

# Lecture 3

# Multiple Linear Regression

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EE-UY 4563/EL-GY 9123: INTRODUCTION TO MACHINE LEARNING  
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# Learning Objectives

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- ❑ Formulate a machine learning model as a multiple linear regression model.
  - Identify prediction vector and target for the problem.
- ❑ Write the regression model in matrix form. Write the feature matrix
- ❑ Compute the least-squares solution for the regression coefficients on training data.
- ❑ Derive the least-squares formula from minimization of the RSS
  
- ❑ Manipulate 2D arrays in python (indexing, stacking, computing shapes, ...)
- ❑ Compute the LS solution using python linear algebra and machine learning packages

# Pre-Requisites for this Lecture

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## □ Undergraduate students:

- Go through Lecture 2 (Simple Linear Regression) first
- Some of the material in this lecture is a duplicate of Lecture 2
- I will go through this lecture more slowly, esp. for the linear algebra

## □ Graduate students:

- You can skip Lecture 2 and start this after Lecture 1
- But, useful to read Lecture 2 and the corresponding demo on your own time.
- Will not review basic linear algebra in class. You should review this on your own.

# Outline

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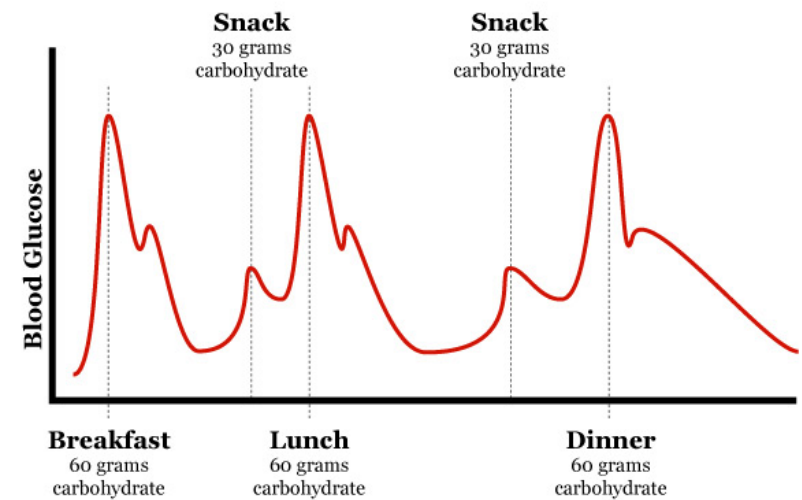


Motivating Example: Understanding glucose levels in diabetes patients

- ❑ Multiple variable linear models
- ❑ Least squares solutions
- ❑ Computing the solutions in python
- ❑ Special case: Simple linear regression
- ❑ Extensions

# Example: Blood Glucose Level

- ❑ Diabetes patients must monitor glucose level
- ❑ What causes blood glucose levels to rise and fall?
- ❑ Many factors
- ❑ We know mechanisms **qualitatively**
- ❑ But, **quantitative** models are difficult to obtain
  - Hard to derive from first principles
  - Difficult to model physiological process precisely
- ❑ Can machine learning help?



# Data from AIM 94 Experiment

## Data Set Information:

Diabetes patient records were obtained from two sources: an electronic clock to timestamp events, whereas the paper records only provided times assigned to breakfast (08:00), lunch (12:00), dinner (18:00), and bedtime. The electronic records have more realistic time stamps.

Diabetes files consist of four fields per record. Each field is separated by a space.

File Names and format:

- (1) Date in MM-DD-YYYY format
- (2) Time in XX:YY format
- (3) Code
- (4) Value

The Code field is deciphered as follows:

- 33 = Regular insulin dose
- 34 = NPH insulin dose
- 35 = UltraLente insulin dose
- 48 = Unspecified blood glucose measurement
- 57 = Unspecified blood glucose measurement
- 58 = Pre-breakfast blood glucose measurement
- 59 = Post-breakfast blood glucose measurement
- 60 = Pre-lunch blood glucose measurement
- 61 = Post-lunch blood glucose measurement
- 62 = Pre-supper blood glucose measurement
- 63 = Post-supper blood glucose measurement

## ☐ Data collected as series of events

- Eating
- Exercise
- Insulin dosage

## ☐ Target variable glucose level monitored



## Diabetes Data Set

Download: [Data Folder](#), [Data Set Description](#)

**Abstract:** This diabetes dataset is from AIM '94

|                            |                           |                       |     |                     |        |
|----------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-----|---------------------|--------|
| Data Set Characteristics:  | Multivariate, Time-Series | Number of Instances:  | N/A | Area:               | Life   |
| Attribute Characteristics: | Categorical, Integer      | Number of Attributes: | 20  | Date Donated        | N/A    |
| Associated Tasks:          | N/A                       | Missing Values?       | N/A | Number of Web Hits: | 161379 |

# Demo on GitHub

□ All code is available in github:

[https://github.com/sdrangan/introml/blob/master/mult\\_lin\\_reg/glucose.ipynb](https://github.com/sdrangan/introml/blob/master/mult_lin_reg/glucose.ipynb)

## Demo: Predicting Glucose Levels using Multiple Linear Regression

In this demo, you will learn how to:

- Fit multiple linear regression models using python's sklearn package.
- Split data into training and test.
- Manipulating and visualizing multivariable arrays.

We first load the packages as usual.

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
%matplotlib inline
```

## Diabetes Data Example

To illustrate the concepts, we load the well-known diabetes data set. This dataset is included in the sklearn.datasets module and can be loaded as follows.

```
from sklearn import datasets, linear_model, preprocessing
```

# Loading the Data

```
: from sklearn import datasets, linear_model, preprocessing  
  
# Load the diabetes dataset  
diabetes = datasets.load_diabetes()  
X = diabetes.data  
y = diabetes.target
```

```
nsamp, natt = X.shape  
print("num samples={0:d} num attributes={1:d}".format(nsamp,natt))  
  
num samples=442 num attributes=10
```

## ❑ Sklearn package:

- Many methods for machine learning
- Datasets
- Will use throughout this class

## ❑ Diabetes dataset is one example



# Matrix Representation of Data

□ Data is a **matrix**

□  $n$  samples:

- One sample per row

□  $k$  features / attributes:

- One feature per column


□ This example:

- $y_i$  = blood glucose measurements

$$\begin{array}{ccc} & \text{Attributes} & \text{Target vector} \\ & \underbrace{\hspace{10em}} & \\ X = & \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{nk} \end{bmatrix} & y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} \end{array} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}} \right\} \text{Samples}$$

# Outline

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- ❑ Motivating Example: Understanding glucose levels in diabetes patients
-  Multiple variable linear models
  - ❑ Least squares solutions
  - ❑ Computing the solutions in python
  - ❑ Special case: Simple linear regression
  - ❑ Extensions

# Multiple Variable Linear Model

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- ❑ Vector of **predictors**:  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$ 
  - $k$  predictors / independent variable attributes

- ❑ Single **target variable**  $y$

- ❑ Linear model:

$$y \approx \hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$$

- $p = k + 1$  terms in the model
- $\hat{y}$  = predicted value

- ❑ Data for training

- Samples are  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$ .
- Each sample has a vector of predictors:  $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik})$  and scalar target  $y_i$

# Why Use a Linear Model?

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- ❑ Many natural phenomena have linear relationship
- ❑ Predictor has small variation
  - Suppose  $y = f(x)$
  - If variation of  $x$  is small around some value  $x_0$ , then

$$y \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x,$$

$$\beta_0 = f(x_0) - f'(x_0)x_0, \quad \beta_1 = f'(x_0)$$

- ❑ Gaussian random variables
- ❑ Simple to compute
- ❑ Easy to interpret relation

# Matrix Review

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□ Consider

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix},$$

□ Compute (computations on the board):

- Matrix vector multiply:  $Ax$
- Transpose:  $A^T$
- Matrix multiply:  $AB$
- Solution to linear equations: Solve for  $u$ :  $x = Bu$
- Matrix inverse:  $B^{-1}$

# Matrix Form of Linear Regression

□ Predicted value for  $i$ -th sample:

$$\hat{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \cdots + \beta_k x_{ik}$$

□ Define **feature matrix** and regression vector:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_{11} & \cdots & x_{1k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_{n1} & \cdots & x_{nk} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix} \quad \left. \vphantom{\begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix}} \right\} p = k + 1 \text{ linear features}$$

◦ Feature matrix is data matrix + column of 1's

□ Then, predicted value is:  $\hat{y} = A\beta$

# Slopes and Intercept

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□ Model  $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_k x_k$


□ Divide coefficients into two parts:  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{1:k})$

- $\beta_0$  : Intercept
- $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{1:k} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)$ : Slope coefficients

□ Then, can rewrite model as:  $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \boldsymbol{\beta}_{1:k}^T \mathbf{x}$

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# Least Squares Model Fitting

□ How do we select parameters  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_k)$ ?

□ Define  $\hat{y}_i = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{i1} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ik}$

- Predicted value on sample  $i$  for parameters  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_k)$

□ Define average residual sum of squares:

$$\text{RSS}(\boldsymbol{\beta}) := \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

- Note that  $\hat{y}_i$  is implicitly a function of  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_k)$
- Also called the sum of squared residuals (SSR) and sum of squared errors (SSE)

□ Least squares solution: Find  $\boldsymbol{\beta}$  to minimize RSS.

- Geometrically, minimizes squared distances of samples to regression line

# Finding Parameters via Optimization

## A general ML recipe

### General ML problem

- Pick a **model** with **parameters**
- Get data
- Pick a **loss function**
  - Measures goodness of fit model to data
  - Function of the parameters

- Find parameters that **minimizes** loss

### Multiple linear regression

➡ Linear model:  $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \beta_k x_k$

➡ Data:  $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, N$

➡ Loss function:  
$$RSS(\beta_0, \dots, \beta_k) := \sum (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

➡ Select  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \dots, \beta_k)$  to minimize  $RSS(\boldsymbol{\beta})$

# RSS as a Vector Norm

□ RSS is given by sum:

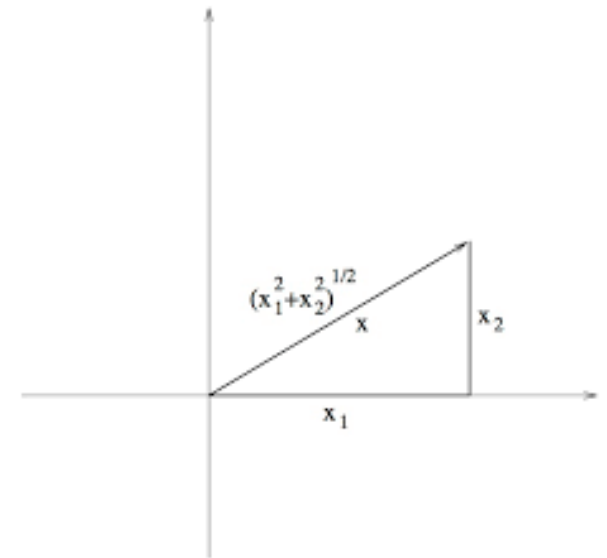
$$\text{RSS} = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

□ Define **norm** of a vector:

- $\|\mathbf{x}\| = (x_1^2 + \dots + x_r^2)^{1/2}$
- Standard Euclidean norm.
- Sometimes called  $\ell$ -2 norm.  $\ell$  is for Lebesgue

□ Write RSS in vector form:

$$\text{RSS} = \|\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}\|^2$$



# Gradients and Multi-Variable Functions

Consider scalar valued function of a vector:  $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$

**Gradient** is the column vector:

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \partial f(\mathbf{x}) / \partial x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \partial f(\mathbf{x}) / \partial x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

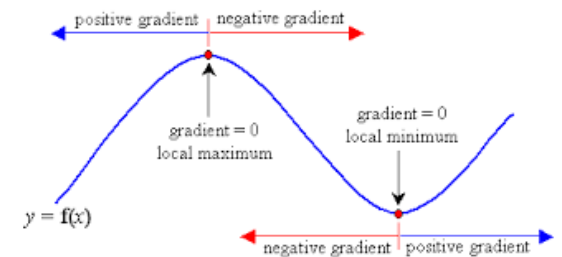
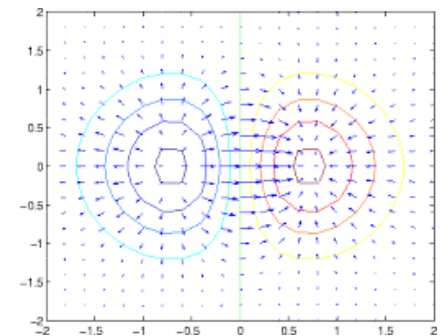
Ex:  $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1 \sin x_2 + x_1^2 x_2$ .

- Compute  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ . Solution on board

Represents direction of maximum increase

At a local minima or maxima:  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$

- Solve  $n$  equations and  $n$  unknowns



# Least Squares Solution

- Consider cost function of the RSS:

$$RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2, \quad \hat{y}_i = \sum_{j=0}^p A_{ij}\beta_j$$

- Vector  $\beta$  that minimizes RSS called the **least-squares** solution

- Compute partial derivatives via chain rule:  $\frac{\partial RSS}{\partial \beta_j} = 2 \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i) A_{ij}$

- Matrix form of the gradient:  $\nabla RSS = 2A^T(y - A\beta)$

- Least squares solution:  $\beta = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T y$

- Minimum RSS:  $RSS = y^T [I - A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T] y$

# LS Solution via Auto-Correlation Functions

- Each data sample has a linear feature vector:

$$A_i = (A_{i0}, \dots, A_{ik}) = (1, x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik})$$

- Define sample **auto-correlation** matrix and **cross-correlation** vector:

- $R_{AA} = \frac{1}{n} A^T A$ ,  $R_{AA}(\ell, m) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n A_{i\ell} A_{im}$
- $R_{Ay} = \frac{1}{n} A^T y$ ,  $R_{yA}(\ell) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n A_{i\ell} y_i$

- Least squares solution is:  $\beta = R_{AA}^{-1} R_{Ay}$

# $R^2$ : Goodness of Fit

- Define **output sample mean** and **variance**:

$$s_y^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i, \quad s_y^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2$$

- Consider minimum prediction error per sample

$$\frac{RSS}{n} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

- Multiple variable **coefficient of determination**:

$$R^2 = 1 - \frac{RSS/n}{s_y^2} = 1 - \frac{\text{avg error with linear model}}{\text{avg error with a constant model}}$$

- $R^2 \in [0,1]$  always
- $R^2 \approx 1 \Rightarrow$  linear model provides a good fit
- $R^2 \approx 0 \Rightarrow$  linear model provides a poor fit

# Notation

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❑ Often, RSS is quoted in some relative form

❑ We will use the following terminology

- Note: these are not standard

❑ Residual sum of squares:  $RSS = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$

❑ RSS per sample:  $RSS/n$

❑ Normalized RSS:

$$\frac{RSS/n}{s_y^2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2}$$




# LS Solution via Covariance Matrices

- Define sample means  $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = (\bar{x}_1, \dots, \bar{x}_k)^T$ ,  $\bar{y}$
- Define **sample covariance** matrix and **cross-covariance** vector:
  - $S_{xx}(\ell, m) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{i\ell} - \bar{x}_\ell)(x_{im} - \bar{x}_m)$
  - $S_{xy}(\ell) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_{i\ell} - \bar{x}_\ell)(y_i - \bar{y})$
- Write parameters as  $\boldsymbol{\beta} = (\beta_0, \boldsymbol{\beta}_{1:k})$ 
  - $\boldsymbol{\beta}_{1:k} = (\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k)^T$  = coefficients for the values  $x_j$
  - $\beta_0$  = constant term
- With some long algebraic manipulations (not in this class):
$$\boldsymbol{\beta}_{1:k} = S_{xx}^{-1} S_{xy}, \quad \beta_0 = \bar{y} - \boldsymbol{\beta}_{1:k}^T \bar{\mathbf{x}}$$

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# Fitting Using sklearn

```
: ns_train = 300
  ns_test = nsamp - ns_train
  X_tr = X[:ns_train,:]
  y_tr = y[:ns_train]
```

- ❑ Return to diabetes data example
- ❑ All code in demo
- ❑ Divide data into two portions:
  - Training data: First 300 samples
  - Test data: Remaining 142 samples
- ❑ Train model on training data.
- ❑ Test model (i.e. measure RSS) on test data
- ❑ Reason for splitting data discussed next lecture.

# Calling the sklearn method

```
regr = linear_model.LinearRegression()  
regr.fit(X_tr,y_tr)
```

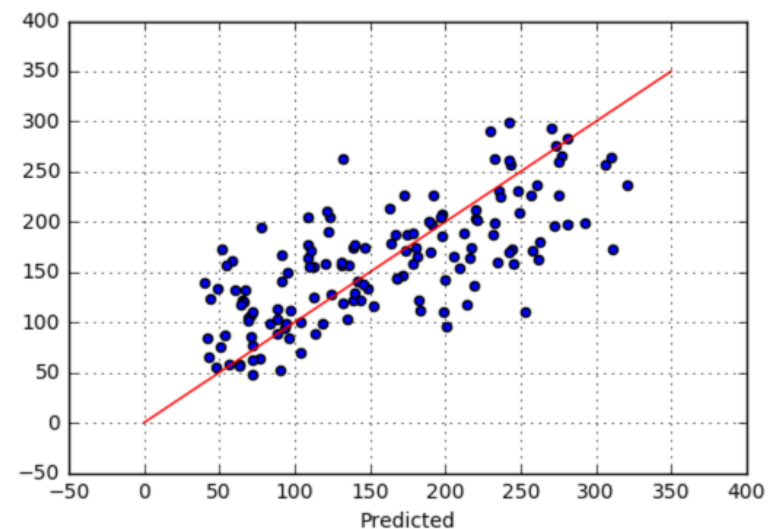
```
X_test = X[ns_train:,:]  
y_test = y[ns_train:]  
y_test_pred = regr.predict(X_test)  
RSS_test = np.mean((y_test_pred-y_test)**2)/(np.std(y_test)**2)  
Rsqr_test = 1-RSS_test  
print("RSS per sample = {:.4f}".format(RSS_test))  
print("R^2 = {:.4f}".format(Rsqr_test))
```

```
RSS per sample = 0.492801  
R^2 = 0.507199
```

We see that the model predicts new samples almost as well as it did the training :

```
plt.scatter(y_test,y_test_pred)  
plt.plot([0,350],[0,350], 'r')  
plt.xlabel('Actual')  
plt.ylabel('Predicted')  
plt.grid()
```

- ❑ Construct a linear regression object
- ❑ Run it on the training data
- ❑ Predict values on the test data



# Manually Computing the Solution

```
ones = np.ones((ns_train,1))  
A = np.hstack((ones,X_tr))
```

```
out = np.linalg.lstsq(A,y_tr)  
beta = out[0]
```

❑ Can also use numpy linear algebra routine to solve


$$\beta = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T y$$

❑ Common mistake:

- Compute matrix inverse  $P = (A^T A)^{-1}$ ,
- Then compute  $\beta = P A^T y$
- Full matrix inverse is VERY slow. Not needed.
- Can directly solve linear system:  $A^T A \beta = A^T y$
- Numpy has routines to solve this directly

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# Simple vs. Multiple Regression

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## □ Simple linear regression: One predictor

- Scalar predictor  $x$
- Linear model:  $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$
- Can only account for one variable

## □ Multiple linear regression: Multiple predictors

- Vector predictor  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$
- Linear model:  $\hat{y} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$
- Can account for multiple predictors
- Turns into simple linear regression when  $k = 1$

# Comparison to Single Variable Models

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- We could compute models for each variable separately:

$$\begin{aligned}y &= a_1 + b_1x_1 \\y &= a_2 + b_2x_2 \\&\vdots\end{aligned}$$

- But, doesn't provide a way to account for joint effects
- Example: Consider three linear models to predicting longevity:
  - A: Longevity vs. some factor in diet (e.g. amount of fiber consumed)
  - B: Longevity vs. exercise
  - C: Longevity vs. diet AND exercise
  - What does C tell you that A and B do not?



# Special Case: Single Variable

□ Suppose  $k = 1$  predictor.

□ Feature matrix and coefficient vector:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

□ LS soln:  $\beta = \left( \frac{1}{N} A^T A \right)^{-1} \left( \frac{1}{N} A^T y \right) = P^{-1} r$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \bar{x} \\ \bar{x} & \bar{x}^2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad r = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{y} \\ \overline{xy} \end{bmatrix}$$

□ Obtain single variable solutions for coefficients (after some algebra):

$$\beta_1 = \frac{s_{xy}}{s_x^2}, \quad \beta_0 = \bar{y} - \beta_1 \bar{x}, \quad R^2 = \frac{s_{xy}^2}{s_x^2 s_y^2}$$

# Simple Linear Regression for Diabetes Data

```
ym = np.mean(y)
syy = np.mean((y-ym)**2)
Rsqr = np.zeros(natt)
for k in range(natt):
    xm = np.mean(X[:,k])
    sxy = np.mean((X[:,k]-xm)*(y-ym))
    sxx = np.mean((X[:,k]-xm)**2)
    Rsqr[k] = (sxy)**2/sxx/syy

print("{0:2d} Rsqr={1:f}".format(k, Rsqr[k]))
```

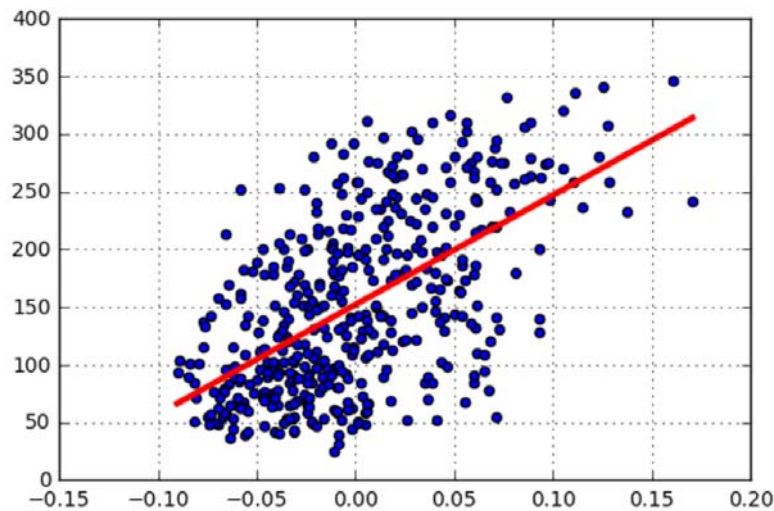
```
0 Rsqr=0.035302
1 Rsqr=0.001854
2 Rsqr=0.343924
3 Rsqr=0.194908
4 Rsqr=0.044954
5 Rsqr=0.030295
6 Rsqr=0.155859
7 Rsqr=0.185290
8 Rsqr=0.320224
9 Rsqr=0.146294
```

Best individual variable

- ❑ Try a fit of each variable individually
- ❑ Compute  $R_k^2$  coefficient for each variable
- ❑ Use formula on previous slide
- ❑ “Best” individual variable is a poor fit
  - $R_k^2 \approx 0.34$

# Scatter Plot

- ❑ No one variable explains glucose well
- ❑ Multiple linear regression is much better

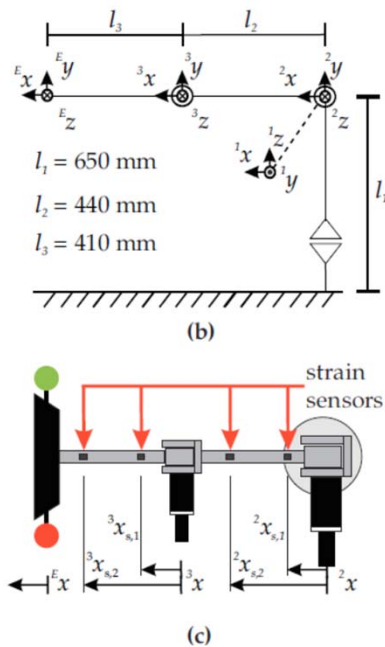
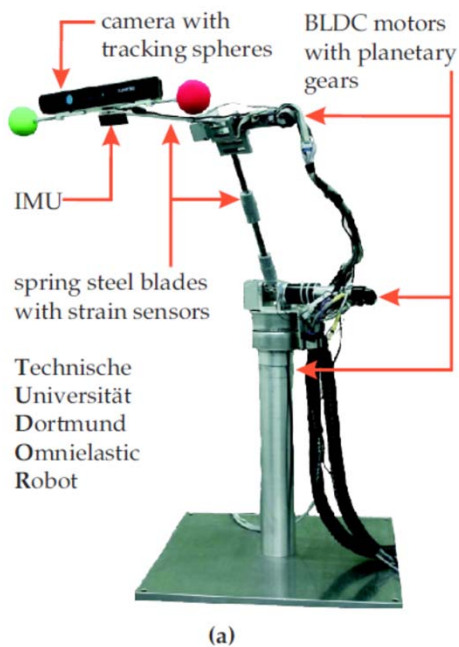


```
# Find the index of the single variable with the best R^2
imax = np.argmax(Rsq)

# Regression line over the range of x values
xmin = np.min(X[:,imax])
xmax = np.max(X[:,imax])
ymin = beta0[imax] + beta1[imax]*xmin
ymax = beta0[imax] + beta1[imax]*xmax
plt.plot([xmin,xmax], [ymin,ymax], 'r-', linewidth=3)

# Scatter plot of points
plt.scatter(X[:,imax],y)
plt.grid()
```


# Lab: Robot Calibration



- Predict the current draw
  - Needed to predict power consumption
- Predictors:
  - Joint angles, velocity and acceleration
  - Strain gauge readings (measure of load)
- Full website at TU Dortmund, Germany
  - [http://www.rst.e-technik.tu-dortmund.de/cms/en/research/robotics/TUDOR\\_engl/index.html](http://www.rst.e-technik.tu-dortmund.de/cms/en/research/robotics/TUDOR_engl/index.html)

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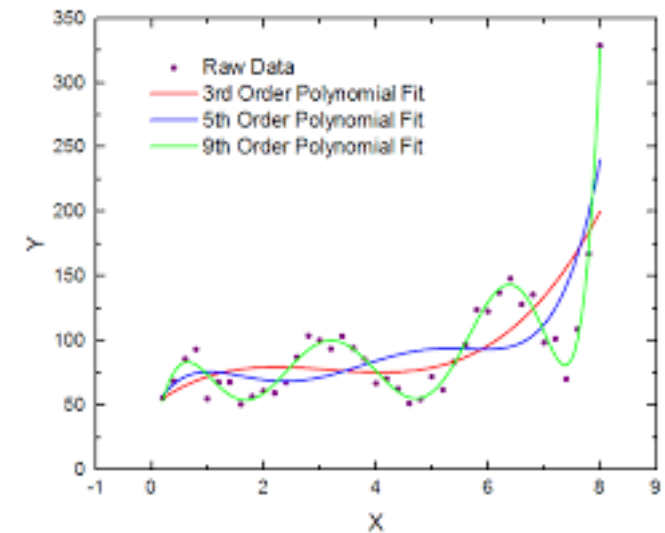
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# Polynomial Fitting

- Learn a polynomial model  $y \approx \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \dots \beta_d x^d$
- Given data  $(x_i, y_i), i = 1, \dots, n$
- Form feature matrix and coefficient vector

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & \dots & x_1^d \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & \dots & x_n^d \end{bmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_d \end{bmatrix}$$

- $p = d + 1$  transformed features from 1 original feature
- Will discuss model order selection in next year
- Extensions to other nonlinear transforms



# Learning Linear Systems

- Linear system:  $y_k = a_1 y_{k-1} + \dots + a_m y_{k-m} + b_0 x_k + \dots + b_n x_{k-n} + w_k$
- Transfer function:  $H(z) = \frac{b_0 + \dots + b_n z^{-n}}{1 + a_1 z^{-1} + \dots + a_m z^{-m}}$
- Learn transfer function from data  $(x_k, y_k), k = 0, \dots, T - 1$
- Unknown coefficients  $\beta = (a_1, \dots, a_m, b_0, \dots, b_n)^T$
- Write  $y = A\beta + w$  for matrix  $A$ 
  - See homework problem
- Many applications
  - Learning dynamics in robots / mechanical systems
  - Modeling responses in neural systems
  - Stock market time series
  - Speech modeling. Fit model each 25 ms.



# One Hot Coding

- Suppose that  $x$  is a **categorical** variable
  - One of a finite number of choices  $x \in \{1, \dots, M\}$
  - Example: male or female, model of a car, ...
- One-hot coding example: Car model
  - Model:  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 u_1 + \dots + \beta_{M-1} u_{M-1} + \dots$
  - Obtain  $M$  different models:
    - Ford:  $y = \beta_0 + \dots$
    - BMW:  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 + \dots$
    - GM:  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_2 + \dots$
    - ...

| Model | $u_1$ | $u_2$ | $u_3$ |
|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| Ford  | 0     | 0     | 0     |
| BMW   | 1     | 0     | 0     |
| GM    | 0     | 1     | 0     |
| VW    | 0     | 0     | 1     |