# LOW-RANK TENSOR HUBER REGRESSION* 

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#### Abstract

Low-rank tensor regression has been well considered under general least squares framework, but it is highly sensitive to the outliers or heavy-tailed errors. To tackle this problem, we propose a low-rank tensor Huber regression model in which the tensor nuclear norm regularization is employed to characterize the low-rankness. The risk bound of the resulting estimator is established under mild assumptions. In addition, an efficient and stable alternating direction method of multipliers based algorithm is designed to solve the proposed model, and the global convergence as well as the computational complexity of the algorithm is also analyzed. Finally, numerical experiments conducted both on synthetic data with different types of noises and a real dataset illustrate the robustness and effectiveness of the approach. Especially when the noise is heavy-tailed or the coefficient tensor is low-rank, the mean square error of the estimator obtained by our model can be orders of magnitude better than several existing methods.


Key words: tensor Huber regression, low-rank, heavy-tailed noise, risk bound, alternating direction method of multipliers

Mathematics Subject Classification: 15A18, 15A69, 65F15, 90C33

## 1 Introduction

To solve the regression problem with tensor data, researchers have proposed tensor regression, which widely exists in scientific research and practical application fields, such as recommendation system [4], medical imaging data analysis [17], image/video analysis [29], machine learning and artificial intelligence [34]. The ordinary regularized tensor least squares, such as $[11,17,36,41]$, are highly sensitive to the outliers or heavy-tailed errors. In this sense, it is natural to consider the robust approach, such as the popular quantile regression [21] and least absolute deviation regression [20]. Meanwhile, by imposing sparsity and/or low rank structures on parameters, low dimensional tensor regression problem has been widely studied in the development of algorithms and theoretical guarantee in recent years, see Buhlmann and van de Geer [5] for an overview. However, it is much less clear how to effectively handle the scenario when outliers/heavy-tailed errors and low dimensional structures are simultaneously inherent to these regression problems. The main purpose of this paper is to provide a robust method for low-rank coefficient tensor regression.

Comparing with the quantile regression and least absolute deviation regression, regression with Huber loss $[18,19,38]$ has received more and more attention due to its adaptability

[^0]to errors with different shapes and tails. Related research includes the use of Huber loss together with the adaptive lasso penalty [25], the regularized approximate quadratic estimator with an $\ell_{1}$-penalty (RA Lasso) [10], $\ell_{1}$-norm regularized vector Huber regression model with linear equality and inequality constraints [30], and $\ell_{0}$-norm regularized vector Huber regression model [1]. Among them, $\ell_{1}$ - or $\ell_{0}$-penalty is used to control the inherited sparsity of the estimator, thereby alleviating the over-fitting issue and/or achieving data dimension reduction. Moreover, there is now a substantial body of work on low-rank matrix Huber regression, in which the nuclear norm regularization is often adopted to control the low-rank structure of the coefficient matrix. For instance, Elsener and van de Geer [9] have studied the nuclear norm regularized single response Huber regression model and proved the sharp Oracle inequality of risk function, Chen et al. [7] have proposed a low-rank elastic-net regularized multivariate Huber regression model and designed an accelerated proximal gradient algorithm.

To sum up, little is known about statistical theory as well as efficient algorithms for estimation of the low-rank tensor Huber regression models, although vector and matrix methods have been extensively studied. However, those works on vector or matrix models cannot be extended to tackle tensor models directly. On the one hand, the method of unfolding tensor into vector or matrix will break down the spatial structure, and result in the loss of information. On the other hand, it will lead to the dimensionality disaster and then the over-fitting phenomenon, especially for small sample size data [31, 44]. This motivates us to establish robust low-rank tensor Huber regression for original tensor data which is friendly to outliers/heavy tailed errors.

Focusing on the low-rank tensor regression, numerous researchers have adopted nuclear norm regularization techniques to enhance the low-rank structure, see, e.g., [23, 28, 29, 37]. It is worth pointing out that the existing statistical properties and numerical algorithms along this line are mostly concentrated on ordinary least squares. For example, Raskutti et al. [36] have deduced the statistical upper bound for the low-rank least squares tensor model with the nuclear norm penalty, and Li et al. [26] have investigated the estimation error upper bound for the proposed tensor response linear model with the nuclear- $\ell_{1}$-norm regularization and developed an M-ADMM-based algorithm to achieve low-rank and sparse tensor recovery. Little work has addressed the low-rank robust tensor regression.

This motivates us to build the nuclear norm regularized tensor Huber regression (NNTH) model for robust estimation. The resulting NNTH estimator will be shown to possess nice risk bound theoretically. In addition, to compute NNTH estimator, an efficient tensor alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) algorithm is designed. The contributions of this paper include: (1) An NNTH model is proposed to deal with original tensor data directly. This model not only preserves low-rank structure of tensor data, but also reduces the negative impact of outliers. (2) The risk bound of the resulting estimator is established. (3) An ADMM algorithm is designed which enjoys low computational complexity and global convergence.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, the NNTH model is introduced for the low-rank tensor regression with outliers/heavy-tailed errors. In Section 3, we establish the risk bound for the resulting NNTH estimator. In Section 4, we design an ADMM-based algorithm to solve the proposed NNTH model, and analyze the convergence as well as the computational complexity of the algorithm. Simulation studies and a real data analysis are discussed in Section 5. A brief conclusion is drawn in Section 6. For convenience, notation that will be used throughout the paper is listed in Table 1.

Table 1: A list of notation.

| := | Defined as |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\mathbb{R}^{m}$ | The $m$-dimensional real vector space |
| $\mathbb{R}^{m \times q}$ | The $m \times q$-dimensional real matrix space |
| $\mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}$ | The $I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}$-dimensional real tensor space |
| $\mathbb{I}_{d}$ | The identity matrix of dimension $d$ |
| $\overline{\mathrm{M}}$ | The closure of subspace $\mathbb{M}$ |
| $\mathbb{M}^{\perp}$ | The orthogonal complement of subspace $\mathbb{M}$ |
| $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle$ | The inner product |
| $\otimes$ | The Kronecker product |
| $\\|\cdot\\|_{*}$ | The matrix/tensor nuclear norm |
| $\\|\cdot\\|$ | The matrix spectral norm |
| $\\|\cdot\\|_{*}^{*}$ | The dual norm of tensor $\\|\cdot\\|_{*}$ |
| $\\|\cdot\\|_{F}$ | The Frobenius norm |
| $\\|\cdot\\|_{2}$ | The Euclidean norm of vectors |
| $\nabla f(\cdot)$ | The gradient of function $f$ |
| $\partial f(\cdot)$ | The subdifferential of function $f$ |
| $\nabla^{2} f(\cdot)$ | The Hessian matrix of function $f$ |
| Prox $_{\beta f}(\cdot)$ | The proximal operator of $f$ associated with a parameter $\beta$ |
| [ $n$ ] | The index set $\{1, \ldots, n\}$ |
| $\operatorname{vec}(X)$ | The column vector generated by stacking all columns of the matrix $X$ |
| $v t t(\cdot)$ | The inverse transformation of vec( $\cdot$ ) |
| $\mathbb{E}(x)$ | The expectation of random variable $x$ |
| $A^{T}$ | The transpose of the matrix A |
| $B_{(d)}$ | The $d$-mode unfolding of the tensor $\mathcal{B}$ |
| $\operatorname{fold}_{d}\left(B_{(d)}\right)$ | The inverse operation of $B_{(d)}$ |
| $\operatorname{rank}(\mathcal{B})$ | The Tucker rank of tensor $\mathcal{B}$ |
| $\sigma(A)$ | The singular value of the matrix A |
| $\lambda_{\text {min }}(M)$ | The minimum eigenvalue of square matrix $M$ |
| $\lambda_{\max }(M)$ | The maximum eigenvalue of square matrix $M$ |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(A)$ | The probability of the occurrence of the event $A$ |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(A \mid B)$ | The probability of the event $A$ under the precondition $B$ |
| $\|\mathcal{A}\|$ | The number of elements in set $\mathcal{A}$ |
| $\mathcal{A} \times{ }_{d} B$ | The $d$-mode product of the tensor $\mathcal{A}$ and the matrix $B$ |

## 2 Methodology

### 2.1 Tensor Basics

An $M$ th-order tensor $\mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}$ is an $M$-way array consisting of entries $x_{i_{1} \ldots i_{M}}$ with each $i_{j}$ varying among $1, \ldots, I_{j}$ for all $j \in[M]$. Vectors and matrices are typical low order tensors with $M=1$ and $M=2$, respectively. Some useful operations that transform a tensor into a matrix or a vector are recalled. The operator vec $(\mathcal{X})$ stacks the entries of $\mathcal{X}$ into a $\prod_{m} I_{m}$ dimensional column vector. The $m$-mode unfolding, termed as $X_{(m)}$, maps a tensor $\mathcal{X}$ into a $I_{m} \times \prod_{m^{\prime} \neq m} I_{m^{\prime}}$ matrix. Define the inner product and the Frobenius norm for tensors with symbols $\langle\cdot, \cdot\rangle,\|\cdot\|_{F}$, respectively, formulated by

$$
\langle\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}\rangle:=\sum_{i_{1}=1}^{I_{1}} \cdots \sum_{i_{M}=1}^{I_{M}} x_{i_{1} \ldots i_{M}} y_{i_{1} \ldots i_{M}} \in \mathbb{R}, \quad\|\mathcal{X}\|_{F}:=\sqrt{\langle\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{X}\rangle}
$$

for all $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}$. The $m$-mode product of the tensor $\mathcal{X}$ with a matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{R_{m} \times I_{m}}$, termed as $\mathcal{X} \times_{m} U$, yields a tensor $\mathcal{Y} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \cdots \times R_{m} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}$ with its entries $y_{i_{1} i_{2} \ldots r_{m} \cdots i_{M}}=$ $\sum_{i_{m}=1}^{I_{m}} \mathcal{X}_{i_{1} i_{2} \ldots i_{m} \ldots i_{M}} U_{r_{m} i_{m}}$.

The Tucker decomposition is one of the most important decompositions for general high order tensors. For a tensor $\mathcal{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}$, there exists a tensor $\mathcal{G} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_{1} \times \cdots \times r_{M}}$ and $M$ matrices $U_{m} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{m} \times r_{m}}(m \in[M])$ (usually have orthogonal columns, i.e., $U_{m}^{T} U_{m}=\mathbb{I}_{r_{m}}, m \in$ $[M])$, such that

$$
\mathcal{X}=\mathcal{G} \times_{1} U_{1} \times_{2} \cdots \times_{M} U_{M}
$$

Introducing the Tucker rank of $\mathcal{X}$, written as $\operatorname{rank}(\mathcal{X})$, with definitional expression as the vector $\left(\operatorname{rank}\left(X_{(1)}\right), \ldots, \operatorname{rank}\left(X_{(M)}\right)\right)$, where each $\operatorname{rank}\left(X_{(m)}\right)$ is called the $m$-rank of $\mathcal{X}$. Recall from [29] that the tensor nuclear norm is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\mathcal{X}\|_{*}:=\frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M}\left\|X_{(m)}\right\|_{*} . \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Declared by [42, Lemma 1], the dual norm of the nuclear norm is defined as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\mathcal{X}\|_{*}^{*}:=\inf _{\frac{1}{M}\left(\mathcal{Y}^{(1)}+\cdots+\mathcal{Y}^{(M)}\right)=\mathcal{X}} \max _{d=1, \ldots, M}\left\|Y_{(d)}^{(d)}\right\| \tag{2.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $Y_{(d)}^{(d)}$ is the $d$-mode unfolding of $\mathcal{Y}^{(d)}$. Moreover, it has been shown that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\mathcal{X}\|_{*}^{*} \leq \frac{1}{M} \sum_{d=1}^{M}\left\|X_{(d)}\right\| \leq \max _{d=1, \ldots, M}\left\|X_{(d)}\right\| \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

More tensor basics can be found in $[22,35]$.

### 2.2 Low Rank Regularized Tensor Huber Regression

Consider the tensor regression problem in which covariate tensors $\mathcal{X}_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}$ and responses $y_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$ are related by

$$
\begin{equation*}
y_{i}=\left\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle+\epsilon_{i}, \quad \forall i \in[N], \tag{2.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left\{\mathcal{X}_{i}: i \in[N]\right\}$ are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) covariate tensors, $\left\{\epsilon_{i}: i \in[N]\right\}$ are i.i.d. errors, and $\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}$ is the unknown coefficient tensor. The distributions of the random covariate tensor $\mathcal{X}$ and the random variable $\epsilon \mid \mathcal{X}$ (the random error conditioning on $\mathcal{X}$ ) are both assumed to have mean zero.

Outliers are frequently encountered in practical problems, as claimed by Hampel et al. [14] that a general dataset contains about $1 \%-10 \%$ or more outliers. Here, outliers refer to the points inconsistent with the general behavior or characteristics of other points in the sample space $\left\{y_{i}: i \in[N]\right\}$ due to the external interference (see, e.g.,[14, 2]). Besides the influence of outliers, the random error $\epsilon$ may be heavy-tailed, which means that the moment generating function $\mathrm{E}\{\exp (t \epsilon)\}=\infty$ for all $t>0$ [13]. Typical heavy-tailed distributions include the LogNormal distribution, and the Weibull distribution with shape parameter in $(0,1)$. Taking outliers and heavy-tailed errors into consideration, it is natural to adopt the Huber loss function to estimate the coefficient tensor $\mathcal{B}$ based on observations $\left\{\left(\mathcal{X}_{i}, y_{i}\right): i \in[N]\right\}$. The resulting optimization model is

$$
\min _{\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_{\alpha}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right),
$$

where $h_{\alpha}$ is the Huber function defined as

$$
h_{\alpha}(z)= \begin{cases}\frac{1}{2}|z|^{2}, & \text { if }|z| \leq \alpha  \tag{2.5}\\ \alpha\left(|z|-\frac{1}{2} \alpha\right), & \text { otherwise }\end{cases}
$$

Here, $\alpha>0$ is the robustification parameter that controls the blending of the quadratic loss (bias) and the absolute loss (robustness) [18, 19]. To better illustrate the effect of the Huber loss, the proximal operator of $h_{\alpha}$ is analyzed. Recall from [3, Definition 12.23] that the proximal operator of a function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, associated with a parameter $\beta>0$, at point $x \in \mathbb{R}$, is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Prox}_{\beta f}(x)=\arg \min _{y \in \mathbb{R}}\left\{\beta f(y)+\frac{1}{2}(y-x)^{2}\right\} \tag{2.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

Direct manipulations lead to the following explicit formula of $\operatorname{Prox}_{\beta h_{\alpha}}$.
Lemma 2.1. Given $\alpha, \beta>0$, and $x \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$
\operatorname{Prox}_{\beta h_{\alpha}}(x)=\left\{\begin{aligned}
x-\beta \alpha, & \text { if } x>(1+\beta) \alpha \\
\frac{x}{\beta+1}, & \text { if }|x| \leq(1+\beta) \alpha \\
x+\beta \alpha, & \text { otherwise }
\end{aligned}\right.
$$

The graph of $\operatorname{Prox}_{\beta h_{\alpha}}$ is plotted in Figure 1 with various $\alpha$ at $\beta=3$. As we can see, the blue solid line $(\alpha=0)$ refers to the case of the least squares loss, and the effect of graph shrinkage is intensified with the increase of $\alpha$.


Figure 1: $\operatorname{Prox}_{\beta h_{\alpha}}(x)$ at $\beta=3$.
It is worth mentioning that in the foregoing tensor regression model, the number of parameters $\Pi_{d=1}^{M} I_{d}$ is often larger than the sample size $N$, and the resulting high-dimensional setting inspires us to incorporate "sparsity" to further reduce the number of parameters of interest. Here, the low-rankness based on tensor Tucker decomposition (see, e.g., [22]) is adopted for sparsity characterization of the coefficient tensor $\mathcal{B}$. The reasons for using low-Tucker-rankness are three-fold. The first one is the tractability of Tucker decomposition, using singular value decomposition on all unfolding matrices. The second one is the flexibility of low-rankness, allowing different values of ranks along different modes. The third one is the applicability of practical datasets, for instance, the application in neuroimaging analysis
[27]. In such senses, the estimator of the low-rank regularized Huber regression can be solved by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\min _{\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_{\alpha}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right)+\lambda\|\mathcal{B}\|_{*} . \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Here $\|\mathcal{B}\|_{*}$ is the tensor nuclear norm of $\mathcal{B}$ which serves as a convex surrogate of the Tucker rank, and $\lambda>0$ is the regularization parameter. Thus, the resulting approach is termed as nuclear norm regularized tensor Huber regression (NNTH for short).

## 3 Risk Bounds

This section is devoted to the risk bound analysis of the NNTH estimator generated by the optimal solution to problem (2.7). For convenience, we denote $y=\left(y_{1}, \ldots, y_{N}\right)^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$, $\mathcal{X}=\left(\mathcal{X}_{1}, \ldots, \mathcal{X}_{N}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M} \times N}$. Denote the true coefficient tensor by $\mathcal{B}^{*}$, and the NNTH estimator simply by $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$. Recall that the Huber regression coefficient tensor is given by

$$
\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*} \in \underset{\mathcal{B} \in \mathbb{R}_{1}^{I_{1} \times \ldots \times I_{M}}}{\arg \min } \mathbb{E}\left\{h_{\alpha}(y-\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}\rangle)\right\},
$$

where the expectation is taken over the regression errors. The statistical error $\left\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}^{*}\right\|_{F}$ is then bounded by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}^{*}\right\|_{F} \leq\left\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right\|_{F}+\left\|\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}-\mathcal{B}^{*}\right\|_{F}, \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the first term on the right-hand side is the estimation error, and the other term is the approximation error. In what follows, upper bounds of these two errors will be given so as to arrive the risk bound of $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$. To proceed, some moment conditions on $\mathcal{X}$ and $\epsilon \mid \mathcal{X}$ are introduced as below, which are adopted from [10].

Condition 3.1. $\mathbb{E}\left\{\mathbb{E}\left(|\epsilon|^{k} \mid \mathcal{X}\right)\right\}^{2} \leq M_{k}<\infty$, for some $k \geq 2$.
Condition 3.2. $0<\kappa_{l}=\lambda_{\text {min }}(\mathbb{E}(A)) \leq \lambda_{\text {max }}(\mathbb{E}(A))=\kappa_{u}<\infty$ with $A=\operatorname{vec}(\mathcal{X}) \operatorname{vec}(\mathcal{X})^{T}$.
Condition 3.3. For any $\mathcal{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}},\langle\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{V}\rangle$ is sub-Gaussian with parameter at most $\kappa_{0}^{2}\|\mathcal{V}\|_{F}^{2}$, i.e., $\mathbb{E}\{\exp (t\langle\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{V}\rangle)\} \leq \exp \left(t^{2} \kappa_{0}^{2}\|\mathcal{V}\|_{F}^{2} / 2\right)$, for any $t \in \mathbb{R}$.

It is worth pointing out that Condition 3.1 is valid for most common distributions, such as the normal distribution, the Weibull distribution and the LogNormal distribution. Approximation error can be inferred from [10] by taking $\beta_{\alpha}^{*}=\operatorname{vec}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)$ and $\beta^{*}=\operatorname{vec}\left(\mathcal{B}^{*}\right)$ as follows.

Theorem 3.4. Under Conditions 3.1-3.3 there is an absolute positive constant $C_{1}$, such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}-\mathcal{B}^{*}\right\|_{F} \leq C_{1} \sqrt{\kappa_{u}} \kappa_{l}^{-1}\left(\kappa_{0}^{k}+\sqrt{M_{k}}\right) \alpha^{1-k}, \tag{3.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $k, \kappa_{u}, \kappa_{l}, \kappa_{0}, M_{k}$ are defined as in Conditions 3.1-3.3.
According to the expression on the right side of inequality in Theorem 3.4, when $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$, the error $\left\|\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}-\mathcal{B}^{*}\right\|_{F} \rightarrow 0$, that is, $\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*} \rightarrow \mathcal{B}^{*}$. Furthermore, this theorem also shows that if the higher-order moment of error exists, the approximation error will decrease rapidly when $\alpha$ increases.

As declared by Negahban et al. [32], the decomposability of the regularizer and the restricted strong convexity (RSC) are two key properties for establishing a sharp convergence
result for a regularized $M$-estimator. Before embarking on the upper bound of the estimation error $\left\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right\|_{F}$, the $d$-mode decomposability in [42] is recalled as below.

Denote $\hat{\triangle}:=\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}$. For each $d \in[M]$, let $B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}=U_{d} S_{d} V_{d}^{T}$ be the condensed singular value decomposition of $B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}$ with $U_{d} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{d} \times r_{d}}$ and $V_{d} \in \mathbb{R}^{\left(\prod_{d^{\prime} \neq d} I_{d^{\prime}}\right) \times r_{d}}$, where $r_{d}$ is the rank of $B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}$. Set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime}=\left(\mathbb{I}_{I_{d}}-U_{d} U_{d}^{T}\right) \hat{\triangle}_{(d)}\left(\mathbb{I}_{\prod_{d^{\prime} \neq d} I_{d^{\prime}}}-V_{d} V_{d}^{T}\right), \text { and } \hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime}:=\hat{\triangle}_{(d)}-\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime} \tag{3.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

then

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}+\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime}\right\|_{*}=\left\|B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}\right\|_{*}+\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime}\right\|_{*} . \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Together with the triangle inequality with respect to $\|\cdot\|_{*}$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}\|_{*}=\frac{1}{M} \sum_{d=1}^{M}\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime}+\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime}+B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}\right\|_{*} \geq \frac{1}{M} \sum_{d=1}^{M}\left(-\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime}\right\|_{*}+\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime}\right\|_{*}+\left\|B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}\right\|_{*}\right) \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Meanwhile, similar to [42, Lemma 2] for nuclear norm regularized tensor least squares estimator, the NNTH estimator $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ also possesses the following property.

Lemma 3.5. If $\lambda \geq 2\left\|\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*}$, then $\operatorname{rank}\left(\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime}\right) \leq 2 \operatorname{rank}\left(B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}\right)$ for each $d \in[M]$, and $\sum_{d=1}^{M}\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime}\right\|_{*} \leq 3 \sum_{d=1}^{M}\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime}\right\|_{*}$.

Proof. By mimicking the proof of [33, Lemma 1 (a)], we can obtain that for any $d \in[M]$, $\operatorname{rank}\left(\hat{\triangle}_{(d)}^{\prime}\right) \leq 2 \operatorname{rank}\left(B_{\alpha(d)}^{*}\right)$, which indicates $\operatorname{rank}\left(\hat{\triangle}^{\prime}\right) \leq 2 \operatorname{rank}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)$. To derive the second part, one has

$$
\begin{aligned}
-\left\|\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*} \cdot\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{*} & \leq\left\langle\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right), \hat{\triangle}\right\rangle \leq H_{\alpha}\left(\hat{\triangle}+\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)-H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right) \\
& \leq \lambda\left(\left\|\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right\|_{*}-\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}\|_{*}\right) \leq \frac{\lambda}{M} \sum_{d=1}^{M}\left(\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime}\right\|_{*}-\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime}\right\|_{*}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

where the first inequality is from the Hölder inequality deduced from the dual norm, the second inequality is from convexity of the Huber loss function, the third inequality is from the optimality of $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ to problem (2.7), and the last one is from (3.5). Along with $\lambda \geq$ $2\left\|\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*}$, the desired inequality follows readily from the triangle inequality $\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{(d)}\right\|_{*} \leq$ $\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime}\right\|_{*}+\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{d}^{\prime \prime}\right\|_{*}$. This completes the proof.

Define the following two constraint sets regarding to $\triangle$,
$\mathscr{C}(\triangle):=\left\{\triangle \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}:\left\|\triangle^{\prime \prime}\right\|_{*} \leq 3\left\|\triangle^{\prime}\right\|_{*}\right\}$, and $\mathscr{B}(\triangle):=\left\{\triangle \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}:\|\Delta\|_{F} \leq 1\right\}$.
Fan et al. [10] have proved that the vector Huber loss function satisfies RSC under some conditions by using [32, Lemma 2]. This property can be extended to the tensor case.

Lemma 3.6. Suppose that Conditions $3.1-3.3$ hold, then the $R S C$ condition

$$
\begin{equation*}
\delta H_{\alpha}(\triangle, \mathcal{B}):=H_{\alpha}(\mathcal{B}+\triangle)-H_{\alpha}(\mathcal{B})-\left\langle\nabla H_{\alpha}(\mathcal{B}), \triangle\right\rangle \geq \kappa_{H}\|\triangle\|_{F}^{2}-\tau_{H}\|\triangle\|_{*}^{2} \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

holds for any tensor $\triangle \in \mathscr{C}(\triangle) \cap \mathscr{B}(\triangle)$ with $\kappa_{H}=\frac{\kappa_{1}}{4}, \tau_{H}=8 \kappa_{2} \frac{\log \left(\sum_{d=1}^{M} I_{d}\right)}{N}$, where $\kappa_{1}, \kappa_{2}, c_{1}^{\prime}, c_{2}^{\prime}$ are absolute positive constants.

Lemma 3.6 shows that RSC holds with absolute constants that do not depend on $\alpha$, which makes a key role in the following theorem. Combining with the decomposability of the nuclear norm and RSC of the Huber loss function, we can give an upper bound of the estimation error as below.

Theorem 3.7. Under the conditions used in Lemmas $3.5-3.6$ and $\|\mathcal{B}\|_{*} \leq R_{1}$, there are absolute positive constants $C_{2}$ and $C_{3}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right\|_{F} \leq\left(C_{2} \kappa_{2} R_{1} N^{-1} \log \left(\sum_{d=1}^{M} I_{d}\right)+C_{3} \lambda\right) \kappa_{1}^{-1} M^{-1} \sum_{d=1}^{M} \sqrt{r_{d}} \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. Define a function $F: \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
F(\triangle)=H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}+\triangle\right)-H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)+\lambda\left(\left\|\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}+\triangle\right\|_{*}-\left\|\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right\|_{*}\right) \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Because of $F(0)=0$, the error $\hat{\triangle}=\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}$ satisfies $F(\hat{\triangle}) \leq F(0)=0$. Due to Lemma 3.6, Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, triangle inequality, $\lambda \geq 2\left\|\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*}$ and $\|\mathcal{B}\|_{*} \leq R_{1}$,

$$
\begin{align*}
F(\hat{\triangle}) & \geq\left\langle\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right), \hat{\triangle}\right\rangle+\kappa_{H}\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{F}^{2}-\tau_{H}\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{*}^{2}-\lambda\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{*} \\
& \geq \kappa_{H}\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{F}^{2}-\left(2 \tau_{H} R_{1}+\frac{3 \lambda}{2}\right)\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{*} . \tag{3.10}
\end{align*}
$$

From Lemma 3.5, we can get an upper bound of $\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{*}$ by

$$
\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{*} \leq 4\left\|\hat{\triangle}^{\prime}\right\|_{*} \leq \frac{4}{M} \sum_{d=1}^{M} \sqrt{2 r_{d}}\left\|\hat{\triangle}_{(d)}^{\prime}\right\|_{F} \leq \frac{4\|\hat{\triangle}\|_{F}}{M} \sum_{d=1}^{M} \sqrt{2 r_{d}}
$$

Taking $\kappa_{H}=\frac{\kappa_{1}}{4}$ and $\tau_{H}=8 \kappa_{2} \frac{\log \left(\sum_{d=1}^{M} I_{d}\right)}{N}$, we obtain the desired assertion by (3.9) and (3.10).

The following lemma will serve a more reasonable value of $\lambda$ comparing to that in Lemma 3.5 .

Lemma 3.8. If Condition 3.3 holds, then there are absolute constants $C^{\prime}, c_{1}, c_{2}>0$ for a sample size $N$ makes

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(C^{\prime} \alpha \kappa_{0} \sqrt{\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}} \geq 2\left\|\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*}\right) \geq 1-c_{1} \exp \left\{-c_{2}\left(\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}\right)\right\} \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $j:=\underset{d \in[M]}{\arg \min }\left\|X_{(d)}\right\|$, and $I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}$ is the sum of rows and columns of $\left\|X_{(j)}\right\|$.
Proof. By invoking $\nabla H_{\alpha}(\mathcal{B})=-\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) \cdot \mathcal{X}_{i},(2.2)$ and (2.3), we can get

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla\left\|H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*} \leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left\|X_{i(j)} \cdot h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right)\right\| \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $X_{i(j)}$ is the $j$-mode unfolding of $\mathcal{X}_{i}$. Analog to the proof of [33, Lemma 3], let $S^{m-1}:=\left\{u \in \mathbb{R}^{m} \mid\|u\|_{2}=1\right\}$ denote the unit Euclidean sphere. The norm has the variational
representation

$$
\begin{align*}
\left\|X_{i(j)} \cdot h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right)\right\| & =\sup _{u \in S^{I_{j}-1}, v \in S^{\Pi_{j^{\prime} \neq j}^{I_{j} j^{\prime}-1}}} u_{i}^{T} X_{i(j)}^{T} h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i} \\
& \leq \sup _{u \in S^{I_{j}-1}, v \in S^{\Pi_{j^{\prime} \neq j}^{I_{j} j^{\prime}-1}}} \mid\left\langle X_{i(j)} u_{i}, h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i}\right\rangle\langle\beta .1
\end{align*}
$$

Let $\mathcal{N}_{1}$ and $\mathcal{N}_{2}$ denote $1 / 4$ coverings of $S^{I_{j}-1}$ and $S^{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}-1}$, respectively. The coverage numbers are $\left|\mathcal{N}_{1}\right| \leq\left(1+\frac{2}{1 / 4}\right)^{I_{j}}=9^{I_{j}},\left|\mathcal{N}_{2}\right| \leq\left(1+\frac{2}{1 / 4}\right)^{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}=9^{\Pi_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}$. We now claim that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla\left\|H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*} \leq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \sup _{u \in \mathcal{N}_{1}, v \in \mathcal{N}_{2}}\left|\left\langle X_{i(j)} u_{i}, h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i}\right\rangle\right| \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Select $u \in \mathcal{N}_{1} \subseteq S^{I_{j}-1}$ and $v \in \mathcal{N}_{2} \subseteq S^{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}-1}$. It can be calculated that
$\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}\left\langle X_{i(j)} u_{i}, h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i}\right\rangle=\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}} \sum_{k=1}^{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j}^{I_{j^{\prime}}}}\left(x_{i(j) k}^{T} u_{i}\right)\left(v_{i}^{T} h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right)\right)$
and for any $k=1, \ldots, \prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}$,

$$
\mathbb{E}\left\{\left(x_{i(j) k}^{T} u_{i}\right)\left(v_{i}^{T} h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right)\right)\right\}=0, \quad\left|v_{i}^{T} h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right)\right| \leq \alpha
$$

It is known from [43, Theorem 2.6.3] that, for any $t>0$, there exists an absolute constant $C_{1}>0$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\left.\left|\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}\left\langle X_{i(j)} u_{i}, h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i}\right\rangle\right| \geq t \right\rvert\, X_{i(j)}\right) \leq 2 \exp \left\{-\frac{C_{1}\left(\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}\right)^{2} t^{2}}{\alpha^{2}\left\|X_{i(j)} u_{i}\right\|_{2}^{2}}\right\} \tag{3.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

From Condition (3.3) and [43, Corollary 2.8.3], for any $s>0$, there is an absolute constant $C_{2}>0$ which satisfies

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}\left\|X_{i(j)} u_{i}\right\|_{2}^{2}-\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}} \mathbb{E}\left\{\left\|X_{i(j)} u_{i}\right\|_{2}^{2}\right\}\right|\right.\geq s) \\
& \leq 2 \exp \left\{-C_{2} \prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}} \cdot \min \left(\frac{s^{2}}{K^{4}}, \frac{s}{K^{2}}\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $K=\left\|x_{i(j) k}^{T} u\right\|_{\Psi_{2}}^{2}=\kappa_{0}^{2}$. Define event $\Gamma(s):=\left\{\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}\left\|X_{i(j)} u_{i}\right\|_{2}^{2} \leq 2 K+s\right\}$. Due to

$$
\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}} \sum_{k=1}^{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}} \mathbb{E}\left\{\left\|X_{i(j)} u_{i}\right\|_{2}^{2}\right\}=\mathbb{E}\left\{\left(x_{i(j) 1}^{T} u_{i}\right)^{2}\right\} \leq 2 K
$$

under the condition of $\Gamma(s)$, it can be obtained from the total probability formula that

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}\left\langle X_{i(j)} u_{i}, h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i}\right\rangle\right| \geq t\right) \\
& \leq \operatorname{Pr}\left(\left.\left|\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}\left\langle X_{i(j)} u_{i}, h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i}\right\rangle\right| \geq t \right\rvert\, \Gamma(s)\right)+\operatorname{Pr}\left(\Gamma^{c}(s)\right) \\
& \leq 2 \cdot \exp \left\{-\frac{C_{1}\left(\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}\right) t^{2}}{\alpha^{2}(2 K+s)}\right\}+2 \cdot \exp \left\{-\frac{C_{2} \prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{K^{2}} \cdot \min \left(\frac{s^{2}}{K^{2}}, s\right)\right\} \\
& \leq 2 \cdot \exp \left\{-\frac{C_{1}\left(\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}\right) t^{2}}{\alpha^{2}\left(K^{2}+1+s\right)}\right\}+2 \cdot \exp \left\{-\frac{C_{2} \prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{K^{2}} \cdot \min \left(\frac{s^{2}}{K^{2}+1}, s\right)\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Take $s=\sqrt{\frac{C_{1}}{2 C_{2}}} \frac{K t}{\alpha}$, yielding

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|\frac{1}{\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}\left\langle X_{i(j)} u_{i}, h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i}\right\rangle\right| \geq t\right) \\
& \leq\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
4 \cdot \exp \left\{-\frac{C_{1}\left(\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}\right) t^{2}}{2 \alpha^{2}\left(K^{2}+1\right)}\right\}, & t \leq\left(K+K^{-1}\right) \alpha \sqrt{\frac{2 C_{2}}{C_{1}}} \\
4 \cdot \exp \left\{-\sqrt{\frac{C_{1} C_{2}}{2}} \frac{\left(\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}\right) t}{K \alpha}\right\}, & t>\left(K+K^{-1}\right) \alpha \sqrt{\frac{2 C_{2}}{C_{1}}}
\end{array}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Furthermore, we can get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \operatorname{Pr}\left(2\left\|\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*} \geq t\right) \\
& \leq 9^{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{N} \operatorname{Pr}\left(\left|\left\langle X_{i(j)} u_{i}, h_{\alpha}^{\prime}\left(y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right) v_{i}\right\rangle\right| \geq \frac{t}{2}\right) \\
& \leq\left\{\begin{array}{r}
4 N \cdot 9^{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}} \cdot \exp \left\{-\frac{C_{1} t^{2}}{8 \alpha^{2}\left(K^{2}+1\right)\left(\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}\right)}\right\}, \quad t \leq\left(K+K^{-1}\right) \alpha \sqrt{\frac{2 C_{2}}{C_{1}}} \\
4 N \cdot 9^{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}} \cdot \exp \left\{-\sqrt{\frac{C_{1} C_{2}}{8}} \frac{t}{K \alpha}\right\},
\end{array} \quad t>\left(K+K^{-1}\right) \alpha \sqrt{\frac{2 C_{2}}{C_{1}}}\right.
\end{aligned}
$$

Take $t=C^{\prime} \alpha \kappa_{0} \sqrt{\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}}$, when $N \geq C^{\prime \prime}\left(I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}\right), \operatorname{Pr}\left(2\left\|\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*} \geq t\right) \rightarrow 0$, where $C^{\prime}$ and $C^{\prime \prime}$ are absolute constants. That means, there are absolute constants $c_{1}, c_{2}$ making the following formula true

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(2\left\|\nabla H_{\alpha}\left(\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right)\right\|_{*}^{*} \geq C^{\prime} \alpha \kappa_{0} \sqrt{\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}}\right) \leq c_{1} \exp \left\{-c_{2}\left(\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}\right)\right\}
$$

This completes the proof.

From Lemma 3.8, we can get a reasonable value of $\lambda, C^{\prime} \alpha \kappa_{0} \sqrt{\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}}$, which depends on the parameters $\alpha, \kappa_{0}$ and $\sqrt{\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}}$. Combining this value and Theorems $3.4-3.7$ lead to the following main result.

Theorem 3.9. Under the conditions of Theorems 3.4 and 3.7 , with $\lambda=C^{\prime} \alpha \kappa_{0} \sqrt{\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}}$, we have the following bound
$\left\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}^{*}\right\|_{F} \leq C_{1} \sqrt{\kappa_{u}} \kappa_{l}^{-1}\left(\kappa_{0}^{k}+\sqrt{M_{k}}\right) \alpha^{1-k}+\left(C_{2} \kappa_{2} R_{1} N^{-1} \log \left(\sum_{d=1}^{M} I_{d}\right)+C_{3} \lambda\right) \kappa_{1}^{-1} M^{-1} \sum_{d=1}^{M} \sqrt{r_{d}}$
with high probability.

Remark 3.10. When $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$, problem (2.7) becomes the low-rank regularized least squares regression, which has no approximation error. Theorem 3.7 implies that the upper bound of $\left\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}_{\alpha}^{*}\right\|_{F}$ is controlled by $\sum_{d=1}^{M} \sqrt{r_{d}}$, which is the same as that in [26, Theorem 1] with $s=0$ and $\alpha_{k}=\frac{1}{M}$. And Theorem 3.9 also indicates that the estimation can be robustified by choosing $\alpha$ if $\epsilon$ is heavy-tailed.

Remark 3.11. From the value of $\lambda$, it can be seen that $\lambda$ is proportional to $\sqrt{\frac{I_{j}+\prod_{j^{\prime} \neq j} I_{j^{\prime}}}{N}}$. So this value will become larger as the dimension of tensor data increases. It makes the low-rank constraint effect of problem (2.7) stronger, so as to get a lower rank estimator to achieve the purpose of data dimension reduction.

## 4 ADMM-Based Algorithm

Introducing auxiliary tensors $\mathcal{Z}_{d} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times \cdots \times I_{M}}, \forall d \in[M]$ and a vector $t \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$, problem (2.7) can be equivalently rewritten as

$$
\begin{align*}
& \min _{\mathcal{B},\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, t} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_{\alpha}\left(t_{i}\right)+\lambda \cdot \frac{1}{M} \sum_{d=1}^{M}\left\|\mathcal{Z}_{d(d)}\right\|_{*},  \tag{4.1}\\
& \text { s.t. } \quad \mathcal{B}=\mathcal{Z}_{d}, \quad \forall d \in[M] \\
& \\
& y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle=t_{i}, \quad \forall i \in[N] .
\end{align*}
$$

The augmented Lagrangian function associated with the problem (4.1) can be written as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathcal{L}_{\rho}\left(\mathcal{B},\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, t ;\left\{\mathcal{Q}_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, r\right) \\
& = \\
& \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} h_{\alpha}\left(t_{i}\right)+\frac{\lambda}{M} \sum_{d=1}^{M}\left\|\mathcal{Z}_{d(d)}\right\|_{*}+\sum_{d=1}^{M}\left\langle\mathcal{Q}_{d}, \mathcal{Z}_{d}-\mathcal{B}\right\rangle+\frac{\rho}{2} \sum_{d=1}^{M}\left\|\mathcal{Z}_{d}-\mathcal{B}\right\|_{F}^{2} \\
& \quad+\sum_{i=1}^{N} r_{i}\left(t_{i}-y_{i}+\left\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right)+\frac{\rho}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N}\left(t_{i}-y_{i}+\left\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right)^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\rho>0$ is the augmented Lagrangian parameter, and $\left\{Q_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, r$ are Lagrangian multipliers. The iterative scheme of ADMM is described as:

$$
\left\{\begin{align*}
\mathcal{B}^{k+1} & =\underset{\mathcal{B}}{\arg \min }\left\{\mathcal{L}_{\rho}\left(\mathcal{B},\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, t^{k} ;\left\{\mathcal{Q}_{d}^{k}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, r^{k}\right)\right\}  \tag{4.2}\\
\left(\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k+1}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, t^{k+1}\right) & =\underset{\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, t}{\arg \min }\left\{\mathcal{L}_{\rho}\left(\mathcal{B}^{k+1},\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, t ;\left\{\mathcal{Q}_{d}^{k}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, r^{k}\right)\right\} \\
\mathcal{Q}_{d}^{k+1} & =\mathcal{Q}_{d}^{k}+\tau \rho\left(\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k+1}-\mathcal{B}^{k+1}\right), \quad d \in[M] \\
r_{i}^{k+1} & =r_{i}^{k}+\tau \rho\left(t_{i}^{k+1}-y_{i}+\left\langle\mathcal{B}^{k+1}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right), \quad i \in[N]
\end{align*}\right.
$$

where $\tau>0$ is referred as the dual step size, with a typical choice $\tau=1.618$ which is adopted in this paper. For the first subproblem in (4.2), by vectorizing all the tensors, e.g., $x_{i}=\operatorname{vec}\left(\mathcal{X}_{i}\right)$ and denote $X=\left(x_{1}, \cdots, x_{M}\right)^{T}$, we can get the following closed form solution

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{B}^{k+1}=\operatorname{vtt}\left(\left(X^{T} X+M \mathbb{I}\right)^{-1}\left(\sum_{d=1}^{M}\left(z_{d}^{k}+\frac{q_{d}^{k}}{\rho}\right)-X^{T}\left(t^{k}-y+\frac{r^{k}}{\rho}\right)\right)\right) \tag{4.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $z_{d}^{k}=\operatorname{vec}\left(\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k}\right), q_{d}^{k}=\operatorname{vec}\left(\mathcal{Q}_{d}^{k}\right)$ and vtt is the inverse operator of vec in the underlying spaces. For any given $d \in[M]$, we can get the $\mathcal{Z}_{d}$-update by employing the singular value thresholding in [6]

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k+1}=\operatorname{fold}_{d}\left[\operatorname{Prox}_{\frac{\lambda}{M \rho}\|\cdot\|_{*}}\left(B_{(d)}^{k+1}-\frac{Q_{d(d)}^{k}}{\rho}\right)\right] \tag{4.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

For any given $i \in[N]$, we can employ the proximal operator as described in Lemma 2.1 to get the $t_{i}$-update by

$$
\begin{equation*}
t_{i}^{k+1}=\operatorname{Prox}_{\frac{1}{N \rho}} h_{\alpha}(\cdot)\left[y_{i}-\left\langle\mathcal{B}^{k+1}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle-\frac{r_{i}^{k}}{\rho}\right] \tag{4.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

The framework of ADMM for solving problem (4.1) is then summarized in Algorithm 1.

```
Algorithm 1 ADMM for Solving Problem (4.1)
Input: The observations \(\left\{\left(\mathcal{X}_{i}, y_{i}\right): i \in[N]\right\}\) and parameters \(\rho, \lambda, \tau, \alpha\).
Output: \(\mathcal{B}^{k}\).
Step 1. Initialize \(\left(\mathcal{B}^{0},\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{0}\right\}_{d=1}^{M},\left\{t_{i}^{0}\right\}_{i=1}^{N},\left\{\mathcal{Q}_{d}^{0}\right\}_{d=1}^{M},\left\{r_{i}^{0}\right\}_{i=1}^{N}\right)\) to be zero, and \(k=0\);
Step 2. Compute \(\left(\mathcal{B}^{k+1},\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k+1}\right\}_{d=1}^{M},\left\{t_{i}^{k+1}\right\}_{i=1}^{N},\left\{\mathcal{Q}_{d}^{k+1}\right\}_{d=1}^{M},\left\{r_{i}^{k+1}\right\}_{i=1}^{N}\right)\) by (4.3), (4.4), (4.5)
    and (4.2), respectively;
Step 3. Set \(k=k+1\). If some stopping criterion is met, then stop; Otherwise, go to Step 2.
Stopping Criterion. Applying the classical convex optimization theory, we adopt the relative primal infeasibility and relative dual infeasibility, defined as below, to measure the quality of the approximate solution:
\[
\begin{aligned}
\eta_{P} & :=\max \left\{\eta_{Z_{1}}, \ldots, \eta_{Z_{M}}, \eta_{r_{1}}, \ldots, \eta_{r_{N}}, \eta_{Q_{1}}, \ldots, \eta_{Q_{M}}, \eta_{t_{1}}, \ldots, \eta_{t_{N}}\right\} \\
\eta_{D} & :=\frac{\left\|-\sum_{d=1}^{M} \mathcal{Q}_{d}^{k}+\sum_{i=1}^{N} r_{i}^{k} \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\|_{F}}{1+\left\|\mathcal{B}^{k}\right\|_{F}}
\end{aligned}
\]
```

where

$$
\eta_{Z_{d}}:=\frac{\| \mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k}-\text { fold }_{d}\left[\operatorname{Prox}_{\frac{\lambda}{M}\|\cdot\|_{*}}\left(Z_{d(d)}^{k}-Q_{d(d)}^{k}\right)\right] \|_{F}}{1+\left\|\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k}\right\|_{F}}, \eta_{Q_{d}}:=\frac{\left\|\mathcal{Z}_{d}^{k}-\mathcal{B}^{k}\right\|_{F}}{1+\left\|\mathcal{Q}_{d}^{k}\right\|_{F}} \text {, for } d \in[M],
$$

and

$$
\eta_{r_{i}}:=\frac{\left|\frac{1}{N} \nabla h_{\alpha}\left(t_{i}^{k}\right)+r_{i}^{k}\right|}{1+\left|t_{i}^{k}\right|}, \eta_{t_{i}}:=\frac{\left|t_{i}^{k}-y_{i}+\left\langle\mathcal{B}^{k}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle\right|}{1+\left|r_{i}^{k}\right|}, \text { for } i \in[N]
$$

It is reasonable to terminate Algorithm 1 if $\max \left\{\eta_{p}, \eta_{D}\right\} \leq \varepsilon$, where $\varepsilon \geq 0$ is a prescribed accuracy parameter.
Global Convergence. The global convergence of Algorithm 1 follows readily from the classical two-block ADMM for convex program, since we can treat $\mathcal{B}$ and $\left(\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, t\right)$ as these two blocks. The proximal ADMM scheme (see, e.g., [12]) can also be employed to approximately update $\mathcal{B}^{k}$ to reduce the computational cost from (4.3). The global convergence in this regime is also guaranteed by [12, Appendix B.2].
Computational Complexity. Let $n=\prod_{d=1}^{M} I_{d}$. The main computation in each iteration of Algorithm 1 comes from the updates for $\mathcal{B},\left\{\mathcal{Z}_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}$ and $\left\{t,\left\{Q_{d}\right\}_{d=1}^{M}, r\right\}$, which are of order $O\left(n^{3}\right), O\left(M n \min \left(I_{d}, \prod_{d^{\prime} \neq d} I_{d}^{\prime}\right)\right)$ and $O((M+N) n)$, respectively. Hence, the periteration computational complexity of Algorithm 1 is of order $O\left(n^{3}\right)$ in high-dimensional regression settings, dominated by the matrix inverse in (4.3). Fortunately, as one can see, the involved matrix inversion remains the same in the entire iteration process, which can be computed before the main loop. Additionally, the conjugate gradient (CG) method can be called to handle the underlying linear system for an approximate update for $\mathcal{B}$.

## 5 Numerical Experiments

In this section, we conduct numerical experiments to examine the effectiveness of the NNTH estimator and to evaluate the performance of our proposed ADMM algorithm. All numerical experiments are implemented in MATLAB (R2018b), running on a laptop with Intel Core i5 CPU $(1.867 \mathrm{GHz})$ and 8 GB RAM.

### 5.1 Simulation Studies

We randomly generate the ground-truth coefficient tensor $\mathcal{B}^{*}=b \cdot \mathcal{C} \times{ }_{1} M_{1} \times{ }_{2} M_{2} \times{ }_{3} M_{3}$, where $\mathcal{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{r_{1} \times r_{2} \times r_{3}}, M_{1} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times r_{1}}, M_{2} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{2} \times r_{2}}, M_{3} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{3} \times r_{3}}$ are with element-wise i.i.d. standard Gaussian distribution, and $b>0$ is the signal strength. The responses are generated by $y_{i}=\left\langle\mathcal{B}, \mathcal{X}_{i}\right\rangle+\varepsilon_{i}, i \in[N]$, where $\mathcal{X}_{i} \in \mathbb{R}^{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times I_{3}}$ has standard normal entries, and random errors $\varepsilon_{i}$ 's are generated from the following three distributions: (i) normal errors with mean 0 and variance $4(N(0,4))$; (ii) log-normal distribution(LogNormal), $\varepsilon=\exp (1+5 Z)$, where $Z$ is the standard normal distribution; (iii) Weibull distribution with shape parameter 0.2 and scale parameter 0.7.

Set $I_{1}=20, I_{2}=10, I_{3}=30$ with a variety of low Tucker ranks $\left(\left(r_{1}, r_{2}, r_{3}\right)=\right.$ $(1,1,2),(2,1,3),(2,2,2))$ and signal strengths $(b=1,2,5)$. For each scenario, our simulated data consist of a training set of 1000 samples and an independent testing set of 100 samples. Hyperparameters $(\lambda, \alpha)$ in NNTH estimation will be determined via 5 -fold cross validation on the training set over a grid of $(\lambda, \alpha)$ 's with varying $\lambda \in\left\{10^{-2}, 5 \times 10^{-2}, 10^{-1}, \cdots, 5 \times 10^{2}, 10^{3}\right\}$
and $\alpha \in\{0.5,1.345,2,3.45,5\}$ (The choice of $\alpha=1.345$ was observed to gain promising performance in [19]). Parameters with the minimum mean square error (MSE) on the verification set will be chosen. Here MSE of a given estimator $\hat{\mathcal{B}}$ is defined by MSE $=\frac{\left\|\hat{\mathcal{B}}-\mathcal{B}^{*}\right\|_{F}^{2}}{I_{1} \times I_{2} \times I_{3}}$. The parameter $\lambda$ in all comparing approaches in the sequel will be chosen in the same fashion.

Comparisons to other approaches including the nuclear norm regularized tensor least squares regression (NNTLS) [37], Lasso [40] and Elastic Net(ENet) [46] are carried out. Each simulation is based on 50 independent replications, and the average results are depicted in Tables 2, 3 and 4, with the best results highlighted in bold and the second-best ones underlined.

With normal errors which are symmetric and light-tailed, Table 2 indicates that, the NNTLS estimator reasonably gains the best performance due to the low-rank promoting term by tensor nuclear norm regularization, and the least squares loss tailored for normal errors. NNTH reaches very competitive performances to NNTLS, and outperform Lasso and ENet with efforts on entrywise sparsity.

With asymmetric and heavy-tailed errors, e.g., the Weibull and LogNormal errors, Tables 3 and 4 illustrate the significant superiority of NNTH in terms of MSE for all the testing instances. In particular, Table 4 shows that NNTH estimator has the greatest advantage in dealing with LogNormal distribution error models, e.g., the estimation errors of NNTH are nearly $1 / 10000$ or even $1 / 100000$ of those generated by NNTLS. In both cases, NNTLS, Lasso, ENet and Ridge estimators do not perform well owing to the sensitivity of secondary loss to outliers. This illustrates the merit of our proposed tensor Huber regression model. It is noteworthy that the accuracy of NNTH estimators for all testing cases are around decreases with the increase of the signal strength or the Tucker rank complexity $\sum_{d=1}^{M} \sqrt{r_{d}}$. Such a phenomenon can be explained by Theorem 3.9.

As for all testing instances shown in Tables 2, 3 and 4, NNTH estimator achieves the MSE mostly of order $10^{-3}$, which reflects a promisingly robust behavior comparing to other approaches in the simulation studies.

Table 2: The performance of methods for normal error model.

|  | $\mathrm{r}=(1,1,2)$ |  |  |  | $\mathrm{r}=(2,1,3)$ |  |  |  | $\mathrm{r}=(2,2,2)$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet |
| $\mathrm{b}=1$ | $1.49 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 1.48e-3 | 1.98e-3 | 1.69e-3 | $2.14 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 2.12e-3 | 2.23e-3 | 2.18e-3 | $2.18 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 2.17e-3 | 2.28e-3 | $2.27 \mathrm{e}-3$ |
| $\mathrm{b}=2$ | $\underline{2.87 \mathrm{e}-3}$ | 2.85e-3 | 3.01e-3 | 2.97e-3 | $\underline{3.84 \mathrm{e}-3}$ | 3.82e-3 | 4.16e-3 | $3.94 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $\underline{4.55 \mathrm{e}-3}$ | $4.51 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $4.79 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $4.67 \mathrm{e}-3$ |
| $\mathrm{b}=5$ | $8.16 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 8.10e-3 | 8.66e-3 | $8.55 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $7.78 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 7.73e-3 | 8.11e-3 | $7.94 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $1.15 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $1.14 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $1.19 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $1.18 \mathrm{e}-2$ |

Table 3: The performance of methods for Weibull error model.

|  | $\mathrm{r}=(1,1,2)$ |  |  |  | $\mathrm{r}=(2,1,3)$ |  |  |  | $\mathrm{r}=(2,2,2)$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet |
| $\mathrm{b}=1$ | $1.28 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 1.94e-2 | $6.75 \mathrm{e}-1$ | $4.71 \mathrm{e}-1$ | $1.98 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $\underline{2.21 \mathrm{e}-2}$ | $6.94 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $5.17 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $2.11 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $\underline{2.66 e-2 ~}$ | $5.92 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $4.65 \mathrm{e}-2$ |
| $\mathrm{b}=2$ | $1.91 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $\underline{2.42 \mathrm{e}-2}$ | $2.45 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $1.78 \mathrm{e}-1$ | $2.70 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 3.42e-2 | $1.05 \mathrm{e}-1$ | 8.06e-2 | $3.53 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $3.61 \mathrm{e}-2$ | 4.86e-3 | $4.50 \mathrm{e}-3$ |
| $\mathrm{b}=5$ | 5.05e-3 | 3.03e-2 | $1.12 \mathrm{e}-1$ | $7.75 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $7.27 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $4.32 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $2.65 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $1.97 \mathrm{e}-2$ | $8.57 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 4.86e-2 | $2.40 \mathrm{e}-1$ | $1.76 \mathrm{e}-1$ |

Table 4: The performance of methods for LogNormal error model.

|  | $\mathrm{r}=(1,1,2)$ |  |  |  | $\mathrm{r}=(2,1,3)$ |  |  |  | $\mathrm{r}=(2,2,2)$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet | NNTH | NNTLS | Lasso | ENet |
| $\mathrm{b}=1$ | $1.74 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $3.00 \mathrm{e}+1$ | $1.96 \mathrm{e}+2$ | $1.34 \mathrm{e}+2$ | $1.97 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $7.13 \mathrm{e}+1$ | $1.37 \mathrm{e}+1$ | $9.30 \mathrm{e}+0$ | $2.47 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $2.76 \mathrm{e}+2$ | $1.11 \mathrm{e}-1$ | $7.93 \mathrm{e}-2$ |
| $\mathrm{b}=2$ | $2.53 \mathrm{e}-3$ | 1.14e+2 | $1.54 \mathrm{e}+2$ | $1.10 \mathrm{e}+2$ | $3.20 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $1.84 \mathrm{e}+2$ | $8.81 \mathrm{e}+0$ | $6.35 \mathrm{e}+0$ | $4.20 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $5.16 \mathrm{e}+2$ | $9.56 \mathrm{e}+0$ | $6.82 \mathrm{e}+0$ |
| $\mathrm{b}=5$ | $8.47 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $4.54 \mathrm{e}+2$ | $1.40 \mathrm{e}+0$ | 9.29e-1 | $8.82 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $1.47 \mathrm{e}+3$ | $6.82 \mathrm{e}+1$ | $4.72 \mathrm{e}+1$ | $9.98 \mathrm{e}-3$ | $4.16 \mathrm{e}+3$ | $8.59 \mathrm{e}-1$ | $6.20 \mathrm{e}-1$ |

### 5.2 Analysis of CIFAR-10 Dataset

In this subsection, we apply our model to classify the CIFAR-10 dataset [24], whose 3D data size is $32 \times 32 \times 3$ (of total 3,072 voxels). We randomly select five class pairs to do binary classification. Without overlap, 100 samples are randomly selected from each class set for model training and testing.

We randomly divide the two class datasets into training set $\left(\mathcal{X}_{\text {training }}, y_{\text {training }}\right)$ with 180 samples and test set $\left(\mathcal{X}_{\text {test }}, y_{\text {test }}\right)$ with 20 samples. Firstly, the training set $\left(\mathcal{X}_{\text {training }}, y_{\text {training }}\right)$ is used to fit the model, and the estimator $\hat{\mathcal{B}}_{\text {training }}$ is obtained. Then we use it to predict and classify on the test set. The classification accuracy (ACC) will be adopted to measure the performance of our method and other comparing methods including NNTLS [37], RBF-Linear algorithm [8], Lasso [40], ENet [46], and Ridge [16]. In order to reduce the impact of data set segmentation as much as possible, we randomly segment the data for 10 times and use 10 -fold cross validation. We use the mean and variance of these 10 numerical results to reflect the effectiveness and robustness of all the methods. Performances are summarized in Table 5 and Figure 2.

Table 5 shows the classification accuracy of all methods, with the best results highlighted in bold and the second-best ones underlined. Among these six approaches, NNTH gives the best classification accuracy in most cases, and the average accuracy of NNTH estimator $(77.70 \%)$ is $3.10 \%$ higher than the second-best NNTLS estimator ( $74.60 \%$ ), both of which outperform vector-based approaches including Lasso (69.60\%), ENet (70.80\%) and Ridge ( $73.20 \%$ ). Figure 2 shows boxplots of ACC for all methods, which indicates the robustness and high accuracy of NNTH in handling 3D data classification. Some selected instances in the test sets by NNTH is presented in Figure 3 where misclassified images are marked in red boxes.

Table 5: Numerical results on the CIFAR-10 dataset.

| Class pair |  | NNTH | NNTLS | RBF-Linear | Lasso | ENet | Ridge |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 'airplane', 'automobile', | $\operatorname{Avg}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | $\mathbf{8 6 . 5 0}$ | 83.00 | 54.60 | 80.50 | $\underline{83.50}$ | 81.00 |
|  | $\operatorname{Std}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | 0.0530 | 0.1085 | 0.0685 | 0.0832 | 0.0709 | 0.0810 |
| 'cat', 'horse' | $\operatorname{Avg}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | $\mathbf{6 6 . 5 0}$ | $\underline{65.00}$ | 54.00 | 58.00 | 63.50 | 59.50 |
|  | $\operatorname{Std}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | 0.1132 | 0.1269 | 0.0658 | 0.1418 | 0.1081 | 0.1066 |
| 'airplane', 'truck' | $\operatorname{Avg}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | $\mathbf{8 5 . 5 0}$ | 82.00 | 68.50 | 78.00 | 81.00 | $\underline{85.00}$ |
|  | $\operatorname{Std}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | 0.0497 | 0.0856 | 0.1226 | 0.0632 | 0.0568 | 0.0577 |
| 'automobile', 'cat' | $\operatorname{Avg}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | $\underline{72.50}$ | 71.50 | $\mathbf{7 3 . 5 0}$ | 71.50 | 69.00 | 72.00 |
|  | $\operatorname{Std}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | 0.0755 | 0.1029 | 0.0973 | 0.0474 | 0.1174 | 0.0753 |
|  | $\operatorname{Avg}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | $\mathbf{7 7 . 5 0}$ | $\underline{71.50}$ | 64.00 | 60.00 | 57.00 | 68.50 |
| 'cat', 'deer' | $\operatorname{Std}(\mathrm{ACC})$ | 0.0920 | 0.1055 | 0.0775 | 0.0972 | 0.1059 | 0.1510 |

To summarize, the real data analysis confirms the applicability of Huber loss function, and also shows that the tensor nuclear norm regularizer has a good ability of low-rank structure modeling in 3D real data.


Figure 2: The boxplots of ACC for the CIFAR-10 dataset.


Figure 3: Examples of image classification results by NNTH.

## 6 Conclusions

In this paper, we have considered the nuclear norm regularized tensor Huber regression (NNTH) method, which can effectively handle the tensor data with low-rank structure and outliers/heavy-tailed errors. By virtue of decomposability of nuclear norm and restricted strong convexity of Huber loss function, the upper bound of estimation error has been established in the sense of Frobenius norm. An ADMM algorithm has been designed and the numerical results have verified the effectiveness of the proposed NNTH method. Besides the nuclear norm regularization for the tensor low-rankness, it would be of significance for future research to develop the robust low-rank Huber tensor regression methods based on tensor decomposition, such as Tucker decomposition [45, 27] and CANDECOMP/PARAFAC (CP) decomposition [15, 39], for further dimension reduction.

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