Optimization over Zonotopes and Training Support Vector Machines

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Abstract. We make a connection between classical polytopes called zonotopes and Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifiers. We combine this connection with the ellipsoid method to give some new theoretical results on training SVMs. We also describe some special properties of C-SVMs for $C \to \infty$.

1 Introduction

A statistical classifier algorithm maps a set of training vectors—positively and negatively labeled points in \mathbb{R}^d —to a decision boundary. A Support Vector Machine (SVM) is a classifier algorithm in which the decision boundary depends on only a subset of training vectors, called the support vectors [18]. This limited dependence on the training set helps give SVMs good generalizability, meaning that SVMs are resistant to overtraining even in the case of large d. Another key idea associated with SVMs is the use of a kernel function in computing the dot product of two training vectors. For example, the usual dot product $v \cdot w$ could be replaced by $k(v,w) = (v \cdot w)^2$ (quadratic kernel) or by $k(v,w) = \exp(-\|v-w\|^2)$ (radial basis function). The kernel function [14] in effect maps the original training vectors in \mathbb{R}^d into a higher-dimensional (perhaps infinite-dimensional) feature space $\mathbb{R}^{d'}$; a linear decision boundary in $\mathbb{R}^{d'}$ then determines a nonlinear decision surface back in \mathbb{R}^d . For good introductions to SVMs see the tutorial by Burges [3] or the book by Cristianini and Shawe-Taylor [6].

The basic maximum margin SVM applies to the case of linearly separable training vectors, and divides positive and negative vectors by a farthest-apart pair of parallel hyperplanes, as shown in Figure 1(a). The decision boundary itself is typically the hyperplane halfway between the boundaries. Computational geometers might expect that the extension of the SVM to the non-separable case would divide positive and negative vectors by a least-overlapping pair of half-spaces bounded by parallel hyperplanes, as shown in Figure 1(b). This generalization, however, may be overly sensitive to outliers, and hence the method of choice is a more robust soft margin classifier, called a C-SVM [4,18] or ν -SVM [13] depending upon the precise formulation. Parameter C is a user-chosen penalty for errors.

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Computing the maximum margin classifier for n vectors in \mathbb{R}^d amounts to solving a quadratic program (QP) with about d variables and n linear constraints. If the feature vectors are not explicit (that is, kernel functions are being used), then the usual Lagrangian formulation gives a QP with about n+d variables and linear constraints. Similarly, the soft margin classifier—with or without explicit feature vectors—is computed in a Lagrangian formulation with about n+d variables and linear constraints. The jump from d to n+d variables can have a great impact on the running time and choice of QP algorithm. Recent results in computational geometry [8,11] give fast QP algorithms for the case of large n and small d, algorithms requiring about $\mathcal{O}(nd) + (\log n) \exp(\mathcal{O}(\sqrt{d}))$ arithmetic operations. The best bound on the number of arithmetic operations for a QP with n+d variables and constraints is about $\mathcal{O}((n+d)^3L)$, where L is the precision of the input data [16].

In this paper, we show that the jump from d to n+d is not necessary for soft margin classifiers with explicit feature vectors. More specifically, we describe training algorithms with running time near linear in n and polynomial in d and input precision, for two different scenarios: C set by the user and $C \to \infty$. The second scenario also introduces a natural measure of separability of point sets. Our algorithms build upon a geometric view of soft margin classifiers [1,5] and the ellipsoid method for convex optimization. Due to their reliance on explicit feature vectors and the ellipsoid method, and also due to the fact that SVMs are more suited to the case of moderate n and large d than to the case of large n and small d, our algorithms have little practical importance. On the other hand, our results should be interesting theoretically. We view the soft margin classifier as a problem defined over a zonotope, a type of polytope that admits an especially compact description. Accordingly, our algorithms have lower complexity than either the vertex or facet descriptions of the polytopes.

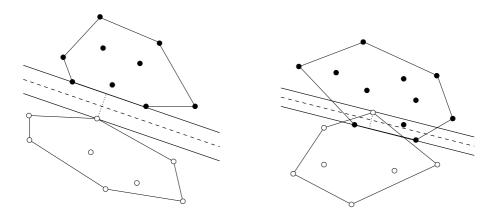


Fig. 1. (a) The maximum margin SVM classifier for the separable case. The dashed line shows the decision boundary. (b) The most natural generalization to the non-separable case is not popular.

2 SVM Formulations

We adopt the usual SVM notation and mostly follow the presentation of Bennett and Bredensteiner [1]. The training vectors are x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n , points in \mathbb{R}^d . The corresponding labels are y_1, y_2, \ldots, y_n , each of which is either +1 or -1. Let $I_+ = \{i \mid y_i = +1\}$ and $I_- = \{i \mid y_i = -1\}$. We use w and x to denote vectors in \mathbb{R}^d and b to denote a scalar. We use the dot product notation $w \cdot x$, but in this section $w \cdot x$ could be standing in for the kernel function k(w, x).

In the maximum margin SVM we seek parallel hyperplanes defined by the equations $w \cdot x = b_+$ and $w \cdot x = b_-$ such that $w \cdot x_i \leq b_-$ for all $i \in I_-$ and $w \cdot x_i \geq b_+$ for all $i \in I_+$. The signed distance between these two hyperplanes—the margin—is $\frac{b_+ - b_-}{\|w\|}$ and hence can be maximized by minimizing $\|w\|^2 - (b_+ - b_-)$.

$$\min_{w, b_{+}, b_{-}} \|w\|^{2} - (b_{+} - b_{-}) \qquad \text{subject to}$$

$$x_{i} \cdot w \geq b_{+} \text{ for } i \in I_{+}, \qquad x_{i} \cdot w \leq b_{-} \text{ for } i \in I_{-}.$$
(1)

A popular choice for the decision boundary is the plane halfway between the parallel hyperplanes, $w \cdot x = (b_+ + b_-)/2$, and hence each unknown vector x is classified according to the sign of $w \cdot x - (b_+ + b_-)/2$.

In the linearly separable case, we can set $b_{+} = 1 - b$ and $b_{-} = -1 - b$ (thereby rescaling w) and obtain the following optimization problem, the standard form in most SVM treatments [3].

$$\min_{w, b} \|w\|^2 \qquad \text{subject to}$$

$$x_i \cdot w + b \ge 1 \text{ for } i \in I_+, \qquad x_i \cdot w + b \le -1 \text{ for } i \in I_-.$$

Notice that this QP has d+1 variables and n linear constraints. At the solution, w is a linear combination of x_i 's, $2/\|w\|$ gives the margin, and $w \cdot x + b = 0$ gives the halfway decision boundary.

The dual problem to maximizing the distance between parallel hyperplanes separating the positive and negative convex hulls is to minimize the distance between points inside the convex hulls. Thus the dual in the separable case is the following.

$$\min_{\alpha_i} \left\| \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i x_i - \sum_{i \in I_-} \alpha_i x_i \right\|^2 \text{ subject to } 0 \le \alpha_i \le 1, \quad \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i = 1, \quad \sum_{i \in I_-} \alpha_i = 1.$$
(3)

Karush-Kuhn-Tucker (complementary slackness) conditions show that the optimizing value of w for (1) is given by the optimizing values of α_i for (3): $w = \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i x_i - \sum_{i \in I_-} \alpha_i x_i$. The vectors x_i with $\alpha_i > 0$ are called the *support* vectors.

The soft margin SVM adds slack variables to formulation (1), and then penalizes solutions proportional to the sum of these variables. Slack variable ξ_i measures the *error* for training vector x_i , that is, how far x_i lies on the wrong

side of the parallel hyperplane for x_i 's class.

$$\min_{\substack{w, b_{+}, b_{-}, \xi_{i} \\ \xi_{i} \geq 0 \ \forall i, \quad x_{i} \cdot w \geq b_{+} - \xi_{i} \text{ for } i \in I_{+}, \quad x_{i} \cdot w \leq b_{-} + \xi_{i} \text{ for } i \in I_{-}.}$$
(4)

The standard C-SVM formulation [18] again sets $b_{+} = 1 - b$ and $b_{-} = -1 - b$.

$$\min_{w, b, \xi_i} \|w\|^2 + C \sum_{i=0}^n \xi_i$$
 subject to (5)

$$\xi_i \ge 0 \quad \forall i, \quad x_i \cdot w + b \ge 1 - \xi_i \quad \text{for} \quad i \in I_+, \quad x_i \cdot w + b \le -1 + \xi_i \quad \text{for} \quad i \in I_-.$$

In formulation 5, the decision boundary is $w \cdot x = b$. Formulation (4), however, does not set the decision boundary, but only its direction. Crisp and Burges [5] write that because "originally the sum of ξ_i 's term arose in an attempt to approximate the number of errors", the best option might be to run a "simple line search" to find the decision boundary that actually minimizes the number of training set errors.

The dual of formulation (4) in the separable case minimizes the distance between points inside "reduced" or "soft" convex hulls [1,5].

$$\min_{\alpha_i} \left\| \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i x_i - \sum_{i \in I_-} \alpha_i x_i \right\|^2 \text{ subject to } 0 \le \alpha_i \le \mu, \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i = 1, \sum_{i \in I_-} \alpha_i = 1.$$
(6)

See Figure 2. The reduced convex hull of points x_i , $i \in I_+$, is the set of convex combinations of $\alpha_i x_i$ with each $\alpha_i \leq \mu$. (Notice that in (4) there is no reason to consider $\mu > 1$.) We shall say more about reduced convex hulls in the next section.

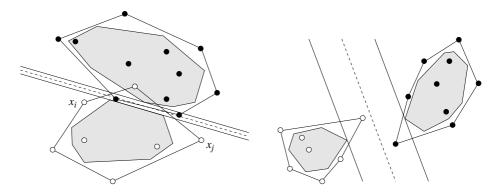


Fig. 2. (a) Soft margin SVMs maximize the margin between reduced convex hulls. (b) Although the soft margin is often explained as a way to handle non-separability, it can help in the separable case as well.

The dual view highlights a slight difference between formulations (4) and (5). Formulation (4) allows the direct setting of the reduced convex hulls. Parameter μ limits the influence of any single training point; if the user expects no more than four outliers in the training set, then an appropriate choice of μ might be 1/9 in order to ensure that the majority of the support vectors are non-outliers. If the reduced convex hulls intersect, the solution to (4) is the least-overlapping pair of half-spaces, as in Figure 1(b). Formulation (5) is also always feasible—unlike the standard hard margin formulation (2)—but it never allows the reduced convex hulls to intersect. As $C \to \infty$ the reduced convex hulls either fill out their convex hulls (the separable case) or continue growing until they asymptotically touch (the non-separable case).

3 Reduced Convex Hulls and Zonotopes

Assume $0 \le \mu \le 1$ and define the positive and negative reduced convex hulls by

$$H_{+\mu} = \Big\{ \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i x_i \mid \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i = 1, \quad 0 \le \alpha_i \le \mu \Big\},\,$$

$$H_{-\mu} = \Big\{ \sum_{i \in I_{-}} \alpha_i x_i \mid \sum_{i \in I_{-}} \alpha_i = 1, \quad 0 \le \alpha_i \le \mu \Big\}.$$

Figure 3 shows the reduced convex hull of three points x_1 , x_2 , and x_3 for various values of μ . The reduced convex hull grows from the centroid at $\mu = 1/3$ to the convex hull at $\mu = 1$; for $\mu < 1/3$ it is empty. In Figure 2, μ is a little less than 1/2.

A reduced convex hull is a special case of a *centroid polytope*, the locus of possible weighted averages of points each with an unknown weight within a certain range [2]. For reduced convex hulls, each weight α_i has the same range $[0, \mu]$ and the sum of the weights is constrained to be 1. In [2] we related centroid polytopes in \mathbb{R}^d to special polytopes, called zonotopes, in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} . We repeat the connection here, specialized to the case of reduced convex hulls.

Let v_i denote $(x_i, 1)$, the vector in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} that agrees with x_i on its first d coordinates and has 1 as its last coordinate. Define

$$Z_{+\mu} = \Big\{ \sum_{i \in I_{+}} \alpha_{i} v_{i} \mid 0 \le \alpha_{i} \le \mu \Big\}.$$

Polytope $Z_{+\mu}$ is a Minkowski sum¹ of line segments of the form $S_i = \{ \alpha_i v_i \mid 0 \le \alpha_i \le \mu \}$. The Minkowski sum of line segments is a special type of convex polytope called a zonotope [2,7]. Polytope $H_{+\mu}$ is the cross-section of $Z_{+\mu}$ with the (d+1)-st coordinate (which by construction is also $\sum_i \alpha_i$) equal to one. Of course, $H_{-\mu}$ can also be related to a zonotope in the same way. The following lemmas state the property of zonotopes and reduced convex hulls that underlies our algorithms. Lemma 2 is implicit in Keerthi et al.'s iterative nearest-point approach to SVM training [9].

The *Minkowski sum* of sets A and B in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} is $\{p+q\mid p\in A \text{ and } q\in B\}$.

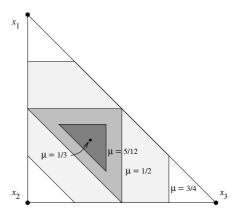


Fig. 3. The reduced convex hull of 3 points ranges from the centroid to the convex hull.

Lemma 1. Let Z be a zonotope that is the Minkowski sum of n line segments in \mathbb{R}^d . There is an algorithm with $\mathcal{O}(nd)$ arithmetic operations for optimizing a linear function over Z.

Proof. Assume that we are trying to find a vertex v in zonotope Z extreme in direction w, that is, that maximizes the dot product $w \cdot v$. Assume that Z is the Minkowski sum of line segments of the form $S_i = \{\alpha_i v_i \mid 0 \le \alpha_i \le \mu\}$, where $v_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. We simply set each α_i independently to 0 or μ , depending upon whether the projection of v_i onto w is negative or positive.

Lemma 2. There is an algorithm with $\mathcal{O}(nd)$ arithmetic operations for optimizing a linear function over a reduced convex hull of n points in \mathbb{R}^d .

Proof. Assume that we are trying to find a vertex x in zonotope $H_{+\mu}$ extreme in direction w. Order the x_i 's with $y_i = +1$ according to their projection onto vector w, breaking ties arbitrarily. In decreasing order by projection along w, set the corresponding α_i 's to μ until doing so would violate the constraint that $\sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i = 1$. Set α_i for this "transitional" vector to the maximum value allowed by this constraint, and finally set the remaining α_i 's to 0. Then $x = \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i x_i$ maximizes $w \cdot x$.

An interesting combinatorial question asks for the worst-case complexity of a reduced convex hull $H_{+\mu}$. The vertex x of $H_{+\mu}$ that is extreme for direction w can be associated with the set of x_i 's for which $\alpha_i > 0$. If $\mu = 1/k$, then as in Lemma 2, x's set is the first k points in direction w, a set of k points that can be separated from the other n-k points by a hyperplane normal to w. And conversely, each separable set of k points defines a unique vertex of H_{μ} . Hence the maximum number of vertices of $H_{+\mu}$ is equal to the maximum number of k-sets for n points in \mathbb{R}^d , which is known to be $\omega(n^{d-1})$ and $o(n^d)$ [17,19]. In [2] we showed that a more general centroid polytope in which each point x_i has α_i

between 0 and μ_i (that is, different weight bounds for different points) may have complexity $\Theta(n^d)$.

We can also apply the argument in the proof of Lemma 2 to say something about the optimizing values of the variables in (4) and (6) for the non-separable case. (Alternatively we can derive the same statements from the Karush-Kuhn-Tucker conditions.) Each of H_+ and H_- has a transition in the sorted order of the x_i 's when projected along the normal w to the parallel pair of hyperplanes. For x_i with $i \in I_+$, $\alpha_i = 0$ if $x_i \cdot w$ lies on the "right" side of the transition, $0 \le \alpha_i \le \mu$ if $x_i \cdot w$ coincides with the transition, and $\alpha_i = \mu$ if x_i lies on the "wrong" side of the transition. Of course an analogous statement holds for x_i for $i \in I_-$. As usual, the support vectors are those x_i with $\alpha_i > 0$. Thus all training set errors are support vectors. In Figure 2(a) there are six support vectors: two transitional unfilled dots (marked x_i and x_j) and one wrong-side unfilled dot, along with one transitional and two wrong-side filled dots.

4 Ellipsoid-Based Algorithms

We first assume that μ has been fixed in advance, perhaps using some knowledge of the expected number of outliers or the desired number of support vectors. We give an algorithm for solving formulation (6).

One approach would be to compute the vertices of $H_{+\mu}$ and $H_{-\mu}$ and then use formulation (1) with positive and negative training vectors replaced by the vertices of $H_{+\mu}$ and $H_{-\mu}$ respectively. However, the number of vertices of $H_{+\mu}$ and $H_{-\mu}$ may be very large, so this algorithm could be very slow.

So instead we exploit a polynomial-time equivalence between separation and optimization (see for example [15], chapter 14.2). The input to the *separation problem* is a point q and a polytope P (typically given by a system of linear inequalities). The output is either a statement that q is inside P or a hyperplane separating q and P. The input to the *optimization problem* is a direction w and a polytope P. The output is either a statement that P is empty, a statement that P is unbounded in direction w, or a point in P extreme for direction w. The two problems are related by projective duality, and a subroutine for solving one can be used to solve the other in a number of calls that is polynomial in the dimension d and the input precision, that is, the number of bits in q or w plus the maximum number of bits in an inequality defining P.

In our case, the polytope is not given by inequalities, but rather as a Minkowski sum of line segments; this presentation has an impact on the required precision. If the input precision is L, the maximum number of bits in one of the feature vectors x_i , then the maximum number of bits in a vertex of the polytope is $\mathcal{O}(d^2L\log n)$. What is new is the $\mathcal{O}(\log n)$ term, resulting from the fact that a vertex of a zonotope is a sum of up to n input vectors.

² The more famous direction of this equivalence is that separation—which can be solved directly by checking each inequality—implies optimization. This result is a corollary of Khachiyan's ellipsoid method.

Theorem 1. Given n explicit feature vectors in \mathbb{R}^d and μ with $1/n \leq \mu \leq 1$, there is a polynomial-time algorithm for computing a soft margin classifier, with the number of arithmetic operations linear in n and polynomial in d, L, and $\log n$.

Proof. As in [9], consider the polytope P that is the Minkowski sum of $H_{+\mu}$ and $-H_{-\mu}$, that is, $P = \{v_+ - v_- \mid v_+ \in H_{+\mu} \text{ and } v_- \in H_{-\mu}\}$. We are trying to minimize over P the convex quadratic objective function $||v||^2$, that is, the length of a line segment between $H_{+\mu}$ and $H_{-\mu}$.

For a given direction w, we can find the solution $v = v_+ - v_-$ to the linear optimization problem for P by using Lemma 2 to find the v_+ optimizing w over $H_{+\mu}$ and the v_- optimizing w over $H_{-\mu}$. Now given a point $q \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we can use this observation and the polynomial-time equivalence between separation and optimization to solve the separation problem for q and P in time linear in n and polynomial in d and L. We can use this solution to the separation problem for P as a subroutine for the ellipsoid method (see [10,15]) in order to optimize $||v||^2$ over P. Given an optimizing choice of $v = v_+ - v_-$, it is easy to find the best pair of parallel hyperplanes and a decision boundary, either the C-SVM decision boundary or some other reasonable choice within the parallel family.

Now assume that we are in the non-separable case. We shall show how to solve for the maximum μ for which the reduced convex hulls have non-intersecting interior, that is, the μ for which the margin is 0. This choice of μ corresponds to $C \to \infty$ and the objective function simplifying to $\sum_i \xi_i$ in formulation (5).

This choice of μ has two special properties. First, among all settings of C, $C \to \infty$ tends to give the fewest support vectors. To see this, imagine shrinking the shaded regions in Figure 2(a). Support vectors are added each time one of the parallel hyperplanes crosses a training vector. On the other hand, a support vector may be lost occasionally when the number of reduced convex hull vertices on the parallel hyperplanes changes, for example, if the vertex supporting the upper parallel line in Figure 2(a) slipped off to the right of the segment supporting the lower parallel line.

Second, the μ for which the margin is zero gives a natural measure of the separability of two point sets. For simplicity, let $|I_+|=|I_-|=n/2$ and normalize the zero-margin μ by $\mu^*=(\mu-2/n)/(1-2/n)$. The separability measure μ^* runs from 0 to 1, with 0 meaning that the centroids coincide and 1 meaning that the convex hulls have disjoint interiors. Computing the zero-margin μ as the maximum value of a dual variable α_i using formulation (5) above is no harder than training a C-SVM, and in the case of explicit features, it should be significantly easier, as we now show.

We can formulate the problem as minimizing μ subject to

$$\sum_{i \in I_+} \beta_i x_i = \sum_{i \in I_-} \beta_i x_i, \qquad \sum_{i \in I_+} \beta_i = 1, \qquad \sum_{i \in I_-} \beta_i = 1, \qquad 0 \le \beta_i \le \mu.$$

As above, let v_i denote $(x_i, 1)$, the vector in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} that agrees with x_i on its first d coordinates and has 1 as its last coordinate. Letting $\alpha_i = \beta_i/\mu$, we can rewrite

the problem as maximizing

$$1/\mu = \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i = \sum_{i \in I_-} \alpha_i$$

subject to

$$\sum_{i \in I_{+}} \alpha_{i} v_{i} = \sum_{i \in I_{-}} \alpha_{i} v_{i}, \qquad 0 \le \alpha_{i} \le 1.$$
 (7)

Yet another way to state the problem is to ask for the point with maximum (d+1)-st coordinate in $Z_+ \cap Z_-$, where

$$Z_+ = \Big\{ \sum_{i \in I_+} \alpha_i v_i \ \Big| \ 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq 1 \, \Big\}, \qquad Z_- = \Big\{ \sum_{i \in I_-} \alpha_i v_i \ \Big| \ 0 \leq \alpha_i \leq 1 \, \Big\}.$$

Polytopes Z_+ and Z_- are each zonotopes, Minkowski sums of line segments of the form $S_i = \{ \alpha_i v_i \mid 0 \le \alpha_i \le 1 \}$.

Theorem 2. Let Z_1 and Z_2 be zonotopes defined by a total of n line segments in \mathbb{R}^d . There is an algorithm for optimizing a linear objective function over $Z_1 \cap Z_2$, with the number of arithmetic operations linear in n and polynomial in d, L, and $\log n$.

Proof. Given a point q and zonotope Z_i , $1 \leq i \leq 2$, we can use Lemma 1 and the polynomial-time equivalence between separation and optimization to solve the separation problem for q and Z_i in time linear in n and polynomial in d, L and $\log n$. We can solve the separation problem for the intersection of zonotopes $Z_1 \cap Z_2$ simply by solving it separately for each zonotope. We now use the equivalence between separation and optimization in the other direction to conclude that we can also solve the optimization problem for an intersection of zonotopes.

The proof of the following result then follows from the ellipsoid method in the same way as the proof of Theorem 1.

Corollary 1. Given n explicit feature vectors in \mathbb{R}^d , there is a polynomial-time algorithm for computing the maximum μ for which $H_{+\mu}$ and $H_{-\mu}$ are linearly separable, with the number of arithmetic operations linear in n and polynomial in d, L, and log n.

Theorem 1 and Corollary 1 can be extended to some cases of implicit feature vectors. For example, the quadratic kernel $k(v,w)=(v\cdot w)^2$ for vectors $v=(v_1,v_2)$ and $w=(w_1,w_2)$ in \mathbb{R}^2 is equivalent to an ordinary dot product in \mathbb{R}^3 , namely $k(v,w)=\Phi(v)\cdot\Phi(w)$, where $\Phi(v)=(v_1^2,\sqrt{2}v_1v_2,v_2^2)$. In general [3], a polynomial kernel $k(v,w)=(v\cdot w)^p$ amounts to lifting the training vectors from \mathbb{R}^d to $\mathbb{R}^{d'}$ where $d'=\binom{d+p-1}{p}$. Radial basis functions, however, give $d'=\infty$, and the SVM training problem seems to necessarily involve n+d variables. (The rather amazing part is that it is a combinatorial optimization problem at all!)

5 Discussion and Conclusions

In this paper we have connected SVMs to some recent results in computational geometry and mathematical programming. These connections raise some new questions, both practical and theoretical.

Currently the best practical algorithms for training SVMs, Platt's sequential minimal optimization (SMO) [12] and Keerthi et al.'s nearest point algorithm (NPA) [9], can be viewed as interior-point methods that iteratively optimize the margin over line segments. Both algorithms make use of heuristics to find line segments close to the exterior, meaning line segments with α_i weights set to either 0 or C.

Computational geometry may have a practical algorithm to contribute for the case of n large and d small, say $n \approx 100,000$ and $d \approx 20$: the generalized linear programming (GLP) paradigm of Matoušek et al. [8,11]. The training vectors need not actually live in \mathbb{R}^d for small d, so long as the GLP dimension of the problem is small, where the GLP dimension is the number of support vectors in any subproblem defined by a subset of the training vectors.

On the theoretical side, we are wondering about the existence of strongly polynomial algorithms for QP problems over zonotopes. Due to the combinatorial equivalence of zonotopes and arrangements, the graph diameter of a zonotope is known to be only $\mathcal{O}(n)$; polynomial graph diameter is of course a necessary condition for the existence of a polynomial-time simplex-style algorithm.

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