EXTENDING UNIFICATION IN $\mathcal{EL}$ TO DISUNIFICATION: THE CASE OF DISMATCHING AND LOCAL DISUNIFICATION

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Abstract. Unification in Description Logics has been introduced as a means to detect redundancies in ontologies. We try to extend the known decidability results for unification in the Description Logic $\mathcal{EL}$ to disunification since negative constraints can be used to avoid unwanted unifiers. While decidability of the solvability of general $\mathcal{EL}$-disunification problems remains an open problem, we obtain NP-completeness results for two interesting special cases: dismatching problems, where one side of each negative constraint must be ground, and local solvability of disunification problems, where we consider only solutions that are constructed from terms occurring in the input problem. More precisely, we first show that dismatching can be reduced to local disunification, and then provide two complementary NP-algorithms for finding local solutions of disunification problems.

1. Introduction

Description logics (DLs) [10] are a family of logic-based knowledge representation formalisms, which can be used to represent the conceptual knowledge of an application domain in a structured and formally well-understood way. They are employed in various application areas, but their most notable success so far is the adoption of the DL-based language OWL [26] as standard ontology language for the semantic web. DLs allow their users to define the important notions (classes, relations) of the domain using concepts and roles; to state constraints on the way these notions can be interpreted using terminological axioms; and to deduce consequences such as subsumption (subclass) relationships from the definitions and constraints. The expressivity of a particular DL is determined by the constructors available for building concepts.

The DL $\mathcal{EL}$, which offers the concept constructors conjunction ($\sqcap$), existential restriction ($\exists r. C$), and the top concept ($\top$), has drawn considerable attention in the last decade since, on the one hand, important inference problems such as the subsumption problem are polynomial
in $\mathcal{EL}$, even with respect to expressive terminological axioms \footnote{18}. On the other hand, though quite inexpressive, $\mathcal{EL}$ is used to define biomedical ontologies, such as the large medical ontology SNOMED CT \footnote{1}. For these reasons, the most recent OWL version, OWL 2, contains the profile OWL 2 EL \footnote{2} which is based on a maximally tractable extension of $\mathcal{EL}$ \footnote{11}.

Unification in Description Logics was introduced in \footnote{4} as a novel inference service that can be used to detect redundancies in ontologies. It is shown there that unification in the DL $\mathcal{FL}_0$, which differs from $\mathcal{EL}$ in that existential restriction is replaced by value restriction ($\forall r.C$), is ExpTime-complete. The applicability of this result was not only hampered by this high complexity, but also by the fact that $\mathcal{FL}_0$ is not used in practice to formulate ontologies.

In contrast, as mentioned above, $\mathcal{EL}$ is employed to build large biomedical ontologies for which detecting redundancies is a useful inference service. For example, assume that one developer of a medical ontology defines the concept of a patient with severe head injury as

\[
\text{Patient} \sqcap \exists \text{finding}.(\text{Head\_injury} \sqcap \exists \text{severity}.\text{Severe}),
\]

(1.1)

whereas another one represents it as

\[
\text{Patient} \sqcap \exists \text{finding}.(\text{Severe\_finding} \sqcap \text{Injury} \sqcap \exists \text{finding\_site}.\text{Head}).
\]

(1.2)

Formally, these two concepts are not equivalent, but they are nevertheless meant to represent the same concept. They can obviously be made equivalent by treating the concept names $\text{Head\_injury}$ and $\text{Severe\_finding}$ as variables, and substituting the first one by $\text{Injury} \sqcap \exists \text{finding\_site}.\text{Head}$ and the second one by $\exists \text{severity}.\text{Severe}$. In this case, we say that the concepts are unifiable, and call the substitution that makes them equivalent a unifier. In \footnote{1}, we were able to show that unification in $\mathcal{EL}$ is of considerably lower complexity than unification in $\mathcal{FL}_0$: the decision problem for $\mathcal{EL}$ is NP-complete. The main idea underlying the proof of this result is to show that any solvable $\mathcal{EL}$-unification problem has a local unifier, i.e., a unifier built from a polynomial number of so-called atoms determined by the unification problem. However, the brute-force “guess and then test” NP-algorithm obtained from this result, which guesses a local substitution and then checks (in polynomial time) whether it is a unifier, is not useful in practice. We thus developed a goal-oriented unification algorithm for $\mathcal{EL}$, which is more efficient since nondeterministic decisions are only made if they are triggered by “unsolved parts” of the unification problem. Another option for obtaining a more efficient unification algorithm is a translation to satisfiability in propositional logic (SAT); in \footnote{2} it is shown how a given $\mathcal{EL}$-unification problem $\Gamma$ can be translated in polynomial time into a propositional formula whose satisfying valuations correspond to the local unifiers of $\Gamma$.

Intuitively, a unifier of two $\mathcal{EL}$ concepts proposes definitions for the concept names that are used as variables: in our example, we know that, if we define $\text{Head\_injury}$ as $\text{Injury} \sqcap \exists \text{finding\_site}.\text{Head}$ and $\text{Severe\_finding}$ as $\exists \text{severity}.\text{Severe}$, then the two concepts (1.1) and (1.2) are equivalent w.r.t. these definitions. Of course, this example was constructed such that the unifier (which is actually local) provides sensible definitions for the concept names used as variables. In general, the existence of a unifier only says that there is a structural similarity between the two concepts. The developer that uses unification as a tool for finding redundancies in an ontology or between two different ontologies needs to inspect the unifier(s) to see whether the definitions it suggests really make sense. For

\footnote{1} http://www.ihtsdo.org/snomed-ct/
\footnote{2} http://www.w3.org/TR/owl2-profiles/
example, the substitution that replaces $\text{Head}_\cdot \text{injury}$ by $\text{Patient} \sqcap \text{Injury} \sqcap \exists \text{finding}_\cdot \text{site}. \text{Head}$ and $\text{Severe}_\cdot \text{finding}$ by $\text{Patient} \sqcap \exists \text{severity}. \text{Severe}$ is also a local unifier, which however does not make sense since findings (i.e. $\text{Head}_\cdot \text{injury}$ or $\text{Severe}_\cdot \text{finding}$) cannot be patients. Fortunately, even small unification problems like the one in our example can have too many local unifiers for manual inspection. In [13] we propose to restrict the attention to so-called minimal unifiers, which form a subset of all local unifiers. In our example, the nonsensical unifier is indeed not minimal. In general, however, the restriction to minimal unifiers may preclude interesting local unifiers. In addition, as shown in [13], computing minimal unifiers is actually harder than computing local unifiers (unless the polynomial hierarchy collapses).

In the present paper, we propose disunification as a more direct approach for avoiding local unifiers that do not make sense. In addition to positive constraints (requiring equivalence or subsumption between concepts), a disunification problem may also contain negative constraints (preventing equivalence or subsumption between concepts). In our example, the nonsensical unifier can be avoided by adding the dissubsumption constraint

$$\text{Head}_\cdot \text{injury} \not\sqsubseteq ? \text{Patient} \quad (1.3)$$

to the equivalence constraint $$\text{Patient} \equiv ? \text{Patient} \quad (1.1)$$ and $$\text{Patient} \equiv ? \text{Patient} \quad (1.2)$$. We add a superscript $\cdot$ to the relation symbols (like $\sqsubseteq$ and $\equiv$) to make clear that these are not axioms that are stated to hold, but rather constraints that need to be solved by finding an appropriate substitution.

Unification and disunification in DLs is actually a special case of unification and disunification modulo equational theories (see [3] and [1] for the equational theories respectively corresponding to $\mathcal{FL}_0$ and $\mathcal{EL}$). Disunification modulo equational theories has, e.g., been investigated in [10, 20]. It is well-known in unification theory that for effectively finitary equational theories, i.e., theories for which finite complete sets of unifiers can effectively be computed, disunification can be reduced to unification: to decide whether a disunification problem has a solution, one computes a finite complete set of unifiers of the equations and then checks whether any of the unifiers in this set also solves the disequations. Unfortunately, for $\mathcal{FL}_0$ and $\mathcal{EL}$, this approach is not feasible since the corresponding equational theories have unification type zero [1, 4], and thus finite complete sets of unifiers need not even exist. Nevertheless, it was shown in [6] that the approach used in [4] to decide unification (reduction to language equations, which are then solved using tree automata) can be adapted such that it can also deal with disunification. This yields the result that disunification in $\mathcal{FL}_0$ has the same complexity (ExpTime-complete) as unification.

For $\mathcal{EL}$, going from unification to disunification appears to be more problematic. In fact, the main reason for unification to be decidable and in NP is locality: if the problem has a unifier then it has a local unifier. We will show that disunification in $\mathcal{EL}$ is not local in this sense by providing an example of a disunification problem that has a solution, but no local solution. Decidability and complexity of disunification in $\mathcal{EL}$ remains an open problem, but we provide partial solutions that are of interest in practice. On the one hand, we investigate dismatching problems, i.e., disunification problems where the negative constraints are dissubsumptions $C \not\sqsubseteq ? D$ for which either $C$ or $D$ is ground (i.e., does not contain a variable). Note that the dissubsumption $\text{Patient} \not\sqsubseteq ? \text{Patient}$ from above actually satisfies this restriction since $\text{Patient}$ is not a variable. We prove that (general) solvability of dismatching problems can be reduced to local disunification, i.e., the question whether a given $\mathcal{EL}$-disunification problem has a local solution, which shows that dismatching in $\mathcal{EL}$ is NP-complete. On the other hand, we develop two specialized algorithms to solve local disunification problems that extend the ones for unification [1, 2]: a goal-oriented algorithm that reduces the amount of
Table 1: Syntax and semantics of EL

| Name          | Syntax | Semantics |
|---------------|--------|-----------|
| concept name  | $A$    | $A^I \subseteq \Delta^I$ |
| role name     | $r$    | $r^I \subseteq \Delta^I \times \Delta^I$ |
| top           | $\top$ | $\top^I := \Delta^I$ |
| conjunction   | $C \cap D$ | $(C \cap D)^I := C^I \cap D^I$ |
| existential restriction | $\exists r.C$ | $(\exists r.C)^I := \{x | \exists y. (x, y) \in r^I \land y \in C^I\}$ |

nondeterministic guesses necessary to find a local solution, as well as a translation to SAT. The reason we present two kinds of algorithms is that, in the case of unification, they have proved to complement each other well in first evaluations [12]: the goal-oriented algorithm needs less memory and finds minimal solutions faster, while the SAT reduction generates larger data structures, but outperforms the goal-oriented algorithm on unsolvable problems.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces syntax and semantics of EL and recalls some basic results about (dis)subsumption in EL. In Section 3, we introduce disunification and the special case of unification, and recall known results about unification in EL and local solutions. Section 4 contains our reduction from dismatching to local disunification, while Sections 5 and 6 describe the two algorithms for local disunification. We discuss related work in Section 7, and summarize our results as well as sketch directions for future research in Section 8.

This is an extended version of the conference paper [15]. In this paper, we give full proofs of all our results, and add some results on how to actually compute local solutions using the decision procedures presented in Sections 5 and 6.

2. Subsumption and dissubsumption in EL

The syntax of EL is defined based on two sets $\mathbb{N}_C$ and $\mathbb{N}_R$ of concept names and role names, respectively. Concept terms are built from concept names using the constructors conjunction ($C \cap D$), existential restriction ($\exists r.C$ for $r \in \mathbb{N}_R$), and top ($\top$). An interpretation $\mathcal{I} = (\Delta^I, \cdot^I)$ consists of a non-empty domain $\Delta^I$ and an interpretation function that maps concept names to subsets of $\Delta^I$ and role names to binary relations over $\Delta^I$. This function is extended to concept terms as shown in the semantics column of Table 1.

A concept term $C$ is subsumed by a concept term $D$ (written $C \sqsubseteq D$) if for every interpretation $\mathcal{I}$ it holds that $C^I \subseteq D^I$. We write a dissubsumption $C \not\sqsubseteq D$ to abbreviate the fact that $C \sqsubseteq D$ does not hold. The two concept terms $C$ and $D$ are equivalent (written $C \equiv D$) if $C \sqsubseteq D$ and $D \sqsubseteq C$, i.e. they are always interpreted as the same set. The binary subsumption relation $\sqsubseteq$ on concept terms is reflexive and transitive, and $\equiv$ is an equivalence relation, which justifies the notation. Note that we use “=” to denote syntactic equality between concept terms, whereas “$\equiv$” denotes semantic equivalence.

Since conjunction is interpreted as set intersection, we can treat $\cap$ as a commutative and associative operator, and thus dispense with parentheses in nested conjunctions. An atom is a concept name or an existential restriction. Hence, every concept term $C$ is a conjunction of atoms or $\top$. We call the atoms in this conjunction the top-level atoms of $C$. Obviously, $C$ is equivalent to the conjunction of its top-level atoms, where the empty conjunction
corresponds to $\top$. An atom is flat if it is a concept name or an existential restriction of the form $\exists r. A$ with $A \in N_C$.

Subsumption in $\mathcal{EL}$ is decidable in polynomial time \cite{20} and can be checked by recursively comparing the top-level atoms of the two concept terms.

**Lemma 2.1** \cite{11}. For two atoms $C, D$, we have $C \sqsubseteq D$ iff $C = D$ is a concept name or $C = \exists r.C'$, $D = \exists r.D'$, and $C' \sqsubseteq D'$. If $C, D$ are concept terms, then $C \sqsubseteq D$ iff for every top-level atom $D'$ of $D$ there is a top-level atom $C'$ of $C$ such that $C' \sqsubseteq D'$.

We obtain the following contrapositive formulation characterizing dissubsumption.

**Lemma 2.2.** For two concept terms $C, D$, we have $C \not\sqsubseteq D$ iff there is a top-level atom $D'$ of $D$ such that for all top-level atoms $C'$ of $C$ it holds that $C' \not\sqsubseteq D'$.

In particular, $C \not\sqsubseteq D$ is characterized by the existence of a top-level atom $D'$ of $D$ for which $C \not\sqsubseteq D'$ holds. By further analyzing the structure of atoms, we obtain the following.

**Lemma 2.3.** Let $C, D$ be two atoms. Then we have $C \not\sqsubseteq D$ iff either

1. $C$ or $D$ is a concept name and $C \neq D$; or
2. $D = \exists r.D'$, $C = \exists s.C'$, and $r \neq s$; or
3. $D = \exists r.D'$, $C = \exists r.C'$, and $C' \not\sqsubseteq D'$.

## 3. Disunification

As described in the introduction, we now partition the set $N_C$ into a set of (concept) variables ($N_v$) and a set of (concept) constants ($N_c$). A concept term is ground if it does not contain any variables. We define a quite general notion of disunification problems that is similar to the equational formulae used in \cite{20}.

**Definition 3.1.** A disunification problem $\Gamma$ is a formula built from subsumptions of the form $C \sqsubseteq^? D$, where $C$ and $D$ are concept terms, using the logical connectives $\land$, $\lor$, and $\neg$. We use equations $C \equiv^? D$ to abbreviate $(C \equiv^? D) \land (D \equiv^? C)$, dissubsumptions $C \not\sqsubseteq^? D$ for $\neg(C \sqsubseteq^? D)$, and disequations $C \not\equiv^? D$ instead of $(C \not\sqsubseteq^? D) \lor (D \not\sqsubseteq^? C)$. A basic disunification problem is a conjunction of subsumptions and dissubsumptions. A dismatching problem is a basic disunification problem in which all dissubsumptions $C \not\sqsubseteq^? D$ are such that either $C$ or $D$ is ground. Finally, a unification problem is a conjunction of subsumptions.

To define the semantics of disunification problems, fix a finite signature $\Sigma \subseteq N_C \cup N_R$ and assume that all disunification problems contain only concept terms constructed over the symbols in $\Sigma$. A substitution $\sigma$ maps every variable in $\Sigma$ to a ground concept term constructed over the symbols of $\Sigma$. This mapping can be extended to all concept terms (over $\Sigma$) in the usual way. A substitution $\sigma$ solves a subsumption $C \sqsubseteq^? D$ if $\sigma(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma(D)$; it solves $\Gamma_1 \land \Gamma_2$ if it solves both $\Gamma_1$ and $\Gamma_2$; it solves $\Gamma_1 \lor \Gamma_2$ if it solves $\Gamma_1$ or $\Gamma_2$; and it solves $\neg \Gamma$ if it does not solve $\Gamma$. A substitution that solves a given disunification problem is called a solution of this problem. A disunification problem is solvable if it has a solution.

By disunification we refer to the decision problem of checking whether a given disunification problem is solvable, and will similarly talk of dismatching and unification. In contrast to unification, in disunification it does make a difference whether or not solutions may contain variables from $N_v \cap \Sigma$ or additional symbols from $(N_C \cup N_R) \setminus \Sigma$ \cite{19}. In the context of the application sketched in the introduction, restricting solutions to ground terms over the
signature of the ontology to be checked for redundancy is appropriate: since a solution \( \sigma \) is supposed to provide definitions for the variables in \( \Sigma \), it should not use the variables themselves to define them; moreover, definitions that contain newly generated symbols would be meaningless to the user.

3.1. Reduction to basic disunification problems. We will consider only basic disunification problems in the following. The reason is that there is a straightforward NP-reduction from solvability of arbitrary disunification problems to solvability of basic disunification problems. In this reduction, we view all subsumptions occurring in the disunification problem as propositional variables and guess a satisfying valuation of the resulting propositional formula in nondeterministic polynomial time. It then suffices to check solvability of the basic disunification problem obtained as the conjunction of all subsumptions evaluated to true and the negations of all subsumptions evaluated to false. This reduction consists of polynomially many guesses followed by a polynomial satisfaction check. Hence, doing this before the NP-algorithms for the problems considered in the following sections leaves the overall complexity in \( \text{NP} \). In fact, in contrast to the use of an NP-oracle within an NP-algorithm, all the tests that are applied are deterministic polynomial time. Overall, there are polynomially many guesses (in the reduction and the NP-algorithm) with deterministic polynomial tests at the end.

Hence, from now on we restrict our considerations to basic disunification problems. For simplicity, we will call them disunification problems and consider them to be sets containing subsumptions and dissubsumptions.

3.2. Reduction to flat disunification problems. We further simplify our analysis by considering flat disunification problems, which means that they may only contain flat dissubsumptions of the form \( C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \nvdash D_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap D_m \) for flat atoms \( C_1, \ldots, C_n, D_1, \ldots, D_m \) with \( m, n \geq 0 \) and flat subsumptions of the form \( C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq D_1 \) for flat atoms \( C_1, \ldots, C_n, D_1 \) with \( n \geq 0 \). This restriction is without loss of generality: to flatten concept terms, one can simply introduce new variables and equations to abbreviate subterms \(^3\). Moreover, a subsumption of the form \( C \sqsubseteq D_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap D_m \) is equivalent to the conjunction of \( C \sqsubseteq D_1, \ldots, C \sqsubseteq D_m \). Any solution of a disunification problem \( \Gamma \) can be extended to a solution of the resulting flat disunification problem \( \Gamma' \), and conversely every solution of \( \Gamma' \) also solves \( \Gamma \).

This flattening procedure also works for unification problems. However, dismatching problems cannot without loss of generality be restricted to being flat since the introduction of new variables to abbreviate subterms may destroy the property that one side of each dissubsumption is ground (see also Section 4).

3.3. Local disunification. For solving flat unification problems, it has been shown that it suffices to consider so-called local solutions \(^3\), which are restricted to use only the atoms occurring in the input problem. We define this notion here for disunification.

Let \( \Gamma \) be a flat disunification problem. We denote by \( \text{At} \) the set of all (flat) atoms occurring as subterms in \( \Gamma \), by \( \text{Var} \) the set of variables occurring in \( \Gamma \), and by \( \text{At}_{\text{nv}} := \text{At} \setminus \text{Var} \) the set of non-variable atoms of \( \Gamma \). Let \( S: \text{Var} \to 2^{\text{At}_{\text{nv}}} \) be an assignment (for \( \Gamma \)), i.e. a function that assigns to each variable \( X \in \text{Var} \) a set \( S_X \subseteq \text{At}_{\text{nv}} \) of non-variable atoms. The relation \( >_S \) on

\(^3\)Recall that the empty conjunction is \( \top \).
\textbf{Definition 3.2.} Let $\Gamma$ be a flat disunification problem. A substitution $\sigma$ is called \textit{local} (w.r.t. $\Gamma$) if there exists an acyclic assignment $S$ for $\Gamma$ such that $\sigma = \sigma_S$. The disunification problem $\Gamma$ is \textit{locally solvable} if it has a local solution, i.e. a solution that is a local substitution. \textit{Local disunification} is the problem of checking flat disunification problems for local solvability.

Note that assignments and local solutions are defined only for \textit{flat} disunification problems, because both are based on the assumption that all subterms occurring in the input problem are flat. Although solvability of disunification problems is equivalent to solvability of flat disunification problems, it is not straightforward to extend the notion of local solutions to general disunification problems $\Gamma$. In particular, there may be several flat disunification problems that are equivalent to $\Gamma$ w.r.t. solvability, but they induce different sets of flat atoms, and hence different kinds of local substitutions.

Obviously, local disunification is decidable in NP: We can guess an assignment $S$, and check it for acyclicity and whether the induced substitution solves the disunification problem in polynomial time. The corresponding complexity lower bound follows from NP-hardness of (local) solvability of unification problems in $\mathcal{EL}$ [1].

\textbf{Fact 3.3.} Local disunification in $\mathcal{EL}$ is NP-complete. $\square$

It has been shown that unification in $\mathcal{EL}$ is local in the sense that the equivalent flattened problem has a local solution iff the original problem is solvable, and hence (general) solvability of unification problems in $\mathcal{EL}$ can be decided in NP [1]. The next example shows that disunification in $\mathcal{EL}$ is not local in this sense.

\textbf{Example 3.4.} Consider the flat disunification problem

$$\Gamma := \{ X \sqsubseteq B, A \sqcap B \sqcap C \sqsubseteq X, \exists r.X \sqsubseteq Y, \top \not\sqsubseteq Y, Y \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.B \}$$

with concept variables $X, Y$ and concept constants $A, B, C$. Then the substitution $\sigma$ with $\sigma(X) := A \sqcap B \sqcap C$ and $\sigma(Y) := \exists r.(A \sqcap C)$ is a solution of $\Gamma$. For $\sigma$ to be local, the atom $\exists r.(A \sqcap C)$ would have to be of the form $\sigma(D)$ for a non-variable atom $D$ occurring in $\Gamma$. But the only candidates for $D$ are $\exists r.X$ and $\exists r.B$, none of which satisfy $\exists r.(A \sqcap C) = \sigma(D)$.

We show that $\Gamma$ cannot have another solution that is local. Assume to the contrary that $\Gamma$ has a local solution $\gamma$. We know that $\gamma(Y)$ cannot be $\top$ since $\gamma$ must solve $\top \not\sqsubseteq Y$. Furthermore, none of the constants $A, B, C$ can be a top-level atom of $\gamma(Y)$ since this would contradict $\exists r.X \sqsubseteq Y$ (see Lemma [2.1]). That leaves only the non-variable atoms $\exists r.\gamma(X)$
and $\exists r.B$, which are, however, ruled out by $Y \not\subseteq \exists r.B$ since both $\gamma(X)$ and $B$ are subsumed by $B$ (see Lemma 2.3).

The decidability and complexity of general disunification in $\mathcal{EL}$ is still open. In the following, we first consider the special case of solving dismatching problems, for which we show a similar result as for unification: every dismatching problem can be polynomially reduced to a flat problem that has a local solution iff the original problem is solvable. The main difference is that this reduction is nondeterministic. In this way, we reduce dismatching to local disunification. We then provide two different NP-algorithms for the latter problem by extending the rule-based unification algorithm from [1] and adapting the SAT encoding of unification problems from [2]. These algorithms are more efficient than the brute-force “guess and then test” procedure on which our argument for Fact 3.3 was based.

4. REDUCING DISMATCHING TO LOCAL DISUNIFICATION

Our investigation of dismatching is motivated in part by the work on matching in description logics, where similar restrictions are imposed on unification problems [3, 8, 29]. In particular, the matching problems for $\mathcal{EL}$ investigated in [3] are similar to our dismatching problems in that there subsumptions are restricted to ones where one side is ground. Another motivation comes from our experience that dismatching problems already suffice to formulate most of the negative constraints one may want to put on unification problems, as described in the introduction.

As mentioned in Section 3, we cannot restrict our attention to flat dismatching problems without loss of generality. Instead, the nondeterministic algorithm we present in the following reduces any dismatching problem $\Gamma$ to a flat disunification problem $\Gamma'$ with the property that local solvability of $\Gamma'$ is equivalent to the solvability of $\Gamma$. Since the algorithm takes at most polynomial time in the size of $\Gamma$, this shows, together with Fact 3.3, that dismatching in $\mathcal{EL}$ is NP-complete. For simplicity, we assume that the subsumptions and the non-ground sides of the dissubsumptions have already been flattened using the approach mentioned in the previous section. This retains the property that all dissubsumptions have one ground side and does not affect the solvability of the problem.

Our procedure exhaustively applies a set of rules to the (dis)subsumptions in a dismatching problem (see Figures 1 and 2). Each rule consists of a condition under which it is applicable to a given subsumption or dissubsumption $s$, and an action that is executed on $s$. Actions usually include the removal of $s$ from the input problem, and often new subsumptions or dissubsumptions are introduced to replace it. Actions can fail, which indicates that the current dismatching problem has no solution. In all rules, $C_1, \ldots, C_n$ and $D_1, \ldots, D_m$ denote atoms. The rule Left Decomposition includes the special case where the left-hand side of $s$ is $\top$, in which case $s$ is simply removed from the problem. We use the rule Flattening Left-Ground Subsumptions to eliminate the non-flat, left-ground subsumptions that may be introduced by Flattening Right-Ground Dissubsumptions.

Note that at most one rule is applicable to any given (dis)subsumption. The choice which (dis)subsumption to consider next is don’t care nondeterministic, but the choices in the rules Right Decomposition and Solving Left-Ground Dissubsumptions are don’t know nondeterministic.
Algorithm 4.1. Let $\Gamma_0$ be a dismatching problem. We initialize $\Gamma := \Gamma_0$. While any of the rules of Figures 1 and 2 is applicable to any element of $\Gamma$, choose one such element and apply the corresponding rule. If any rule application fails, return “failure”. 

**Right Decomposition:**

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C_1 \land \ldots \land C_n \not\sqsubseteq D_1 \land \ldots \land D_m$ if $m \neq 1$ and $C_1, \ldots, C_n$, $D_1, \ldots, D_m$ are atoms.

**Action:** If $m = 0$, then fail. Otherwise, choose an index $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ and replace $s$ by $C_1 \land \ldots \land C_{i-1} \land C_{i+1} \land \ldots \land C_n \not\sqsubseteq D_i$.

**Left Decomposition:**

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C_1 \land \ldots \land C_n \not\sqsubseteq D$ if $n \neq 1$, $C_1, \ldots, C_n$ are atoms, and $D$ is a non-variable atom.

**Action:** If $n = 0$, then remove $s$ from $\Gamma$. Otherwise, replace $s$ by $C_1 \not\sqsubseteq D_1, \ldots, C_n \not\sqsubseteq D$.

**Atomic Decomposition:**

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C \not\sqsubseteq D$ if $C$ and $D$ are non-variable atoms.

**Action:** Apply the first case that matches $s$:

a) if $C$ and $D$ are ground and $C \subseteq D$, then fail;

b) if $C$ and $D$ are ground and $C \not\subseteq D$, then remove $s$ from $\Gamma$;

c) if $C$ or $D$ is a constant, then remove $s$ from $\Gamma$;

d) if $C = \exists r.C'$ and $D = \exists s.D'$ with $r \neq s$, then remove $s$ from $\Gamma$;

e) if $C = \exists r.C'$ and $D = \exists r.D'$, then replace $s$ by $C' \not\sqsubseteq D'$.

Figure 1: Decomposition rules

**Flattening Right-Ground Dissubsumptions:**

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = X \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.D$ if $X$ is a variable and $D$ is ground and is not a concept name.

**Action:** Introduce a new variable $X_D$ and replace $s$ by $X \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.X_D$ and $D \sqsubseteq X_D$.

**Flattening Left-Ground Subsumptions:**

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C_1 \land \ldots \land C_n \not\sqsubseteq \exists r_1.D_1 \land \ldots \land \exists r_m.D_m \not\sqsubseteq X$ if $m > 0$, $X$ is a variable, $C_1, \ldots, C_n$ are flat ground atoms, and $\exists r_1.D_1, \ldots, \exists r_m.D_m$ are non-flat ground atoms.

**Action:** Introduce new variables $X_{D_1}, \ldots, X_{D_m}$ and replace $s$ by $D_1 \sqsubseteq X_{D_1}, \ldots, D_m \sqsubseteq X_{D_m}$, and $C_1 \land \ldots \land C_n \not\sqsubseteq \exists r_1.X_{D_1} \land \ldots \land \exists r_m.X_{D_m} \not\sqsubseteq X$.

**Solving Left-Ground Dissubsumptions:**

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C_1 \land \ldots \land C_n \not\sqsubseteq X$ if $X$ is a variable and $C_1, \ldots, C_n$ are ground atoms.

**Action:** Choose one of the following options:

- Choose a concept constant $A \in \Sigma$ and replace $s$ by $X \sqsubseteq A$. If $C_1 \land \ldots \land C_n \not\subseteq A$, then fail.
- Choose a role $r \in \Sigma$, introduce a new variable $Z$, replace $s$ by $X \sqsubseteq \exists r.Z$, $C_1 \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.Z$, $\ldots$, $C_n \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.Z$, and immediately apply **Atomic Decomposition** to each of these dissubsumptions.

Figure 2: Flattening and solving rules
Note that each rule application takes only polynomial time in the size of the chosen (dis)subsumption. In particular, subsumptions between ground atoms can be checked in polynomial time [8].

**Lemma 4.2.** Every run of Algorithm 4.1 terminates in time polynomial in the size of $\Gamma_0$.

**Proof.** Let $\Gamma_0, \ldots, \Gamma_k$ be the sequence of disunification problems created during a run of the algorithm, i.e.

- $\Gamma_0$ is the input dismatching problem;
- for all $j$, $0 \leq j \leq k - 1$, $\Gamma_j$ is the result of successfully applying one rule to a (dis)subsumption in $\Gamma_j$; and
- either no rule is applicable to any element of $\Gamma_k$, or a rule application to a (dis)subsumption in $\Gamma_k$ failed.

We prove that $k$ is polynomial in the size of $\Gamma_0$ by measuring the size of subsumptions and dissubsumptions via the function $c$ that is defined as follows:

$$c(C \sqcup D) := c(C \sqcap D) := |C| \cdot |D|,$$

where $|C|$ is the size of the concept term $C$; the latter is measured in the number of symbols it takes to write down $C$, where we count each concept name as one symbol, and "$\exists r.$" is also one symbol. Note that we always have $|C| \geq 1$ since $C$ must contain at least one concept name or $\top$, and thus also $c(s) \geq 1$ for any (dis)subsumption $s$. We now define the size $c(\Gamma)$ of a disunification problem $\Gamma$ as the sum of the sizes $c(s)$ for all $s \in \Gamma$ to which a rule is applicable.

Since $c(\Gamma_0)$ is obviously polynomial in the size of $\Gamma_0$, it now suffices to show that $c(\Gamma_j) > c(\Gamma_{j+1})$ holds for all $j$, $0 \leq j \leq k - 1$. To show this, we consider the rule that was applied to $s \in \Gamma_j$ in order to obtain $\Gamma_{j+1}$:

- **Right Decomposition:** Then $s = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \not\sqsubseteq D_1 \sqcap \cdots D_m$ and we must have $m > 1$ since we assumed that the rule application was successful.
  
  Thus, we get
  
  $$|C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n| \cdot |D_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap D_m| > |C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n| \cdot |D_1|$$
  
  for every choice of $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$, and hence $c(\Gamma_j) > c(\Gamma_{j+1})$.

- **Left Decomposition:** Then $s = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \not\sqsubseteq D$ and, if $n = 0$, we therefore have $c(\Gamma_j) = c(\Gamma_{j+1}) + c(s) \geq c(\Gamma_{j+1}) + 1 > c(\Gamma_{j+1})$. Otherwise, $n > 1$, and thus
  
  $$|C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n| \cdot |D| = (|C_1| + \cdots + |C_n| + (n - 1)) \cdot |D| > |C_1| \cdot |D| + \cdots + |C_n| \cdot |D|.$$ 

- **Atomic Decomposition:** It suffices to consider Case e) since Case a) is impossible and the other cases are trivial. Then $s = \exists r.C' \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.D'$, and we get
  
  $$|\exists r.C'| \cdot |\exists r.D'| = (|C'| + 1) \cdot (|D'| + 1) > |C'| \cdot |D'|.$$ 

- **Flattening Right-Ground Dissubsumptions:** Then $s = X \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.D$ is replaced by $X \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.X_D$ and $D \sqsubseteq X_D$. To the dissubsumption, no further rule is applicable, and hence it does not count towards $c(\Gamma_j)$. Regarding the subsumption, we have
  
  $$|X| \cdot |\exists r.D| = |D| + 1 > |D| = |D| \cdot |X_D|.$$
**Flattening Left-Ground Subsumptions**: Then the subsumption \( s \) is of the form
\[
C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \cap \exists r_1.D_1 \cap \cdots \cap \exists r_m.D_m \sqsubseteq X
\]
and only to the subsumptions \( D_1 \sqsubseteq X_{D_1}, \ldots, D_m \sqsubseteq X_{D_m} \) this rule may be applicable again. But we have
\[
|C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \cap \exists r_1.D_1 \cap \cdots \cap \exists r_m.D_m| \cdot |X| = |C_1| + \cdots + |C_n| + |\exists r_1.D_1| + \cdots + |\exists r_m.D_m| + (n + m - 1) \\
\geq |\exists r_1.D_1| + \cdots + |\exists r_m.D_m| > |D_1| + \cdots + |D_m| \\
= |D_1| \cdot |X_{D_1}| + \cdots + |D_m| \cdot |X_{D_m}|.
\]

**Solving Left-Ground Dissubsumptions**: Then \( s = C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \not\sqsubseteq X \) and to a generated subsumption of the form \( X \not\sqsubseteq A \) or \( X \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.Z \) no further rule is applicable. If \( n = 0 \), then no further dissubsumptions are generated, and thus \( c(\Gamma_j) > c(\Gamma_{j+1}) \). Otherwise, we denote by \( |s_i| \) the size of the dissubsumption resulting from applying Atomic Decomposition to \( C_i \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.Z, 1 \leq i \leq n \), where we consider this number to be 0 if the dissubsumption was simply discarded (c.f. Cases b–d) of Atomic Decomposition).

If \( |s_i| = 0 \), we obtain \( |C_i| \geq 1 > 0 = |s_i| \). But also in Case e), we have \( C_i = \exists r.C_i' \), and thus \( |C_i| = |C_i'| + 1 = |\exists r.C_i'| |Z| + 1 \geq |s_i| \). Hence, we get
\[
|C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n| \cdot |X| = |C_1| + \cdots + |C_n| + (n - 1) \\
\geq |C_1| + \cdots + |C_n| \\
> |s_1| + \cdots + |s_n|,
\]
and thus again \( c(\Gamma_j) > c(\Gamma_{j+1}) \).

Note that the rule Solving Left-Ground Dissubsumptions is not limited to non-flat dissubsumptions, and thus the algorithm completely eliminates all left-ground dissubsumptions from \( \Gamma \). It is also easy to see that, if the algorithm is successful, then the resulting disunification problem \( \Gamma \) is flat. We now prove that this nondeterministic procedure is correct in the following sense.

**Lemma 4.3.** The dismatching problem \( \Gamma_0 \) is solvable iff there is a successful run of Algorithm [4.7] such that the resulting flat disunification problem \( \Gamma \) has a local solution.

**Proof.** For soundness (i.e. the “if” direction), let \( \sigma \) be the local solution of \( \Gamma \) and consider the run of Algorithm [4.1] that produced \( \Gamma \). It is easy to show by induction on the reverse order in which the rules have been applied that \( \sigma \) solves all subsumptions that have been considered. Indeed, this follows from simple applications of Lemmata [2.1] [2.3] and the properties of subsumption. This implies that \( \sigma \) is also a solution of \( \Gamma_0 \).

Showing completeness (i.e. the “only if” direction) is a little more involved. Let \( \gamma \) be a solution of \( \Gamma_0 \). We guide the rule applications of Algorithm [4.1] and extend \( \gamma \) to the newly introduced variables in such a way to maintain the invariant that “\( \gamma \) solves all (dis)subsumptions of \( \Gamma \)”. This obviously holds after the initialization \( \Gamma := \Gamma_0 \). Afterwards, we will use \( \gamma \) to define a local solution of \( \Gamma \).

Consider a (dis)subsumption \( s \in \Gamma \) (which is solved by \( \gamma \)) to which one of the rules of Figures [1] and [2] is applicable. We make a case distinction on which rule is to be applied:
• **Right Decomposition:** Then $s$ is of the form $C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \not\sqsubseteq D_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap D_m$ for $m \neq 1$. Since $\gamma(C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n) \not\sqsubseteq \gamma(D_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap D_m)$, by applying Lemma 2.2 twice, we can find an index $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ such that $\gamma(C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n) \not\sqsubseteq \gamma(D_i)$. Thus, we can choose this index in the rule application in order to satisfy the invariant.

• **Left Decomposition:** Then $s$ is of the form $C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \not\sqsubseteq D$, where $n \neq 1$ and $D$ is a non-variable atom. This means that $\gamma(D)$ is also an atom, and thus by Lemma 2.2 we know that $\gamma(C_i) \not\sqsubseteq \gamma(D)$ holds for all $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, as required.

• **Atomic Decomposition:** Then $s$ is of the form $C \not\sqsubseteq D$ for two non-variable atoms $C$ and $D$. Since $\gamma(C) \not\sqsubseteq \gamma(D)$, Case a) cannot apply. If one of the Cases b)–d) applies, then $s$ is simply removed from $\Gamma$ and there is nothing to show. Otherwise, we have $D = \exists r.D'$ and $C = \exists r.C'$, and the new dissubsumption $C' \not\sqsubseteq D'$ is added to $\Gamma$. Moreover, we have $\gamma(C) = \exists r.\gamma(C')$ and $\gamma(D) = \exists r.\gamma(D')$, and thus by Lemma 2.3 we know that $\gamma(C') \not\sqsubseteq \gamma(D')$.

• **Flattening Right-Ground Dissubsumptions:** Then $s$ is of the form $X \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.D$. By defining $\gamma(X_D) := D$, $\gamma$ solves $X \not\sqsubseteq \exists r.X_D$ and $D \sqsubseteq X_D$.

• **Flattening Left-Ground Subsumptions:** Then the subsumption $s$ is of the form

$$C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqcap \exists r_1.D_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap \exists r_mD_m \sqsubseteq X,$$

where all $D_1, \ldots, D_m$ are ground. If we extend $\gamma$ by defining $\gamma(X_{D_i}) := D_i$ for all $i \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$, then this obviously satisfies the new subsumptions $D_1 \sqsubseteq X_{D_1}, \ldots, D_m \sqsubseteq X_{D_m}$, and $C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqcap \exists r_1.X_{D_1} \sqcap \cdots \sqcap \exists r_mD_m \sqsubseteq X$ by our assumption that $\gamma$ solves $s$.

• **Solving Left-Ground Dissubsumptions:** Then the dissubsumption $s$ is of the form

$$C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \not\sqsubseteq X,$$

where $X$ is a variable and $C_1, \ldots, C_n$ are ground atoms. By Lemma 2.2, there must be a ground top-level atom $D$ of $\gamma(X)$ such that $C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \not\sqsubseteq D$, i.e., $C_1 \not\sqsubseteq D, \ldots, C_n \not\sqsubseteq D$. If $D$ is a concept constant, we can choose this in the rule application since we know that $\gamma(X) \sqsubseteq D$. Otherwise, we have $D = \exists r.D'$. By extending $\gamma$ to $\gamma(Z) := D'$, we ensure that $X \sqsubseteq \exists r.Z, C_1 \sqsubseteq \exists r.Z, \ldots, C_n \sqsubseteq \exists r.Z$ are solved by $\gamma$. The remaining claim follows as for **Atomic Decomposition** above.

Once no more rules can be applied, we obtain a flat disunification problem $\Gamma$ of which the extended substitution $\gamma$ is a (possibly non-local) solution. To obtain a local solution, we denote by $At$, $Var$, and $At_{nv}$ the sets as defined in Section 3 and define the assignment $S$ induced by $\gamma$ as in [2]:

$$S_X := \{D \in At_{nv} \mid \gamma(X) \sqsubseteq \gamma(D)\},$$

for all (old and new) variables $X \in Var$. It was shown in [2] that $S$ is acyclic and the substitution $\sigma_S$ solves all subsumptions in $\Gamma$. Furthermore, it is easy to show that $\gamma(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma_S(C)$ holds for all concept terms $C$.

Since $\Gamma$ contains no left-ground dissubsumptions anymore, it remains to show that $\sigma_S$ solves all remaining right-ground dissubsumptions in $\Gamma$ and all flat dissubsumptions created by an application of the rule **Flattening Right-Ground Dissubsumptions**. Consider first any flat right-ground dissubsumption $X \not\sqsubseteq D$ in $\Gamma$. We have already shown that $\gamma(X) \not\sqsubseteq D$ holds.

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4More precisely, it was shown that $\gamma$ induces a satisfying valuation of a SAT problem, which in turn induces the solution $\sigma_S$ above. For details, see [2] or Sections 6.1 and 6.2.
Theorem 4.4. Dismatching in \( \mathcal{EL} \) is NP-complete.

5. A goal-oriented algorithm for local disunification

In this section, we present a sound and complete algorithm that provides a more goal-directed way to solve local disunification problems than blindly guessing an assignment as described in Section 4. The approach is based on transformation rules that are applied to subsumptions and dissubsumptions in order to derive a local solution. To solve the subsumptions, we reuse the rules of the goal-oriented algorithm for unification in \( \mathcal{EL} \) [1] [14], which produces only local unifiers. Since any local solution of the disunification problem is in particular a local unifier of the subsumptions in the problem, one might think that it is then sufficient to check whether any of the produced unifiers also solves the dissubsumptions. This would not be complete, however, since the goal-oriented algorithm for unification does not produce all local unifiers. For this reason, we have additional rules for solving the dissubsumptions. Both rule sets contain (deterministic) eager rules that are applied with the highest priority, and nondeterministic rules that are only applied if no eager rule is applicable. The goal...
of the eager rules is to enable the algorithm to detect obvious contradictions as early as possible in order to reduce the number of nondeterministic choices it has to make.

Let now $\Gamma_0$ be the flat disunification problem for which we want to decide local solvability, and let the sets $\mathsf{At}$, $\mathsf{Var}$, and $\mathsf{At}_{\mathsf{nv}}$ be defined as in Section 3. We assume without loss of generality that the dissubsumptions in $\Gamma_0$ have only a single atom on the right-hand side. If this is not the case, it can easily be achieved by exhaustive application of the nondeterministic rule Right Decomposition (see Figure 1) without affecting the complexity of the overall procedure.

Starting with $\Gamma_0$, the algorithm maintains a current disunification problem $\Gamma$ and a current acyclic assignment $S$, which initially assigns the empty set to all variables. In addition, for each subsumption or dissubsumption in $\Gamma$, it maintains the information on whether it is solved or not. Initially, all subsumptions of $\Gamma_0$ are unsolved, except those with a variable on the right-hand side, and all dissubsumptions in $\Gamma_0$ are unsolved, except those with a variable on the left-hand side and a non-variable atom on the right-hand side.

Subsumptions of the form $C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq ? X$ and dissubsumptions of the form $X \not\sqsubset ? D$, for a non-variable atom $D$, are called initially solved. Intuitively, they only specify constraints on the assignment $S_X$. More formally, this intuition is captured by the process of expanding $\Gamma$ w.r.t. the variable $X$, which performs the following actions:

- every initially solved subsumption $s \in \Gamma$ of the form $C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq ? X$ is expanded by adding the subsumption $C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq ? E$ to $\Gamma$ for every $E \in S_X$,
- every initially solved dissubsumption $X \not\sqsubset ? D \in \Gamma$ is expanded by adding $E \not\sqsubset ? D$ to $\Gamma$ for every $E \in S_X$.

A (non-failing) application of a rule of our algorithm does the following:

- it solves exactly one unsolved subsumption or dissubsumption,
- it may extend the current assignment $S$ by adding elements of $\mathsf{At}_{\mathsf{nv}}$ to some set $S_X$,
- it may introduce new flat subsumptions or dissubsumptions built from elements of $\mathsf{At}$, and
- it keeps $\Gamma$ expanded w.r.t. all variables $X$.

Subsumptions and dissubsumptions are only added by a rule application or by expansion if they are not already present in $\Gamma$. If a new subsumption or dissubsumption is added to $\Gamma$, it is marked as unsolved, unless it is initially solved (because of its form). Solving subsumptions and dissubsumptions is mostly independent, except for expanding $\Gamma$, which can add new unsolved subsumptions and dissubsumptions at the same time, and may be triggered by solving a subsumption or a dissubsumption.

The rules of our algorithm are depicted in Figures 3 and 4. The rules dealing with subsumptions are essentially the same as in [14]; note that several of these may be applicable to the same subsumption. In the rule Local Extension, the left-hand side of $s$ may be a variable, and then $s$ is of the form $Y \not\sqsubseteq X$. This dissubsumption is not initially solved, because $X$ is not a non-variable atom.

**Algorithm 5.1.** Let $\Gamma_0$ be a flat disunification problem. We initialize $\Gamma := \Gamma_0$ and $S_X := \emptyset$ for all variables $X$. While $\Gamma$ contains an unsolved element, do the following:

1. **Eager rule application:** If any eager rules (Figure 3) are applicable to some unsolved element $s \in \Gamma$, apply an arbitrarily chosen one to $s$. If the rule application fails, return “failure”.

2. **Nondeterministic rule application:** If no eager rule is applicable, let $s$ be an unsolved subsumption or dissubsumption in $\Gamma$. If one of the nondeterministic rules (Figure 4)
Eager Ground Solving:

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \gg ? D$ with $\gg \in \{\subseteq, \subsetneq\}$ if $s$ is ground.

**Action:** If $C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \gg D$, then mark $s$ as solved; otherwise, fail.

Eager Solving:

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \gg ? D$ with $\gg \in \{\subseteq, \subsetneq\}$ if there is an index $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $C_i = D$ or $C_i$ is a variable with $D \in S_{C_i}$.

**Action:** If $\gg = \subseteq$, then mark $s$ as solved; otherwise, fail.

Eager Extension:

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \ll D \in \Gamma$ if there is an index $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ such that $C_i$ is a variable and $\{C_1, \ldots, C_n\} \setminus \{C_i\} \subseteq S_{C_i}$.

**Action:** Add $D$ to $S_{C_i}$. If this makes $S$ cyclic, then fail. Otherwise, expand $\Gamma$ w.r.t. $C_i$ and mark $s$ as solved.

Eager Top Solving:

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C \ll ? \top \in \Gamma$.

**Action:** Fail.

Eager Left Decomposition:

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \ll D \in \Gamma$ if $n \neq 1$ and $D$ is a non-variable atom.

**Action:** Mark $s$ as solved and, for each $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$, add $C_i \ll D$ to $\Gamma$ and expand $\Gamma$ w.r.t. $C_i$ if $C_i$ is a variable.

Eager Atomic Decomposition:

**Condition:** This rule applies to $s = C \ll ? D \in \Gamma$ if $C$ and $D$ are non-variable atoms.

**Action:** Apply the first case that matches $s$:

a) if $C$ and $D$ are ground and $C \subseteq D$, then fail;
b) if $C$ and $D$ are ground and $C \not{\subseteq} D$, then mark $s$ as solved;
c) if $C$ or $D$ is a constant, then mark $s$ as solved;
d) if $C = \exists r. C'$ and $D = \exists s. D'$ with $r \neq s$, then mark $s$ as solved;
e) if $C = \exists r. C'$ and $D = \exists r. D'$, then add $C' \not{\subseteq} D'$ to $\Gamma$, expand $\Gamma$ w.r.t. $C'$ if $C'$ is a variable and $D'$ is not a variable, and mark $s$ as solved.

Figure 3: Eager rules for Algorithm 5.1

applies to $s$, choose one and apply it. If none of these rules apply to $s$ or the rule application fails, return “failure”.

Once all elements of $\Gamma$ are solved, return the substitution $\sigma_S$ that is induced by the current assignment.

As with Algorithm 4.1, the choice which (dis)subsumption to consider next and which eager rule to apply is don’t care nondeterministic, while the choice of which nondeterministic rule to apply and the choices inside the rules are don’t know nondeterministic. Each of these latter choices may result in a different solution $\sigma_S$.

5.1. Termination.

**Lemma 5.2.** Every run of Algorithm 5.1 terminates in time polynomial in the size of $\Gamma_0$. 

### Decomposition:

**Condition:** This rule applies to \( s = C_1 \land \cdots \land C_n \subseteq \exists s. D \in \Gamma \) if there is an index \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) such that \( C_i = \exists s. C \).

**Action:** Choose such an index \( i \), add \( C_1 \subseteq ? D \) to \( \Gamma \), expand \( \Gamma \) w.r.t. \( D \) if \( D \) is a variable, and mark \( s \) as solved.

### Extension:

**Condition:** This rule applies to \( s = C_1 \land \cdots \land C_n \subseteq \exists s. D \in \Gamma \) if there is an index \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) such that \( C_i = \exists s. C \).

**Action:** Choose such an index \( i \) and add \( D \) to \( S_{C_i} \). If this makes \( S \) cyclic, then fail. Otherwise, expand \( \Gamma \) w.r.t. \( C_i \) and mark \( s \) as solved.

### Local Extension:

**Condition:** This rule applies to \( s = C \nsubseteq ? X \in \Gamma \) if \( X \) is a variable.

**Action:** Choose a non-variable atom \( D \) and add \( D \) to \( S_X \). If this makes \( S \) cyclic, then fail. Otherwise, add \( C \nsubseteq ? D \) to \( \Gamma \), expand \( \Gamma \) w.r.t. \( X \), expand \( \Gamma \) w.r.t. \( C \) if \( C \) is a variable, and mark \( s \) as solved.

---

**Figure 4:** Nondeterministic rules for Algorithm 5.1

---

**Proof.** Each rule application solves one subsumption or dissubsumption. We show that only polynomially many subsumptions and dissubsumptions are produced during a run of the algorithm, and thus there can be only polynomially many rule applications during one run of the algorithm.

A new subsumption or dissubsumption may be created only by an application of the rules Decomposition, Eager Left Decomposition, or Eager Atomic Decomposition, and then it is of the form \( C \subseteq ? D \) or \( C \nsubseteq ? D \), with \( C, D \in \text{At} \). Obviously, there are only polynomially many such (dis)subsumptions.

Now, we consider (dis)subsumptions created by expanding \( \Gamma \). They can have the following forms, where \( D, E \in \text{At}_{nv} \):

1. \( C_1 \land \cdots \land C_n \subseteq ? E \), for \( C_1 \land \cdots \land C_n \subseteq ? X \in \Gamma \),
2. \( E \nsubseteq ? D \), for \( X \nsubseteq ? D \) in \( \Gamma \).

Dissubsumptions of the type (2) are also of the form described above. For the subsumptions of type (1), note that \( C_1 \land \cdots \land C_n \) is either the left-hand side of a subsumption from the original problem \( \Gamma_0 \), or was created by a Decomposition rule, in which case we have \( n = 1 \). Thus, there can also be at most polynomially many subsumptions of the first type.

Finally, each rule application takes at most polynomial time.

---

**5.2. Soundness.** Assume that a run of the algorithm terminates with success, i.e. all subsumptions and dissubsumptions are solved. Let \( \hat{\Gamma} \) be the set of all subsumptions and dissubsumptions produced by this run, \( S \) be the final assignment, and \( \sigma_S \) the induced substitution (see Section 3.3). Observe that the algorithm never removes elements from the current disunification problem, but only marks them as solved, and hence \( \hat{\Gamma} \) contains \( \Gamma_0 \). To show that \( \sigma_S \) solves \( \hat{\Gamma} \), and thus \( \Gamma_0 \), we use induction on the following order on (dis)subsumptions.

**Definition 5.3.** Consider any (dis)subsumption \( s \) of the form \( C_1 \land \cdots \land C_n \subseteq ? C_{n+1} \) or \( C_1 \land \cdots \land C_n \nsubseteq ? C_{n+1} \) in \( \hat{\Gamma} \).
We define \( m(\sigma) := (m_1(\sigma), m_2(\sigma)) \), where
- \( m_1(\sigma) := \{X_1, \ldots, X_m\} \) is the multiset containing all occurrences of variables in the concept terms \( C_1, \ldots, C_n, C_{n+1} \) (and hence \( m_1(\sigma) = \emptyset \) if \( \sigma \) is ground);
- \( m_2(\sigma) := |\sigma| \) is the size of \( \sigma \), i.e. the number of symbols in \( \sigma \) (see the proof of Lemma 4.2).

- The strict partial order \( \triangleright \) on such pairs is the lexicographic order, where the second components are compared w.r.t. the usual order on natural numbers, and the first components are compared w.r.t. the multiset extension of \( \triangleright \).

- We extend \( \triangleright \) to \( \hat{\Gamma} \) by setting \( \hat{\sigma}_1 \triangleright \hat{\sigma}_2 \) iff \( m(\hat{\sigma}_1) \triangleright m(\hat{\sigma}_2) \).

Since multiset extensions and lexicographic products of well-founded strict partial orders are again well-founded [5], \( \triangleright \) is a well-founded strict partial order on \( \hat{\Gamma} \).

**Lemma 5.4.** The substitution \( \sigma_S \) is a solution of \( \hat{\Gamma} \), and thus also of its subset \( \Gamma_0 \).

**Proof.** Consider a (dis)subsumption \( \sigma \in \hat{\Gamma} \) and assume that \( \sigma_S \) solves all \( \sigma' \in \hat{\Gamma} \) with \( \sigma' \prec \sigma \).

Since \( \sigma \) is solved, either it has been solved by a rule application or it was initially solved.

If \( \sigma \) is a dissubsumption that is initially solved, then \( \sigma = X \triangleright \neq D \), where \( X \) is a variable and \( D \) a non-variable atom. By expansion, for every \( E \in S_X \), we have \( \sigma_E = E \triangleright \neq D \in \hat{\Gamma} \). We know that \( \sigma \triangleright \sigma_E \), because \( E \) may only contain a variable strictly smaller than \( X \), and thus \( m_1(\sigma) > m_1(\sigma_E) \). Hence by induction, \( \sigma_S \) solves all dissubsumptions \( \sigma_E \) with \( E \in S_X \).
Since the top-level atoms of \( \sigma_S(X) \) are exactly those of the form \( \sigma_S(E) \) for \( E \in S_X \), by Lemma 2.2 we know that \( \sigma_S \) also solves \( \sigma \).

If \( \sigma \) is a subsumption that is initially solved, then \( \sigma = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \neq X \), where \( X \) is a variable. By expansion, for every \( E \in S_X \), there is a subsumption \( \sigma_E = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \neq E \) in \( \hat{\Gamma} \). We have \( \sigma_E \prec \sigma \) since \( m_1(\sigma_E) < m_1(\sigma) \), for every \( E \in S_X \). Hence, by induction all subsumptions \( \sigma_E \) are solved by \( \sigma_S \). By the definition of \( \sigma_S(X) \) and Lemma 2.1 \( \sigma_S \) solves \( \sigma \).

If \( \sigma \) was solved by a rule application, we consider which rule was applied.

- **Eager Ground Solving:** Then \( \sigma \) is ground and holds under any substitution.

- **Eager Solving:** Since this rule fails for all dissubsumptions to which it is applicable, but we assumed that the run was successful, we have \( \sigma = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \neq D \) and \( \sigma_S(D) \) occurs on the top-level of \( \sigma_S(C_1) \sqcap \cdots \sqcap \sigma_S(C_n) \). Hence, \( \sigma_S \) solves the subsumption.

- **(Eager) Extension:** Then \( \sigma = X \sqcap C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \neq D \) for a variable \( X \) and \( D \in S_X \). By the definition of \( \sigma_S \), we have \( \sigma_S(X) \sqsubseteq \sigma_S(D) \) and thus \( \sigma_S \) solves \( \sigma \).

- **Eager Top Solving:** This rule cannot have been applied since we assumed the run to be successful.

- **Eager Left Decomposition:** Then either \( \sigma = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \neq D \) with \( n > 1 \), or \( \sigma = \top \sqsubseteq \neq D \), for a non-variable atom \( D \). In the latter case, \( \sigma_S \) solves \( \sigma \) by Lemma 2.2. In the former case, for each \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) we have \( \sigma_i := C_i \sqcap \neq D \in \hat{\Gamma} \). Notice that \( m_1(\sigma_i) \geq m_1(\sigma_1) \) and \( m_2(\sigma_i) > m_2(\sigma_1) \) and hence \( \sigma \triangleright \sigma_i \). Thus, by induction we have that \( \sigma_S(C_i) \sqsubseteq \sigma_S(D) \). By applying Lemma 2.2 twice, we conclude that \( \sigma_S(C_1) \sqcap \cdots \sqcap \sigma_S(C_n) \sqsubseteq \sigma_S(D) \).

- **Eager Atomic Decomposition:** Then \( \sigma = C \sqsubseteq \neq D \), where \( C \) and \( D \) are non-variable atoms. Since we assume that the run was successful, Case a) cannot apply. In Cases b)–d), \( \sigma_S \) must solve \( \sigma \) by Lemma 2.3. Finally, in Case e), we have \( C = \exists r.C', D = \exists r.D', \) and \( \sigma' = C' \sqsubseteq \neq D' \in \hat{\Gamma} \). Notice that \( \sigma \triangleright \sigma' \), because \( m_1(\sigma) = m_1(\sigma') \) and \( m_2(\sigma) > m_2(\sigma') \).
Hence, by induction we get \( \sigma_S(C') \sqsubseteq \sigma_S(D') \) and thus \( \sigma_S(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma_S(D) \) by Lemma 2.3.
• **Decomposition:** Then \( s = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \exists s.D \) with \( C_i = \exists s.C \) for some \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) and we have \( s' = C \sqsubseteq D \in \hat{\Gamma} \). We know that \( s' < s \), because \( m_1(s') \leq m_1(s) \) and \( m_2(s') < m_2(s) \). By induction, we get \( \sigma_S(C) \subseteq \sigma_S(D) \), and hence \( \sigma_S \) solves \( s \).

• **Local Extension:** Then \( s = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq X \) and there is a non-variable atom \( D \in S_X \) such that \( s' = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq D \in \hat{\Gamma} \). We have \( s > s' \), because \( D \) may only contain a variable strictly smaller than \( X \), and thus \( m_1(s) > m_1(s') \). Hence by induction, \( \sigma \) solves \( s' \).

Since \( \sigma_S(D) \) is a top-level atom of \( \sigma_S(X) \), \( \sigma_S \) solves \( s \) by Lemma 2.2.

5.3. **Completeness.** Assume now that \( \Gamma_0 \) has a local solution \( \sigma \). We show that \( \sigma \) can guide the choices of Algorithm 5.1 to obtain a local solution \( \sigma' \) of \( \Gamma_0 \) such that, for every variable \( X \), we have \( \sigma(X) \subseteq \sigma'(X) \). The following invariants will be maintained throughout the run of the algorithm for the current set of (dis)subsumptions \( \Gamma \) and the current assignment \( S \):

(I) \( \sigma \) is a solution of \( \Gamma \).

(II) For each \( D \in S_X \), we have \( \sigma(X) \subseteq \sigma(D) \).

By Lemma 2.1, the former case is impossible. In the latter case, invariant (II) implies that \( S \) is acyclic. Hence, if extending \( S \) during a rule application preserves this invariant, this extension will not cause the algorithm to fail.

**Lemma 5.5.** The invariants are maintained by the operation of expanding \( \Gamma \).

**Proof.** Since expansion does not affect the assignment \( S \), we have to check only invariant (II).

Consider a subsumption \( s = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \exists s.X \) in \( \Gamma \), for which a new subsumption \( s_E = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \exists s.E \) is created because \( E \in S_X \). By the invariants, \( \sigma \) solves \( s \) and \( \sigma(X) \subseteq \sigma(E) \). Hence by transitivity of subsumption, \( \sigma \) also solves \( s_E \), i.e. invariant (I) is satisfied after adding \( s_E \) to \( \Gamma \).

For a dissubsumption \( s = X \sqsubseteq D \in \Gamma \) and \( E \in S_X \), a new dissubsumption \( s_E = E \sqsubseteq D \) is created. Since \( \sigma \) solves \( s \) and \( \sigma(X) \subseteq \sigma(E) \) by invariant (II) we have \( \sigma(E) \subseteq \sigma(D) \) by transitivity of subsumption, i.e. \( \sigma \) solves \( s_E \).

Now we show that if the invariants are satisfied, the eager rules maintain the invariants and do not lead to failure.

**Lemma 5.6.** The application of an eager rule never fails and maintains the invariants.

**Proof.** There are six eager rules to consider:

• **Eager Ground Solving:** By invariant [II] \( \sigma \) solves all ground (dis)subsumptions in \( \Gamma \), and thus they must be valid. Therefore the rule cannot fail, and obviously it preserves the invariants.

• **Eager Solving:** The rule does not affect the invariants. It could fail only in the case that \( \Gamma \) contains a dissubsumption \( s = C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq \exists s.D \) for which there exists an index \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) such that \( C_i = D \) or \( C_i \) is a variable and \( D \in S_{C_i} \). By invariant [I] and Lemma 2.1 the former case is impossible. In the latter case, invariant [II] similarly yields a contradiction to invariant [I].

• **Eager Extension:** Consider any \( C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_m \sqsubseteq D \in \Gamma \) such that there is an index \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) with \( C_i = X \in \text{Var} \) and \( \{C_1, \ldots, C_m\} \setminus \{X\} \subseteq S_X \). By the invariants and Lemma 2.1 we have \( \sigma(X) \subseteq \sigma(C_1) \sqcap \cdots \sqcap \sigma(C_m) \subseteq \sigma(D) \), and thus adding \( D \) to \( S_X \)
maintains invariant \( [\text{II}] \). Therefore, the application of the rule does not cause \( S \) to be cyclic, and does not fail. Invariant \( [\text{I}] \) is not affected by this rule.

- **Eager Top Solving**: By invariant \( [\text{I}] \) this rule will never be applied since \( \sigma(C) \not\subseteq \top \) is impossible by Lemma 2.2.

- **Eager Left Decomposition**: This rule never fails. Furthermore, \( S \) is not affected by the rule, and hence invariant \( [\text{I}] \) is preserved. Finally, if \( \sigma \) solves \( C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \not\subseteq D \), then it must also solve \( C_i \not\subseteq D \) for each \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) by Lemma 2.2.

- **Eager Atomic Decomposition**: Case a) cannot apply since \( \sigma \) is a solution of \( \Gamma \). Invariant \( [\text{II}] \) is not affected, because \( S \) is not changed by these rules. The fact that invariant \( [\text{I}] \) is maintained in Case c) follows from Lemma 2.3.

Now we show that the nondeterministic rules can be applied in such a way that the invariants are maintained and the application does not lead to failure.

**Lemma 5.7.** If \( s \) is an unsolved (dis)subsumption of \( \Gamma \) to which no eager rule applies, then there is a nondeterministic rule that can be successfully applied to \( s \) while maintaining the invariants.

**Proof.** If \( s \) is an unsolved subsumption, then it is of the form \( C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \not\subseteq D \), where \( D \) is a non-variable atom. By invariant \( [\text{I}] \) we have \( \sigma(C_1) \cap \cdots \cap \sigma(C_n) \subseteq \sigma(D) \). By Lemma 2.1, there is an index \( i \in \{1, \ldots, n\} \) and a top-level atom \( E \) of \( \sigma(C_i) \) such that \( E \subseteq \sigma(D) \).

- If \( C_i \) is a constant, then by Lemma 2.1 we have \( C_i = E = D \), and thus **Eager Solving** is applicable, which contradicts the assumption.
- If \( C_i = \exists r.C' \), then \( \sigma(C_i) = \exists r.\sigma(C') = E \) and by Lemma 2.1 we must have \( D = \exists r.D' \) and \( \sigma(C') \subseteq \sigma(D') \). Thus, the **Decomposition** rule can be successfully applied to \( s \) and results in a new subsumption \( C' \not\subseteq D' \) that is solved by \( \sigma \).
- If \( C_i \) is a variable, then invariant \( [\text{II}] \) is preserved by adding \( D \) to \( S_{C_i} \) since we have that \( \sigma(C_i) \subseteq E \subseteq \sigma(D) \). Thus, we can successfully apply the **Extension** rule to \( s \).

If \( s \) is an unsolved dissubsumption, then it must be of the form \( C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \not\subseteq X \) since otherwise one of the eager rules in Figure 3 would be applicable to it. We have \( \sigma(C_1) \cap \cdots \cap \sigma(C_n) \not\subseteq \sigma(X) \) by invariant \( [\text{I}] \). By Lemma 2.2, there is a top-level atom \( E \) of \( \sigma(X) \) such that \( \sigma(C_1) \cap \cdots \cap \sigma(C_n) \not\subseteq E \). Since \( \sigma \) is local, we must have \( E = \sigma(D) \) for some \( D \in \text{At}_{nv} \). Hence, adding \( D \) to \( S_X \) maintains invariant \( [\text{II}] \) and adding \( C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \not\subseteq D \) to \( \Gamma \) maintains invariant \( [\text{I}] \). Thus, we can successfully apply the **Local Extension** rule to \( s \).

This concludes the proof of correctness of Algorithm 5.1. Moreover, together with Lemma 1.2 we obtain an alternative proof of Fact 3.3.

**Theorem 5.8.** The flat disunification problem \( \Gamma_0 \) has a local solution iff there is a successful run of Algorithm 5.1 on \( \Gamma_0 \).

We have restricted the nondeterministic choices of Algorithm 5.1 in such way that non-variable atoms are only added to the assignment \( S \) if this is necessary to directly solve some (dis)subsumption in \( \Gamma \). Hence, the algorithm cannot be used to compute all local solutions of \( \Gamma \), but already selects the more “interesting” ones. As described in the introduction, further dissubsumptions of the form \( X \not\subseteq D \) with \( X \in \text{Var} \) and \( D \in \text{At}_{nv} \) can be added to \( \Gamma \) in order to further restrict the solution space.
6. Encoding local disunification into SAT

In the following, we consider an alternative algorithm for local disunification that is based on a polynomial encoding into a SAT problem. This reduction is a generalization of the one developed for unification problems in [2]. We again consider a flat disunification problem on a polynomial encoding into a SAT problem. This reduction is a generalization of the one described in Section 3.2. Since we are restricting our considerations to local solutions, we can without loss of generality assume that the sets \( \mathbb{N}_v, \mathbb{N}_c, \) and \( \mathbb{N}_r \) contain exactly the variables, constants, and role names occurring in \( \Gamma \). To further simplify the reduction, we assume in the following that all flat dissubsumptions in \( \Gamma \) are of the form \( X \nsubseteq Y \) for variables \( X, Y \). This is without loss of generality, which can be shown using a transformation similar to that of Section 3.2.

The translation uses the propositional variables \([C \sqsubseteq D]\) for all \( C, D \in \mathbb{A}t \). The SAT problem consists of a set of clauses \( \mathcal{C}(\Gamma) \) over these variables that express properties of (dis)subsumptions in \( \mathcal{EL} \) and encode the elements of \( \Gamma \). The intuition is that a satisfying valuation of \( \mathcal{C}(\Gamma) \) induces a local solution \( \sigma \) of \( \Gamma \) such that \( \sigma(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma(D) \) holds whenever \([C \sqsubseteq D]\) is true under the valuation. The solution \( \sigma \) is constructed by first extracting an acyclic assignment \( S \) out of the satisfying valuation and then computing \( \sigma := \sigma_S \). We additionally introduce the variables \([X > Y]\) for all \( X, Y \in \mathbb{N}_v \) to ensure that the generated assignment \( S \) is indeed acyclic. This is achieved by adding clauses to \( \mathcal{C}(\Gamma) \) that express that \( >_S \) is a strict partial order, i.e., irreflexive and transitive.

We further use the auxiliary variables \( p_{C,X,D} \) for all \( X \in \mathbb{N}_v, C \in \mathbb{A}t, \) and \( D \in \mathbb{A}t_{nv} \) to express the restrictions imposed by dissubsumptions of the form \( C \nsubseteq ? X \) in clausal form. More precisely, whenever \([C \sqsubseteq X]\) is false for some \( X \in \mathbb{N}_v \) and \( C \in \mathbb{A}t \), then the dissubsumption \( \sigma(C) \nsubseteq \sigma(X) \) should hold. By Lemma 2.2, this means that we need to find an atom \( D \in \mathbb{A}t_{nv} \) that is a top-level atom of \( \sigma(X) \) and satisfies \( \sigma(C) \nsubseteq \sigma(D) \). This is enforced by making the auxiliary variable \( p_{C,X,D} \) true, which makes \([X \sqsubseteq D]\) true and \([C \sqsubseteq D]\) false (see Definition 6.1(IV) and Lemma 6.4 for details).

To denote propositional clauses, we use the implicative form \( \phi \rightarrow \psi \), where \( \phi \) is the conjunction of all negative literals of the clause, and \( \psi \) is the disjunction of all positive literals. We use \( \top \) to denote an empty conjunction, and \( \bot \) for an empty disjunction.

**Definition 6.1.** The set \( \mathcal{C}(\Gamma) \) contains the following propositional clauses:

(I) Translation of \( \Gamma \):

a. For every subsumption \( C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq D \) in \( \Gamma \) with \( D \in \mathbb{A}t_{nv} \):

\[
\top \rightarrow [C_1 \sqsubseteq D] \lor \cdots \lor [C_n \sqsubseteq D]
\]

b. For every subsumption \( C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq ? X \) in \( \Gamma \) with \( X \in \mathbb{N}_v \), and every \( E \in \mathbb{A}t_{nv} \):

\[
[X \sqsubseteq E] \rightarrow [C_1 \sqsubseteq E] \lor \cdots \lor [C_n \sqsubseteq E]
\]

c. For every dissubsumption \( X \nsubseteq ? Y \) in \( \Gamma \):

\[
[X \sqsubseteq Y] \rightarrow \bot
\]

(II) Properties of subsumptions between non-variable atoms:

a. For every \( A \in \mathbb{N}_c \):

\[
\top \rightarrow [A \sqsubseteq A]
\]

b. For every \( A, B \in \mathbb{N}_c \) with \( A \neq B \):

\[
[A \sqsubseteq B] \rightarrow \bot
\]

c. For every \( \exists r.A, \exists s.B \in \mathbb{A}t_{nv} \) with \( r \neq s \):

\[
[\exists r.A \sqsubseteq \exists s.B] \rightarrow \bot
\]

d. For every \( A \in \mathbb{N}_c \) and \( \exists r.B \in \mathbb{A}t_{nv} \):

\[
[A \sqsubseteq \exists r.B] \rightarrow \bot \quad \text{and} \quad [\exists r.B \sqsubseteq A] \rightarrow \bot
\]
e. For every \( \exists r.A, \exists r.B \in \text{At}^{\text{nv}} \):

\[
[\exists r.A \sqsubseteq \exists r.B] \rightarrow [A \sqsubseteq B] \quad \text{and} \quad [A \sqsubseteq B] \rightarrow [\exists r.A \sqsubseteq \exists r.B]
\]

(III) **Transitivity of subsumption.**

For every \( C_1, C_2, C_3 \in \text{At} \):

\[
[C_1 \sqsubseteq C_2] \land [C_2 \sqsubseteq C_3] \rightarrow [C_1 \sqsubseteq C_3]
\]

(IV) **Dissubsumptions of the form** \( C \not\sqsubseteq X \) **with a variable** \( X \).

For every \( C \in \text{At}, X \in \text{N}_v \):

\[
\top \rightarrow [C \sqsubseteq X] \lor \bigvee_{D \in \text{At}^{\text{nv}}} p_{C,X,D},
\]

and additionally for every \( D \in \text{At}^{\text{nv}} \):

\[
p_{C,X,D} \rightarrow [X \sqsubseteq D] \quad \text{and} \quad p_{C,X,D} \land [C \sqsubseteq D] \rightarrow \bot
\]

(V) **Properties of** \( > \).

a. For every \( X \in \text{N}_v \):

\[
[X > X] \rightarrow \bot
\]

b. For every \( X, Y, Z \in \text{N}_v \):

\[
[X > Y] \land [Y > Z] \rightarrow [X > Z]
\]

c. For every \( X, Y \in \text{N}_v \) and \( \exists r.Y \in \text{At} \):

\[
[X \sqsubseteq \exists r.Y] \rightarrow [X > Y]
\]

The main difference to the encoding in [2] lies in the clauses (IV) that ensure the presence of a non-variable atom \( D \) that solves the dissubsumption \( C \not\sqsubseteq X \) (cf. Lemma 2.2). We also need some additional clauses in (II) to deal with dissubsumptions. It is easy to see that \( \text{Cl}(\Gamma) \) can be constructed in time cubic in the size of \( \Gamma \) (due to the clauses in (III) and (V)b).

We prove the correctness of this reduction in the following two sections.

6.1. **Soundness.** Let \( \tau \) be a valuation of the propositional variables that satisfies \( \text{Cl}(\Gamma) \). We define the assignment \( S^\tau \) as follows:

\[
S^\tau_X := \{ D \in \text{At}^{\text{nv}} \mid \tau([X \sqsubseteq D]) = 1 \}.
\]

We show the following property of \( >_{S^\tau} \); the proof is exactly the same as in [2], but uses a different notation.

**Lemma 6.2.** The relation \( >_{S^\tau} \) is irreflexive.

**Proof.** We first show that \( X >_{S^\tau} Y \) implies \( \tau([X > Y]) = 1 \) for all \( X, Y \in \text{N}_v \). If \( Y \) occurs in an atom of \( S^\tau_X \), then this atom must be of the form \( \exists r.Y \) with \( r \in \text{N}_R \). By construction of \( S^\tau \), this implies that \( \tau([X \sqsubseteq \exists r.Y]) = 1 \). Since \( \tau \) satisfies the clauses in (V)c, we have \( \tau([X > Y]) = 1 \). By definition of \( >_{S^\tau} \) and the transitivity clauses in (V)b we conclude that \( \tau([X > Y]) = 1 \) whenever \( X >_{S^\tau} Y \).

Assume now that \( X >_{S^\tau} X \) holds for some \( X \in \text{N}_v \). By the claim above, this implies that \( \tau([X > X]) = 1 \). But this is impossible since \( \tau \) satisfies the clauses in (V)a. \( \square \)
This in particular shows that $S^r$ is acyclic. In the following, let $\sigma_\tau$ denote the substitution $\sigma_{S^r}$ induced by $S^r$. We show that $\sigma_\tau$ is a solution of $\Gamma$.

**Lemma 6.3.** If $C, D \in \text{At}$ such that $\tau([C \sqsubseteq D]) = 1$, then $\sigma_\tau(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$.

**Proof.** We show this by induction on the pairs $(\text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(D)), \text{Var}(D))$, where $\text{Var}(D)$ is either the variable that occurs in $D$, or $\bot$ if $D$ is ground. These pairs are compared by the lexicographic extension of the order $>$ on natural numbers for the first component and the order $>_{S^r}$ for the second component, which is extended by $Y >_{S^r} \bot$ for all $Y \in \mathbb{N}$.

We make a case distinction on the form of $C$ and $D$ and consider first the case that $D$ is a variable. Let $\sigma_\tau(E)$ be any top-level atom of $\sigma_\tau(D)$, which means that $\tau([D \sqsubseteq E]) = 1$.

By the clauses in (III) we also have $\tau([C \sqsubseteq E]) = 1$. Since $\text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(D)) \geq \text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(E))$ and $\text{Var}(D) = D >_{S^r} \text{Var}(E)$, by induction we get $\sigma_\tau(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma_\tau(E)$. Since $\sigma_\tau(D)$ is equivalent to the conjunction of all its top-level atoms, by Lemma 2.1, we obtain $\sigma_\tau(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$.

If $D$ is a non-variable atom and $C$ is a variable, then $\sigma_\tau(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$ holds by construction of $S^r$ and Lemma 2.1.

If $C, D$ are both non-variable atoms, then by the clauses in (II) they must either be the same concept constant, or existential restrictions using the same role name. In the first case, the claim follows immediately. In the latter case, let $C = \exists r . C'$ and $D = \exists r . D'$. By the clauses in (I) we have $\tau([C' \sqsubseteq D']) = 1$. Since $\text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(D)) > \text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(D'))$, by induction we get $\sigma_\tau(C') \sqsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D')$, and thus $\sigma_\tau(C) \sqsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$ by Lemma 2.2. \hfill $\Box$

We now show that the converse of this lemma also holds.

**Lemma 6.4.** If $C, D \in \text{At}$ such that $\tau([C \sqsubseteq D]) = 0$, then $\sigma_\tau(C) \nsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$.

**Proof.** We show this by induction on the tuples $(\text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(C)), \text{Var}(C), \text{Var}(D))$ and make a case distinction on the form of $C$ and $D$. If $D$ is a variable, then by the clauses in (IV) there must be a $D' \in \text{At}_{\text{nv}}$ such that $\tau(p_{C,D,D'}) = 1$. This implies that $\tau([D \sqsubseteq D']) = 1$ and $\tau([C \sqsubseteq D']) = 0$. By construction of $S^r$, $\sigma_\tau(D')$ is a top-level atom of $\sigma_\tau(D)$ and $\text{Var}(D) = d >_{S^r} \text{Var}(D')$. Since $\text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(C)) = \text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(C'))$ and $\text{Var}(C) = \text{Var}(C)$, by induction we get $\sigma_\tau(C) \nsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D')$, and thus $\sigma_\tau(C) \nsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$ by Lemma 2.2.

If $D$ is a non-variable atom and $C$ is a variable, then consider any top-level atom $\sigma_\tau(E)$ of $\sigma_\tau(D)$, which means that we have $\tau([C \sqsubseteq E]) = 1$. By the clauses in (III) this implies that $\tau([E \sqsubseteq D]) = 0$. Since we have $\text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(C)) \geq \text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(E))$ and $\text{Var}(C) = C >_{S^r} \text{Var}(E)$, by induction we get $\sigma_\tau(E) \nsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$. Since $\sigma_\tau(C)$ is equivalent to the conjunction of all its top-level atoms, by Lemma 2.2 we get $\sigma_\tau(C) \nsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$.

If $C, D$ are both non-variable atoms, then by the clauses in (II) they are either different constants, a constant and an existential restriction, or two existential restrictions. In the first two cases, $\sigma_\tau(C) \nsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$ holds by Lemma 2.1. In the last case, they can either contain two different roles or the same role. Again, the former case is covered by Lemma 2.1 while in the latter case we have $C = \exists r . C'$, $D = \exists r . D'$, and $\tau([C' \sqsubseteq D']) = 0$ by the clauses in (II). Since $\text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(C)) > \text{rd}(\sigma_\tau(C'))$, by induction we get $\sigma_\tau(C') \nsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D')$, and thus $\sigma_\tau(C) \nsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$ by Lemma 2.2. \hfill $\Box$

This suffices to show soundness of the reduction.

**Lemma 6.5.** The local substitution $\sigma_\tau$ solves $\Gamma$.

**Proof.** Consider any flat subsumption $C_1 \sqcap \cdots \sqcap C_n \sqsubseteq D$ in $\Gamma$. If $D \in \text{At}_{\text{nv}}$, then we have $\sigma_\tau(C_i) \sqsubseteq \sigma_\tau(D)$ for some $i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, by the clauses in (I) and Lemma 6.3. By Lemma 2.1, $\sigma_\tau$ solves the subsumption.
If $D$ is a variable, then consider any top-level atom $\sigma(D)$ of $\sigma(D)$, for which we must have $\tau([D \subseteq E]) = 1$. By the clauses in (I), there must be an $i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, such that $\tau([C_i \subseteq E]) = 1$, and thus $\sigma(C_i) \subseteq \sigma(D)$ by Lemma 2.3. Again, by Lemma 2.1 this implies that $\sigma$ solves the subsumption.

Finally, consider a dissubsumption $X \not\subseteq \tau Y$ in $\Gamma$. Then by the clauses in (I) and Lemma 6.4 we have $\sigma(X) \not\subseteq \sigma(Y)$ i.e. $\sigma$ solves the dissubsumption.

6.2. Completeness. Let now $\sigma$ be a ground local solution of $\Gamma$ and $\sigma\gamma$ the resulting partial order on $N_v$, defined as follows for all $X, Y \in N_v$:

$$X \gamma Y \text{ iff } \sigma(X) \not\subseteq \exists r_1, \ldots, r_n. \sigma(Y) \text{ for some } r_1, \ldots, r_n \in N_R \text{ with } n \geq 1.$$ 

Note that $\gamma$ is irreflexive since $X \gamma X$ is impossible by Lemma 2.1 and it is transitive since $\subseteq$ is transitive and closed under applying existential restrictions on both sides. Thus, $\gamma$ is a strict partial order. We define a valuation $\tau_\gamma$ as follows for all $C, D \in At$, $E \in At_{nv}$, and $X, Y \in N_v$:

$$\tau_\gamma([C \subseteq D]) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sigma(C) \subseteq \sigma(D) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\tau_\gamma(pC,X,E) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sigma(X) \not\subseteq \sigma(E) \text{ and } \sigma(C) \not\subseteq \sigma(E) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\tau_\gamma([X \gamma Y]) := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } X \gamma Y \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

**Lemma 6.6.** The valuation $\tau_\gamma$ satisfies all clauses of $Cl(\Gamma)$.

**Proof.** For (Ia), consider any flat subsumption $C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \subseteq D$ in $\Gamma$ with $D \in At_{nv}$. Since $\sigma$ solves $\Gamma$, we have $\sigma(C_1) \cap \cdots \cap \sigma(C_n) \subseteq \sigma(D)$. Since $\sigma(D)$ is an atom, by Lemma 2.1 there must be an $i$, $1 \leq i \leq n$, and a top-level atom $E$ of $\sigma(C_i)$ such that $\sigma(C_i) \subseteq E \not\subseteq \sigma(D)$. By the definition of $\tau_\gamma$, this shows that $\tau_\gamma([C_i \subseteq D]) = 1$, and thus the clause is satisfied.

Consider now an arbitrary flat subsumption $C_1 \cap \cdots \cap C_n \subseteq X$ from $\Gamma$ where $X$ is a variable, and any $E \in At_{nv}$ such that $\tau_\gamma([X \subseteq E]) = 1$. This implies that we have $\sigma(C_1) \cap \cdots \cap \sigma(C_n) \subseteq \sigma(X) \not\subseteq \sigma(E)$, and thus as above there is a top-level atom $F$ of some $\sigma(C_i)$ such that $\sigma(C_i) \subseteq F \subseteq \sigma(E)$, which shows that $\tau_\gamma([C_i \subseteq E]) = 1$, as required for the clause in (Ib).

For every dissubsumption $X \not\subseteq \tau Y$ in $\Gamma$, we must have $\sigma(X) \not\subseteq \sigma(Y)$, and thus $\tau_\gamma([X \subseteq Y]) = 0$, satisfying the clause in (Ic).

For $A \in N_c$, we have $\sigma(A) \not\subseteq \sigma(A)$, and thus $\tau_\gamma([A \subseteq A]) = 1$. Similar arguments show that the remaining clauses in (II) are also satisfied (see Lemma 2.1). For (III) consider $C_1, C_2, C_3 \in At$ with $\tau_\gamma([C_1 \subseteq C_2]) = \tau_\gamma([C_2 \subseteq C_3]) = 1$, and thus $\sigma(C_1) \subseteq \sigma(C_2) \subseteq \sigma(C_3)$. By transitivity of $\subseteq$, we infer $\tau_\gamma([C_1 \subseteq C_3]) = 1$.

For every $C \in At$, $X \in N_v$, and $D \in At_{nv}$ with $\tau_\gamma(pC,X,D) = 1$, we must have $\tau_\gamma([X \subseteq D]) = 1$ and $\tau_\gamma([C \subseteq D]) = 0$ by the definition of $\tau_\gamma$. Furthermore, whenever $\tau_\gamma([C \subseteq X]) = 0$, we have $\sigma(C) \not\subseteq \sigma(X)$, and thus by Lemma 2.2 there must be a top-level atom $E$ of $\sigma(X)$ such that $\sigma(C) \not\subseteq E$. Since $\sigma$ is a local solution, $E$ must be of the form $\sigma(F)$ for some $F \in At_{nv}$, and thus we obtain $\sigma(X) \not\subseteq \sigma(F)$ and $\sigma(C) \not\subseteq \sigma(F)$, and hence $\tau_\gamma(pC,X,F) = 1$. This shows that all clauses in (IV) are satisfied by $\tau_\gamma$. 
For (V)a, recall that $\sigma$ is irreflexive. Transitivity of $\sigma$ yields satisfaction of the clauses in (V)b. Finally, if $\sigma(X) \sqsubseteq \sigma(\exists r.Y) = \exists r.\sigma(Y)$ for some $X, Y \in N_v$ with $\exists r.Y \in \text{At}$, we have $X \succ_\sigma Y$ by definition, and thus the clauses in (V)c are satisfied by $\tau_\sigma$.

This completes the proof of the correctness of the translation presented in Definition 6.1, which provides us with a reduction of local disunification (and thus also of matching) to SAT. Since the size of $\text{Cl}(\Gamma)$ is polynomial in the size of $\Gamma$, we obtain yet another proof of Fact 3.3.

**Theorem 6.7.** The flat disunification problem $\Gamma$ has a local solution iff $\text{Cl}(\Gamma)$ is satisfiable.

Regarding the computation of actual solutions, we note that the definition of $S^\tau$ in Section 6.1 describes how to obtain local solutions of $\Gamma$ from the satisfying valuations of $\text{Cl}(\Gamma)$. From a syntactic point of view, this approach does not yield all local solutions. In fact, the transitivity clauses [III] may force us to add atoms to $S^\tau$ that are, syntactically, not necessary to solve $\Gamma$. Also note that different satisfying valuations $\tau$ may sometimes yield equivalent unifiers, because some atoms in the substitution $\sigma_\tau(X)$ of a variable $X$ may be subsumed by others. Nevertheless, we can show that, by applying the construction of Section 6.1 to the satisfying valuations of $\text{Cl}(\Gamma)$, we obtain all local solutions of $\Gamma$ modulo equivalence. We call two solutions $\sigma$ and $\gamma$ equivalent if $\sigma(X) \equiv \gamma(X)$ holds for all $X \in N_v$.

**Lemma 6.8.** Let $\sigma$ be a local solution of the flat disunification problem $\Gamma$. Then there is a satisfying valuation $\tau$ of $\text{Cl}(\Gamma)$ such that $\sigma_{S^\tau}$ is equivalent to $\sigma$.

**Proof.** Let $S$ be the acyclic assignment underlying $\sigma$, $\tau := \tau_\sigma$ be the satisfying valuation induced by $\sigma$ as defined in Section 6.2 and $S^\tau$ and $\gamma := \sigma_{S^\tau}$ be as defined in Section 6.1. We first show that $S_X \subseteq S^\tau_X$ holds for all $X \in N_v$. To this end, consider any non-variable atom $D \in S_X$. Since $\sigma(D)$ is a top-level atom of $\sigma(X)$, by Lemma 2.1 we have $\sigma(X) \sqsubseteq \sigma(D)$. Hence, the definitions of $\tau$ and $S^\tau$ yield that $\tau([X \sqsubseteq D]) = 1$ and $D \in S^\tau_X$, as required.

We can now show by induction on the well-founded strict partial order $\succ_\sigma$ that $\sigma(X) \equiv \gamma(X)$ holds for all $X \in N_v$. Assume that $\sigma(Y) \equiv \gamma(Y)$ holds for all variables $Y \prec_\sigma X$, and hence $\sigma(D) \equiv \gamma(D)$ holds for all non-variable atoms $D \in S^\tau_X$, including those in $S_X$ (it trivially holds if $D$ is ground). Since $\sigma(X)$ consists exactly of the top-level atoms $\sigma(D)$, $D \in S_X$, and similarly $\gamma(X)$ consists exactly of the top-level atoms $\gamma(D)$, $D \in S^\tau_X$, we thus know that each top-level atom of $\sigma(X)$ is equivalent to a top-level atom of $\gamma(X)$. Hence, $\gamma(X) \sqsubseteq \sigma(X)$ holds by Lemma 2.1. For the other direction, consider any top-level atom of $\gamma(X)$, which must be of the form $\gamma(D)$ with $D \in S^\tau_X$. By the definition of $S^\tau$, we obtain $\tau([X \sqsubseteq D]) = 1$, which yields $\sigma(X) \sqsubseteq \sigma(D)$ by the definition of $\tau$. Hence, there must be a top-level atom of $\sigma(X)$ that is subsumed by $\gamma(D) \equiv \sigma(D)$, and thus Lemma 2.1 yields $\sigma(X) \sqsubseteq \gamma(X)$.

The SAT reduction has been implemented in our prototype system UEL,\footnote{version 1.4.0, available at \url{http://uel.sourceforge.net/}} which uses SAT4J\footnote{http://www.sat4j.org/} as external SAT solver. First experiments show that disunification is indeed helpful for reducing the number and the size of solutions. For example, a slightly modified version of the example from the introduction has 128 solutions without any dissubsumptions (see [12] for more details). Each additional dissubsumption disallowing a particular non-variable atom in the assignments (e.g. the dissubsumption [1.3] from the introduction) roughly halves the

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number of remaining solutions. The runtime performance of the solver for local disunification problems is comparable to the one for pure unification problems, even on larger problems.

7. Related work

Since Description Logics and Modal Logics are closely related\[32\], results on unification in one of these two areas carry over to the other one. In Modal Logics, unification has mostly been considered for expressive logics with all Boolean operators\[24\,25\,31\]. An important open problem in the area is the question whether unification in the basic modal logic K, which corresponds to the DL ALC, is decidable. It is only known that relatively minor extensions of K have an undecidable unification problem\[33\].

Disunification also plays an important role in Modal Logics since it is basically the same as the admissibility problem for inference rules\[16\,27\,30\]. To be more precise, a normal modal logic L induces an equational theory\(E_L\) that axiomatizes equivalence in this logic, where the formulas are viewed as terms. Validity is then just equivalence to \(\top\) and inconsistency is equivalence to \(\bot\). An inference rule is of the form

\[
\frac{A_1, \ldots, A_m}{B_1, \ldots, B_n}
\]

where \(A_1, \ldots, B_n\) are formulas (terms) that may contain variables. More precisely, it is not a single rule but a rule schema that stands for all its instances

\[
\frac{\sigma(A_1), \ldots, \sigma(A_m)}{\sigma(B_1), \ldots, \sigma(B_n)}
\]

where \(\sigma\) is a substitution. The semantics of such a rule (7.2) is the following: whenever all of its premises are valid, then one of the consequences must be valid as well. We only admit the inference rule (7.1) for the logic \(L\) if all its instances (7.2) satisfy this requirement. Thus, we say that the inference rule (7.1) is admissible for \(L\) if

\[
\sigma(A_1) = E_L \top \land \ldots \land \sigma(A_m) = E_L \top \implies \sigma(B_1) = E_L \top \lor \ldots \lor \sigma(B_n) = E_L \top
\]

for all substitutions \(\sigma\). Obviously, this is the case iff the disunification problem

\[
\{A_1 \equiv ? \top, \ldots, A_m \equiv ? \top, B_1 \not\equiv ? \top, \ldots, B_n \not\equiv ? \top\}
\]

does not have a solution.

As already mentioned in the introduction, (dis)unification in EL is actually a special case of (dis)unification modulo equational theories\[19\,21\]. As shown in \[1\], equivalence in EL can be axiomatized by the equational theory of semilattices with monotone functions, which extends the theory ACUI of an associative-commutative-idempotent binary function symbol \(*\) (corresponding to \(\sqcap\)) with unit (corresponding to \(\top\)) by unary function symbols \(h_r\) (corresponding to \(\exists r\)) that are monotone in the sense that they satisfy the identities

\[
h_r(x) \ast h_r(x \ast y) = h_r(x \ast y),
\]

Perhaps the closest to our present work is thus the investigation of disunification in ACUI with free function symbols (i.e., additional function symbols of arbitrary arity that satisfy no non-trivial identities). This problem is shown to be in NP in \[7\,22\]; NP-hardness follows from NP-hardness of ACUI-unification with free function symbols\[28\]. To be more precise, the NP upper bound is shown in \[7\] for the theory ACI with free function symbols, using general combination results for disunification developed in the same article. However, it is easy to see that the approach applied in \[7\] also works
for ACUI. In contrast, the NP upper bound in [22] is shown for ACUI with free function symbols by directly designing a dedicated algorithm for disunification in this theory.

8. Conclusions

We have considered disunification in the description logic \( \mathcal{EL} \). While the complexity of the general problem remains open, we have identified two restrictions under which the complexity does not increase when compared to plain unification in \( \mathcal{EL} \), i.e. remains in NP. We developed a nondeterministic polynomial reduction from dismatching problems to local disunification problems, and presented two algorithms to solve the latter. These procedures extend known algorithms for unification in \( \mathcal{EL} \) without a large negative impact on their performance.

Regarding future work, we want to investigate the decidability and complexity of general disunification in \( \mathcal{EL} \), and consider also the case where non-ground solutions are allowed. In contrast to unification, these extensions make the problem harder to solve. From a more practical point of view, we plan to implement also the goal-oriented algorithm for local disunification, and to evaluate the performance of both presented algorithms on real-world problems. In addition, we will investigate whether a reduction to answer set programming (ASP) [17, 23] rather than SAT leads to a better performance.

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