the DP, we turn the DP table into a tree instance of a variant of GST and, in a second step, apply randomized rounding to obtain a polylogarithmic approximation to the problem. This corresponds to the process of finding a solution in the DP, with the additional constraint that all the demands are met.

Tree Instance: We start by showing how to transform the DP table into a tree $\tilde{\mathcal{T}}$, where we can solve a variant of the group Steiner tree problem. The following theorem formalizes this transformation, and we dedicate the rest of this section to proving the theorem. For convenience, we add a dummy node $t_{S}$ with $X_{t_{S}}=\emptyset$ as the parent of the root node.

- Theorem 9. Given a graph $G$ rooted at $r$ with treewidth $w$ and groups $S_{i} \subseteq V$, there is a tree $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$ with groups $\widetilde{S}_{i}$ and a set of accepted solutions $\widetilde{X}$ such that:
(i) the size of $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$ is $n^{w^{O(w k)}}$;
(ii) for every $F \subseteq E(G)$, there is $X \in \widetilde{X}$ (and vice-versa) such that $c(F)=c(X)$ and, for every $i \in[h], F k_{i}$-connects $r$ to $v \in S_{i}$ iff $X$ connects $\operatorname{root}(\widetilde{T})$ to $\tilde{t} \in \widetilde{S}_{i}$.
For each cell of the DP table introduced in Section 4.2, we create a node in $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$. Namely, we create a vertex $\tilde{t}[t, \Psi]$ for every node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ and $\Psi \subseteq \mathcal{X}_{t} \times \mathcal{X}_{t}$. The root of the tree is $\tilde{t}\left[t_{S},\left\{\left(\emptyset^{k}, \emptyset^{k}\right)\right\}\right]$ (this is the only connection profile for $t_{S}$ ). For a node $t \in \mathcal{T}$ with children $t^{\prime}, t^{\prime \prime}$, we add connecting nodes $\tilde{t}_{c}\left[t, \Psi, \Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}, Y_{t}\right]$ connected to the nodes $\tilde{t}[t, \Psi], \tilde{t}\left[t^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime}\right]$, $\tilde{t}\left[t^{\prime \prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}\right]$, for every $Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$, if $\Psi \stackrel{Y_{t}}{\longleftrightarrow}\left(\Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}\right)$. If there is only one child, the connecting node has degree 2, and we consider that $\Psi^{\prime \prime}=\left\{\left(\emptyset^{k}, \emptyset^{k}\right)\right\}$ for the purpose of describing the algorithm. An edge from $\tilde{t}[t, \Psi]$ to $\tilde{t}_{c}\left[t, \Psi, \Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}, Y_{t}\right]$ is labeled with the set of edges $Y_{t}$ and is assigned cost $c\left(Y_{t}\right)$. All other edges in the instance have cost 0 .

Notice that, at this point, $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$ is not a tree, but we can turn it into one by making copies of the nodes as required. Specifically, we process the tree in a bottom-up fashion: for each node $\tilde{t}$, we make the same number of copies of $\tilde{t}$ and its descendants as there are incoming edges of $\tilde{t}$ such that each edge is incident to a different copy. In this manner, all the copies of $\tilde{t}$ are now the roots of subtrees, which are disjoint.

For convenience, we denote by $\tilde{t}[t, \Psi]$ (resp., $\tilde{t}_{c}\left[t, \Psi, \Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}, Y_{t}\right]$ ) any copy of the original node; when we need to distinguish copies, we denote by copies $(\tilde{t})$ the set of all copies of a node $\tilde{t}$.

The final step in our construction is to prune the tree by removing nodes that cannot be reached or that represent choices that cannot be part of a feasible solution. To do that, it is sufficient to apply the following rules to exhaustion:
(i) remove $\tilde{t} \in \widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$ if it is not connected to the root;
(ii) remove a connecting node if one of its children was removed;
(iii) remove $\tilde{t}[t, \Psi]$ if it is a leaf node but $\Psi \nsubseteq\{(\emptyset, \ldots, \emptyset)\} \times \mathcal{X}_{t}$ (i.e. $\vec{\Gamma} \neq(\emptyset, \ldots, \emptyset)$ for some $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi)$.

We can now restate the goal of the problem in terms of $\tilde{\mathcal{T}}$ : we want to find nodes $\tilde{t}\left[t, \Psi_{t}\right]$ and edge sets $Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$ for every node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, such that $\left(\Psi_{t^{\prime}}, \Psi_{t^{\prime \prime}}\right) \stackrel{Y_{t}}{\longleftrightarrow} \Psi_{t}$ for all non-leaf node $t$ with children $t^{\prime}, t^{\prime \prime}$. Further, for every group $S_{i}$, there must be a vertex $\gamma_{i} \in S_{i}$ and a partition of $Y:=\bigcup_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} Y_{t}$ into $k_{i}$ sets, such that each contains a path from $r$ to $\gamma_{i}$.

The set of nodes $\left\{\tilde{t}\left[t, \Psi_{t}\right]\right\}_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})}$ with the respective connecting nodes $\tilde{t}\left[t, \Psi_{t}, \Psi_{t^{\prime}}, \Psi_{t^{\prime \prime}}, Y_{t}\right]$ (for all non-leaf nodes $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ ) induces a tree $\widetilde{T}$ in $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$. We say that such a tree $\widetilde{T}$ is valid if every node $\tilde{t}[t, \Psi] \in V(\widetilde{T})$ has exactly one child in the graph (or none if $t$ is a leaf), and every connecting node $\tilde{t}_{c}\left[t, \Psi, \Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}, Y_{t}\right]$ in $\widetilde{T}$ has full-degree, i.e., all its neighbors are in the solution as well.

For every group $S_{i}$, we define $\widetilde{S}_{i}$ as follows: for every $v \in S_{i}$ and every $\Psi \in \mathcal{X}_{t} \times \mathcal{X}_{t}$, every element of copies $\left(\tilde{t}\left[t_{v}, \Psi\right]\right)$ is in $\widetilde{S}_{i}$ if there is $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi$ such that $(r, v) \in \Delta_{j}$ for all $j \in\left[k_{i}\right]$.

The size of the instance follows by considering its height and maximum degree: the maximum degree of $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$ is $\exp \left(w^{O(w k)}\right)$ by Lemma 8, and there is a tree decomposition of height $O(\log n)$ by Lemma 6 , which implies that height $(\widetilde{\mathcal{T}})=O(\log n)$. We conclude that $|\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}|=n^{w^{O(w k)}}$.

The correctness of the reduction follows from the correctness of the DP for Rooted EC-SNDP, and its proof is left to Appendix B.1.

Algorithm: We now show how to obtain a valid tree $\widetilde{T}$, given $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$. Let $T^{*}$ be the min-cost valid tree in $\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}$ that connects all the groups $\left\{\widetilde{S}_{i}\right\}_{i \in[h]}$. Chalermsook et al. [12] showed that it is possible to find a valid tree $\widetilde{T}$ with expected $\operatorname{cost} c\left(T^{*}\right)$, but whose probability of covering a group is just $O(1 / \operatorname{height}(\widetilde{\mathcal{T}}))$.

Using this result, we can obtain valid trees $\widetilde{T}_{1}, \ldots, \widetilde{T}_{\ell}$, where $\ell=O(\log n \log h)$. We can then obtain solutions $F_{j}$ that $k$-connect the same groups and have the same cost as $\widetilde{T}_{j}$, for all $j \in[\ell]$, and finally output the solution $F:=\bigcup_{j \in[\ell]} F_{j}$. Since the expected cost of each $\tilde{T}_{i}$ is $c\left(T^{*}\right)$, the expected cost of $F$ is $O(\log n \log h) c\left(T^{*}\right)$.

By sampling $c \log n \log h$ independent valid trees, for large enough $c$, we ensure that each group is covered with probability $(1 / \log n)^{\ell}=1 / h^{c}$, and thus all the groups are covered with high probability (by union bound). For any group that is not covered, we can add minimum-cost edge-disjoint paths from the root (by reduction to min-cost flow) and hence ensure that every group is covered, without increasing the expected cost of the solution. We conclude that the algorithm outputs a randomized $O(\log n \log h)$-approximation to the problem, with high probability.

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## A Details of the Global $\Leftrightarrow$ Local Checking for DP

In this section, we will prove a generalized version of Lemma 7, that works for edge-connectivity and vertex-connectivity, both with edge and vertex costs. In vertex-connectivity problems, we are interested in finding internally disjoint paths. In order to handle this setting, we introduce a modified version of transitive closure.

For a set of vertices $Z$ and a set of edges $S$, we denote by $\operatorname{tc}_{Z}^{*}(S)$ the set of all pairs $(u, v)$ such that there is a $u$-v-path in the graph $(Z \cup\{u, v\}, S)$, that is, a path whose internal vertices are in $Z$, and whose edges are in $S$. Formally,

$$
\operatorname{tc}_{Z}^{*}(S)=\left\{(u, v) \mid \exists w_{1}, \ldots, w_{\ell} \in Z, \forall i \in[\ell-1],\left(u, w_{1}\right),\left(w_{\ell}, v\right),\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right) \in S\right\}
$$

We then keep track, for every node, of which vertices in the bag are allowed to be used in the solution, that is, we use triples $\left(Z, \Gamma^{*}, \Delta^{*}\right)$, instead of the previously used pairs $(\Gamma, \Delta)$.

Let $W_{t} \subseteq X_{t} \backslash X_{p(t)}$ for every $t \in V(\mathcal{T}), W=\bigcup_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} W_{t}, Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$ for every $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, $Y=\bigcup_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} Y_{t}$, and a triple $\left(Z_{t}, \Gamma_{t}^{*}, \Delta_{t}^{*}\right)$ for every $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$. For the purposes of this section, we introduce the following definitions for local and global connectivity.

We say that the triples $\left(Z_{t}, \Gamma_{t}^{*}, \Delta_{t}^{*}\right)$ satisfy the local (resp. global) connectivity definition if, for every node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$,

## Local

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
Z_{t} & := \begin{cases}W_{t} & \text { if } t=\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}) \\
\left(Z_{p(t)} \cup W_{t}\right) \cap V_{t} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
\Gamma_{t}^{*} & := \begin{cases}\emptyset & \text { if } t \text { is a leaf node } \\
\left.\operatorname{tc}_{Z_{t}}^{*}\left(\Gamma_{t^{\prime}}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t^{\prime}}^{*} \cup Y_{t}\right)\right|_{t} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases} \\
\Delta_{t}^{*} & := \begin{cases}\Gamma_{t}^{*} & \text { if } t=\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}) \\
\left.\operatorname{tc}_{Z_{t}}^{*}\left(\Delta_{p(t)}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t}^{*}\right)\right|_{t} & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
\end{array}
$$

## Global

$$
\begin{aligned}
Z_{t} & :=W \cap X_{t} \\
\Gamma_{t}^{*} & :=\left.\operatorname{tc}_{W}^{*}\left(Y \cap E\left(G_{t}\right)\right)\right|_{t} \\
\Delta_{t}^{*} & :=\left.\operatorname{tc}_{W}^{*}(Y)\right|_{t}
\end{aligned}
$$

We then prove the following lemma, proving that the given local and global connectivity definitions are equivalent.

- Lemma 10. Let $W_{t} \subseteq X_{t} \backslash X_{p(t)}$ be a subset of vertices, $Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$ a subset of edges and $\left(Z, \Gamma_{t}^{*}, \Delta_{t}^{*}\right)$ a triple of profiles for every $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$.

Then, the triples $\left(Z_{t}, \Gamma_{t}^{*}, \Delta_{t}^{*}\right)$ satisfy the local connectivity definition iff they satisfy the global connectivity definition.

Before proving the lemma, we show how Lemma 7 follows. We will prove that, if we fix $W_{t}=X_{t} \backslash X_{p(t)}$ and $Z_{t}=X_{t}$, the definitions of Lemmas 7 and 10 are equivalent.

For this, it is sufficient to see that $\mathrm{tc}_{W}^{*}(S)=\operatorname{tc}_{V(G)}^{*}(S)=\operatorname{tc}(S)$, and that the common vertices in $\Gamma_{t^{\prime}}^{*}, \Gamma_{t^{\prime \prime}}^{*}$, and $Y_{t}$ are all in $X_{t}$, thus

$$
\left.\operatorname{tc}_{Z_{t}}^{*}\left(\Gamma_{t^{\prime}}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t^{\prime \prime}}^{*} \cup Y_{t}\right)\right|_{t}=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Gamma_{t^{\prime}}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t^{\prime \prime}}^{*} \cup Y_{t}\right)\right|_{t}
$$

Similarly, since $\Delta_{p(t)}^{*}$ and $\Gamma_{t}^{*}$ only intersect inside $X_{t} \times X_{t}$,

$$
\left.\operatorname{tc}_{Z_{t}}^{*}\left(\Delta_{p(t)}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t}^{*}\right)\right|_{t}=\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(\Delta_{p(t)}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t}^{*}\right)\right|_{t}
$$

We conclude that when $Z_{t}=X_{t}, \Gamma_{t}^{*}=\Gamma_{t}$ and $\Delta_{t}^{*}=\Delta_{t}$, the proof follows.
The following technical lemma will be useful when proving Lemma 10.

- Lemma 11 (Path Lemma). Let $G$ be any graph and $\mathcal{T}$ be a tree decomposition of $G$. Let $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ and $P$ be a path of length at least 2 whose endpoints $x, y$ are the only vertices of $P$ in $t$, that is, $V(P) \cap X_{t} \subseteq\{x, y\}$.

Then there is a connected (subtree) component $\mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ in $\mathcal{T} \backslash t$ such that, for any edge $a b \in E(P), \mathcal{T}^{\prime}$ has a node $t^{\prime}$ that contains ab, i.e., every edge ab $\in E_{t^{\prime}}$ for some node $t^{\prime} \in V\left(\mathcal{T}^{\prime}\right)$.

Proof. We provide a simple proof by contradiction. Assume that there are two consecutive edges, $a b, b c \in E(P)$ that are in different connected components of $\mathcal{T} \backslash t$ (otherwise, all edges must be in the same component). Since the set of nodes whose bags contain $b$ must be connected in $\mathcal{T}$ but is not connected in $\mathcal{T} \backslash\{t\}, b \in X_{t}$, and we reach a contradiction.

Proof of Lemma 10. We remark that the function $\mathrm{tc}^{*}$ shares some properties with the usual definition of transitive closure, which are used throughout the proof:

- Observation 12. The function $\mathrm{tc}^{*}$ satisfies the following properties:
- $\operatorname{tc}_{Z}^{*}\left(\mathrm{tc}_{Z}^{*}(Y)\right)=\operatorname{tc}_{Z}^{*}(Y)$
- $\operatorname{tc}_{Z^{\prime}}^{*}\left(Y^{\prime}\right) \subseteq \operatorname{tc}_{Z}^{*}(Y)$ if $Z^{\prime} \subseteq Z, Y^{\prime} \subseteq Y$


## Equivalence for $Z_{t}$ :

We prove that the two definitions for $Z$ are equivalent by induction on the depth of the node. At the root, we have that $W_{\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T})}=W \cap X_{\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T})}$, so the equivalence holds.

For the induction step, let $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$ be a node other than the root. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(Z_{p(t)} \cup W_{t}\right) \cap X_{t} & =\left(Z_{p(t)} \cap X_{t}\right) \cup\left(W_{t} \cap X_{t}\right) \\
& \subseteq\left(W \cap X_{t}\right) \cup\left(W \cap X_{t}\right) \\
& =W \cap X_{t}
\end{aligned}
$$

The second step follows from the induction hypothesis, as well as the definition of $W$. We now prove the converse inclusion.

$$
\begin{aligned}
W \cap X_{t} & =\left(W \cap X_{p(t)} \cap X_{t}\right) \cup\left(W \cap\left(X_{t} \backslash X_{p(t)}\right)\right) \\
& \subseteq\left(Z_{p(t)} \cap X_{t}\right) \cup W_{t} \\
& =\left(Z_{p(t)} \cup W_{t}\right) \cap X_{t}
\end{aligned}
$$

We use the induction hypothesis, as well as the fact that $W_{t} \subseteq X_{t}$.

## Equivalence for $\Gamma_{t}^{*}$ :

We prove the statement by induction on the height of a node $t$. Since $E\left(G_{t}\right)=\emptyset$, both definitions are equivalent for every leaf $t$.

Let $t$ be any node. By the induction hypothesis, $\Gamma_{t^{\prime}}^{*}, \Gamma_{t^{\prime \prime}}^{*} \subseteq \mathrm{tc}_{W}^{*}\left(Y \cap E\left(G_{t}\right)\right)$. Therefore,

$$
\left.\left.\mathrm{tc}_{Z_{t}}^{*}\left(\Gamma_{t^{\prime}}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t^{\prime \prime}}^{*} \cup Y_{t}\right)\right|_{t} \subseteq \operatorname{tc}_{W}^{*}\left(Y \cap E\left(G_{t}\right)\right)\right|_{t}
$$

Here, we use that $Z_{t}=W \cap X_{t} \subseteq W$.
To prove the converse inclusion, let $\left.(u, v) \in \operatorname{tc}_{W}^{*}\left(Y \cap E\left(G_{t}\right)\right)\right|_{t}$. By definition, there must be a path $p$ between $u$ and $v$ using internal vertices in $W$. Let $u=w_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{\ell}=v$ be all the vertices of $p$ (in the correct order) that are also in $X_{t}$.

Each pair $\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)$ is connected by a subpath of $p$. By Lemma $11,\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)$ is either an edge in $Y_{t}$, or the subpath is fully contained in $Y \cap E\left(G_{t^{\prime}}\right)$ or $Y \cap E\left(G_{t^{\prime \prime}}\right)$, and uses internal vertices in $W$. In the first case, $\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right) \in Y_{t}$, while in the remaining cases, $\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)$ is in $\Gamma_{t^{\prime}}$ or $\Gamma_{t^{\prime \prime}}$, by the induction hypothesis. We conclude that, since $w_{i} \in Z_{t}=W \cap X_{t}$, for $i \in[l-1]$, then $(u, v)$ is in

$$
\left.\operatorname{tc}_{Z_{t}}^{*}\left(\Gamma_{t^{\prime}}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t^{\prime \prime}}^{*} \cup Y_{t}\right)\right|_{t}
$$

## Equivalence for $\Delta_{t}^{*}$ :

We now prove that both definitions for $\Delta^{*}$ are equivalent, by using induction on the depth of the nodes. For the node $\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T})$, we have $E\left(G_{\text {root }(\mathcal{T})}\right)=E(G)$, and thus the base case follows.

For the induction step, we remark that $\Delta_{p(t)}^{*}, \Gamma_{t}^{*} \subseteq \mathrm{tc}_{W}^{*}(Y)$ by the induction hypothesis together with the statement of the lemma for $\Gamma^{*}$. Therefore,

$$
\left.\left.\operatorname{tc}_{Z_{t}}^{*}\left(\Delta_{p(t)}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t}^{*}\right)\right|_{t} \subseteq \mathrm{tc}_{W}^{*}(Y)\right|_{t}
$$

For the reverse inclusion, we fix a pair $\left.(u, v) \in \mathrm{tc}_{W}^{*}(Y)\right|_{t}$, and a path $p$ that connects $u$ to $v$ in $Y$ using internal vertices in $W$. Further, let $u=w_{0}, w_{1}, \ldots, w_{\ell}=v$ be all the vertices of $p$ (in the correct order) that are also in $X_{t}$.

By Lemma 11, $\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right)$ is either an edge in $Y(b)$, or the subpath $p^{\prime}$ of $p$ connecting $w_{i}$ and $w_{i+1}$ is contained either in $Y \cap E\left(G_{t^{\prime}}\right), Y \cap E\left(G_{t^{\prime \prime}}\right)$ or $Y \cap\left(E \backslash E\left(G_{t}\right)\right)$. For all but the last case, $\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right) \in \Gamma_{t}^{*}$, by definition. In the remaining case, it must be that the
vertices of $p^{\prime}$ are also contained in $X_{\mathcal{T} \backslash \mathcal{T}_{b}}$. Specifically, because the nodes whose bags contain a given vertex must form a connected component of $\mathcal{T}, w_{i}, w_{i+1} \in X_{p(t)}$, which implies $\left.\left(w_{i}, w_{i+1}\right) \in \operatorname{tc}_{W}^{*}(Y)\right|_{p(t)}=\Delta_{p(t)}^{*}$.

In any case, since $w_{i} \in Z_{t}=W \cap X_{t}$, for $i \in[l-1]$, we conclude that every pair ( $w_{i}, w_{i+1}$ ) and thus $(u, v)$, are contained in $\left.\operatorname{tc}_{Z_{t}}^{*}\left(\Delta_{p(t)}^{*} \cup \Gamma_{t}^{*}\right)\right|_{t}$.

## B Details of the DP for EC-SNDP

## B. 1 Correctness

The following two lemmas imply the correctness of our DP.

- Lemma 13. Let $F \subseteq E(G)$ be a feasible solution. Then, for every node $t$, there is a profile $\Psi_{t}$ for $t$ such that $\left(t, \Psi_{t}\right)$ is valid; for any node $t$ with children $t^{\prime}, t^{\prime \prime}$, then $\Psi \stackrel{Y_{t}}{\longleftrightarrow}\left(\Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}\right)$, where $Y_{t}=F \cap E_{t}$. Furthermore, $c\left[\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}), \Psi_{\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T})}\right]=c(F)$.

Proof. We first observe that for each demand $\left(\gamma_{i}, k_{i}\right), i \in[h]$ the solution $F$ can be partitioned into $F=\bigcup_{j \in[k]} F_{j}^{i}$ such that the partition $F_{j}^{i}$ contains a path connecting $\gamma_{i}$ to the root $r$. Note that, if $k_{i}<k$, there might not be any path in the partitions $F_{k_{i}+1}, \ldots, F_{k}$.

Let $t$ be a node in $\mathcal{T}$. We define $\Psi_{t}$ as follows. We define the pair (omitting the script of $t$ for convenience) $\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{i}(t), \vec{\Delta}^{i}(t)\right)$ for all $i \in[h]$ as follows.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Gamma_{j}^{i}(t) & =\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(F_{j}^{i} \cap E\left(\mathcal{T}_{t}\right)\right)\right|_{t} \\
\Delta_{j}^{i}(t) & =\left.\operatorname{tc}\left(F_{j}^{i}\right)\right|_{t}
\end{aligned}
$$

We now define $\Psi_{t}=\left\{\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{i}(t), \vec{\Delta}^{i}(t)\right): i \in[h]\right\}$.
We first show that any cell $\left(t, \Psi_{t}\right)$ is valid. For any leaf node $t, E_{t}=\emptyset$ and hence $\Gamma_{j}^{i}(t)=\emptyset$, $i \in[h], j \in[k]$. For the $\operatorname{node} \operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}), E\left(\mathcal{T}_{t}\right)=E$ and hence $\Gamma_{j}^{i}(t)=\Delta_{j}^{i}(t), i \in[h], j \in[k]$. Finally, since $\mathcal{P}_{j}^{i}$ connects $r$ to $\gamma_{i}$ for all $i \in[h], j \in\left[k_{i}\right]$, then $\left(r, \gamma_{i}\right) \in \Delta_{j}^{i}\left(t_{\gamma_{i}}\right)$. We conclude that any cell $\left(t, \Psi_{t}\right)$ defined as above is marked valid.

Finally we define, for any node $t$, a set of edges $Y(t) \subseteq E_{t}$ along with a suitable partition of $Y(t)$. Let $Y(t)=F \cap E_{t}$ and $Y_{j}^{i}(t)=F_{j}^{i} \cap E_{t}$. The subsets $Y_{j}^{i}(t)$ indeed form a partition owing to the disjointness of the sets $F_{j}^{i}$, for all $j \in\left[k_{i}\right]$ and a fixed $i \in[h]$.

It is clear from the above definitions of $\Gamma_{j}^{i}$ and $\Delta_{j}^{i}$ that they satisfy the global connectivity conditions for $Y_{j}^{i}$. Applying Lemma 7, the local conditions must also be satisfied for the node $t$ along with its children $t^{\prime}, t^{\prime \prime}$ and $Y(t)$. This gives us $\Psi \stackrel{Y(t)}{\longleftrightarrow}\left(\Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}\right)$ and we are done

Notice that the $c\left[\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}), \Psi_{\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T})}\right]=\sum_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} c(Y(t))=c(F)$.
We remark that the DP uses exactly one cell per node in any valid solution.

- Lemma 14. Let $\mathcal{C}=\left\{\left(t, \Psi_{t}\right): t \in V(\mathcal{T})\right\}$ be the set of cells selected by the dynamic programming solution. Then there exists a set of edges $F \subseteq E$ such that for each demand $\left(\gamma_{i}, k_{i}\right), i \in[h]$, there exist $k_{i}$ edge-disjoint paths connecting $r$ to $\gamma_{i}$. Furthermore, $c(F)=$ $c\left[\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T}), \Psi_{\operatorname{root}(\mathcal{T})}\right]$.

Proof. First we define the set $F$. Consider the cells in $\mathcal{C}$. Since each cell $\left(t, \Psi_{t}\right)$ is picked by the DP, there must exist a set of edges $Y_{t} \subseteq E_{t}$ such that for some pair of children cells $\left\{\left(t^{\prime}, \Psi_{t^{\prime}}\right),\left(t^{\prime \prime}, \Psi_{t^{\prime \prime}}\right)\right\} \in \mathcal{C}, \Psi_{t} \stackrel{Y_{t}}{\longleftrightarrow}\left(\Psi_{t^{\prime}}, \Psi_{t^{\prime \prime}}\right)$. Define $F=\bigcup_{\left(t, \Psi_{t}\right) \in \mathcal{C}} Y_{t}$. We prove that for any demand $\left(\gamma_{i}, k_{i}\right), i \in[h]$, there exist edge-disjoint paths $\mathcal{P}_{j}^{i}, j \in\left[k_{i}\right]$ in $F$ that connect $r$ to $\gamma_{i}$.

For a demand vertex $\gamma_{i}, i \in[h]$, consider the node $t^{\star}=t_{\gamma_{i}}$ and the cell $\left(t^{\star}, \Psi_{t^{\star}}\right) \in \mathcal{C}$. Since this cell is valid, there exists a connection profile $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta}) \in \Psi_{t^{\star}}$ such that $\left(r, \gamma_{i}\right) \in \Delta_{j}$ for all $j \in\left[k_{i}\right]$.

We now suitably define connection profiles $\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{t}, \vec{\Delta}^{t}\right)$ and sets of edges $Y_{t, j}$ for every other node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$, and prove that these elements satisfy the local connectivity property of Lemma 7. We explicitly describe the definition for the children nodes $t^{\prime}$ and $t^{\prime \prime}$ of $t^{\star}$. The definition for every other node in the subtree $\mathcal{T}_{t}$ can be carried out in a similar recursive fashion.

By definition of consistent DP cells, there exists $\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{\prime}, \vec{\Delta}^{\prime}\right) \in \Psi_{t^{\prime}},\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{\prime \prime}, \vec{\Delta}^{\prime \prime}\right) \in \Psi_{t^{\prime \prime}}$ and a partition $Y_{t^{\star}}=\bigcup_{j \in[k]} Y_{t^{\star}, j}$ such that, for all $j \in[h]$, the triplet $\left(\Gamma_{j}, \Delta_{j}\right),\left(\Gamma_{j}^{\prime}, \Delta_{j}^{\prime}\right),\left(\Gamma_{j}^{\prime \prime}, \Delta_{j}^{\prime \prime}\right)$ satisfies the local connectivity conditions for $Y_{t^{\star}, j}$. We take $\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{t^{\prime}}, \vec{\Delta}^{t^{\prime}}\right)=\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{\prime}, \vec{\Delta}^{\prime}\right),\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{t^{\prime \prime}}, \overrightarrow{\Delta^{t^{\prime \prime}}}\right)=$ $\left(\vec{\Gamma}^{\prime \prime}, \vec{\Delta}^{\prime \prime}\right)$.

A similar recursive definition works for all nodes in $\mathcal{T} \backslash \mathcal{T}_{t}$, starting with $(\vec{\Gamma}, \vec{\Delta})$ and defining a suitable connection profile in $p(t)$.

We now apply the equivalence from Lemma 7 to conclude that the global connectivity definition is satisfied by $\left(\Gamma_{j}^{t}, \Delta_{j}^{t}\right)$ and edge set $Y_{t, j}$ for any node $t \in V(\mathcal{T})$. As a consequence, there exist paths connecting $r$ to $\gamma_{i}$ in $\bigcup_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} Y_{t, j}$, for $j \in\left[k_{i}\right]$. Since the sets $Y_{t, j}$ are disjoint for $j \in\left[k_{i}\right]$, we obtain the required $k_{i}$ edge-disjoint paths in the sets $Y_{j}=\bigcup_{t \in V(\mathcal{T})} Y_{t, j}$.

## B. 2 Running Time Analysis

To bound the running time of the DP algorithm, we start by proving a bound on the number of cells in the DP table (Lemma 8), and then show how this implies the running time of the algorithm.

Proof of Lemma 8. The following observations are used to prove the lemma:

- Observation 15.

1. The number of possible subsets of edges between $w$ elements is $2^{w^{2}}$.
2. The number of possible partitions of such a subset of edges is $k^{w^{2}}$.
3. The number of possible equivalence relations in a set of $w$ elements is $w^{w}$.

Let $t \in \mathcal{T}$. We know that $\Psi \subseteq \mathcal{X}_{t} \times \mathcal{X}_{t}$, whose size can be up to $2^{k w^{2}}$. However, it is sufficient to consider equivalence relations in the node $t$, as we always take the transitive closure in definitions. Therefore, there are at most $w^{w}$ possibilities for each $\Gamma_{j}, \Delta_{j}$ (Observation 15) and at most $2^{w^{2 w k}}$ possibilities for $\Psi$.

Note that the algorithm itself does one of the two possible options for each cell: it either initializes itself, for which it needs to check every element of $\Psi$, taking time $O\left(w^{2 w k} k w\right)$; or it computes the value based on children cells, for which it enumerates all sets $\Psi^{\prime}, \Psi^{\prime \prime}$ and checks them for consistency. The number of such sets to check is again $2^{w^{2 w k}}$, and checking each triple of sets takes time polynomial in $w^{w k}$ and $k^{w^{2}}$. In sum, the algorithm takes time $O\left(n \exp \left(w^{O(w k)}\right)\right)$.


[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ ISF grant \# 621/12, I-CORE grant \# 4/11, NSF grant \#CCF-1740425
    
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[^1]:    ${ }^{2}$ The hardness for the case of directed graph was shown in [27], but it is not hard to show the same result for undirected graphs.

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ One may view our result as a "tree-embedding" type result. Please see [12] for more discussion along this line. Here we choose to present our result in the viewpoint of DP \& LP.

[^3]:    4 This is due to the transitivity of edge-connectivity. Specifically, any vertices $u, w$ that have $k$ edge-disjoint paths connecting to the root $r$ also have $k$ edge-disjoint paths between themselves.

