Automatic identification of hyperspectral data – construction of unique signatures

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Abstract

The paper describes a real-time identification scheme for a specific spectrum against a given database. The scheme finds spectra in the database that are similar to the presented spectrum. The measure of similarity in our scheme is defined as a number of coinciding (up to a tolerance interval) geometric characteristics of the spectral curve. The geometric characteristics exploited in the scheme are the locations of minima, of flat intervals and of inflexion points. These characteristics have apparent physical meaning, however any other set of geometric features can be used in the algorithm. There are no limitations on the number of spectra in the database that the classifier can handle. It can help in performing unmixing where the measurements of the endmembers are not pure but corrupted with noise. A robust features extraction method is presented in the paper. The algorithm can be applied to the general curve fitting.

1   Introduction

The goal of this paper is to design a real time methodology for automatic identification of pure materials using their spectra in the multitude of wavelengths. For this purpose, characteristic features

of each spectrum are determined. The characteristic features of spectra from a given database are used for the construction of a reference table. At the identification phase, the characteristic features are extracted from the presented spectrum. Then, a fast algorithm, which uses the reference table, finds the spectra in the database that have common features with the presented spectrum. The storage of reference table requires very limited memory volume incomparable with the volume needed for the storage of the full database. The identification procedure is implemented in real time. Thus, the size of database is, actually, unlimited.

The set of features that we use is physically justified. Therefore, the coincidence of all (or many) features of two spectra reflects the identity (or close relation) of the materials these spectra belong to. The features are:

- Absorption bands that are described as the locations of deep or shallow minima.

- Inflection points positions.

- Locations of flat intervals in the spectral curve.

These features that describe the spectral signature are based on the absorption features and backscattering parameters of the material. For instance, the clay minerals Montmorillonite and Kaolinite have an absorption band at 2205 nm (deep minimum), whereas only Kaolinite has an additional small absorption band at 2165 nm (shallow minimum). The proposed method enables to distinguish between these two clay minerals and points to their different features. Both the inflection point position of an absorption band and flat intervals in a spectral signature, are features that can help to distinguish between spectra.

1.1   Related work and our scheme

Spectral Angle Mapper (SAM) ([1, 2, 3]). The reflectance of a hyper spectral pixel can be seen as an N-dimensional vector, where N is the number of bands. The length of the vector is the brightness, and the direction of this vector can be seen as the spectral feature contained in the pixel. The variousness of the illumination affects only the length of the vector but not its angle. The classification of a target is done by calculating the angle between the vector of the

analyzed pixel and the vectors (representing materials) from the spectral libraries/database. Each pixel classifies the material with the lowest spectral angel value.

The weakness of the SAM method is that it does not distinguish between positive and negative correlations because only the absolute value is taken into account. To overcome this limitation, SCM was developed.

Spectral Correlation Mapper (SCM) ([4]). The difference between SAM and SCM is that the vectors of the reflected spectrum are being standardized before calculating the angle. Namely, if in the SAM, the angle can be calculated in SCM the Pearsonian Correlation Coefficient (PCC) is used but the computation is very similar. The difference is that the PCC standardizes the data.

Spectral Identification Method(SIM) ([5, 6]. This method uses the statistical procedure ANOVA ([7, 8, 9, 10]) that is based on linear regression. It is not sensitive to the presence of negative correlation. By combining it with the SCM coefficients, it uses the negative/positive information. This technique exhibits three estimates according to the levels of significance of the materials.

Spectral Feature Fitting (SFF) ([11]). This approach examines the specific absorbtion features in the spectra. The U.S. Geological Survey ([12]) developed an advanced method of this approach called Tetracorder. In the ENVI program, a simpler form of this method can be found. It is called Spectral Feature Fitting. In this technique, the user defines in it a range of wavelengths which is a unique absorption feature that exists for the chosen target (the isolation of the feature is done using a continuum mathematical function). Often the highpoint inclosing the feature is identified and a line fit between points is used in order to normalize the absorption feature by dividing the original spectra into the continuum. The comparison is based on the following two characteristics: The depth of the features in the target versus the depth in the pixel and the shape of the features in the target versus the shape in the pixel (using a least-square technique).

Optimum Index Factor (OIF) ([13, 14]). In this method, the OIF is used to select the optimum

combination of any number of bands in a satellite image to create a color composite. The most significant bands that contain the highest amount of information are chosen. The OIF is based on the total variance within bands and correlation coefficients between bands. The combination of bands with the lowest correlation coefficient between bands and with the highest total variance within bands will have the maximum OIF. Thus, it will be selected.

This approach is quite different from previous approaches. While others try to deal with the whole spectrum generally, this approach seeks a solution for the high-dimensionality of this problem (too much data with high inter-band correlation).

Our scheme Our approach in this paper follows, to some extent, the logic of OIF (specific band selection for classification) and achieves an essential dimensionality reduction, unlike all previous methods above. The difference between the proposed method and existing methods: The proposed method differs by two major aspects from other methods that classify and process spectral signatures. First, in the proposed algorithm, the comparison between spectral signatures is based on the location of the spectral features in the spectral dimension. It means that the reflectance value of the spectral feature at this location does not affect the comparison. Second, the analysis is done on the reflectance itself and no preprocessing such as normalization is needed as it is done for example in the spectral feature fitting (ENVI software). Other methods such as SAM have to possess the whole vector in order to distinguish between two spectral features. As it was mentioned above, the memory demand, even for huge databases is very limited and the identification procedure allows real-time implementation.

The database that is being used to test the proposed algorithms consists of 1000 spectral signatures, in reflectance, of natural targets that were measured by a field spec (FR) spectro radiometer manufactured by ASD (Boulder, Colorado). The measurements range is between 400 to 2400 nm with a spectral sampling resolution of 1nm. All the spectral signatures are of natural targets with reoccurrence of a few targets measured in different spectral conditions and instruments. Some of the measurements were made in sun light conditions and other were made with a contact probe. No noise was added to the measured data. The analysis of the method described in this work was done on authentic reflectance measurements of real field measurements.

The presented scheme consists of two blocks that determines the structure of the paper.

- Section 2: Extraction of characteristic features from the spectral curves and the construction of the reference table from the characteristic features of spectra in a given database.

- Section 3: Description of the identification procedure of a presented spectrum.

- In Section 4 we provide a few examples of application of the algorithm to the identification of real spectra.

- In Section **??** we briefly discuss the obtained results.

- In Appendix we describe in details the scheme of the features extraction and illustrate by examples the construction of the reference table and the identification procedure.

In Section **??** we present results of experiments with natural targets. Section **??** provides some discussion.

2 Construction of the reference table

2.1 Extraction of characteristic features

The spectra that we use to demonstrate the performance of the algorithm, represent absorbtion values in reflectance. But the algorithm can operate in the same way if the spectra came from radiation or any other source of data. The description of the general algorithm is accompanied by a detailed example of a data base that contains 173 entries (spectra). Each spectrum (vector) in the database is of predefined length (in our case 2001) which is the number of wavelengths. In order to construct a robust classifier. We achieve a significant reduction of the dimensionality by extraction of characteristic features of the vectors.

We use four types of geometrical characteristics, which represent the physical properties:

1. Location of deep minima.

2. Location of shallow and one-side minima.

3. Location of near-horizontal flat intervals.

4. Location of inflexion points.

This four features is here for the demonstration of the performance of the algorithm. We can add more features or remove some. For example, the area below two consecutive minima can be another feature. There is no limitations on the number of features and their meaning. Any feature that is chosen can be added.

The algorithm uses some parameters. All the "hardwired" parameters (numbers) that appear throughout the algorithm are parameters that were chosen arbitrarily but they can be modified and changed according to specifics of the problem.

The problem is to correctly locate essential physical events even when strong noise is present.

Let $\mathbf{y} = \{y(k)\}$ be an original raw spectrum of length N (number of wavelengths). Let

$$Dy(k) = \frac{y(k+1) - y(k-1)}{2}, \quad D^2y(k) = \frac{Dy(k+1) - Dy(k-1)}{2}, \quad k = 2, \ldots, N$$

be first and second centered differences of the array $\mathbf{y}$, respectively. In real data, all three arrays $\{Y(k)\}$, $\{DY(k)\}$ and $\{D^2Y(k)\}$ are corrupted by noise. Therefore, we filter these arrays by the application of a low-pass shape preserving B-spline filter (see Appendix) to the raw spectra. As a result, we get that the arrays $\{Y(k)\}$, $\{DY(k)\}$ and $\{D^2Y(k)\}$ are smoothed, while the geometric characteristics are preserved.

Details about finding the characteristic features are presented in Section 6.1 of Appendix. We assume that each spectrum has at most 10 locations for each selected feature.

Example: The construction is illustrated by a specific example. The spectrum represents the absorbtion values of a material with 2001 wavelengths.

$$\mathbf{X}_{50} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{Deep min.} & 1124 & 2091 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \text{Shal. min.} & 935 & 1467 & 1735 & 2162 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \text{Flat int.} & 1092 & 1187 & 1287 & 1440 & 1570 & 1642 & 2014 & 2311 & 2345 & 0 \\ \text{Inf. points} & 426 & 617 & 811 & 895 & 1034 & 1228 & 1604 & 1701 & 2042 & 2119 \end{pmatrix}. \quad (1)$$

The structure of the matrix in Eq. (1) is: The first row contains deep minima points. There are only three such points. The vacant places in the row are filled with zeros. Second row contains shallow

minima points. Third row contains indicators of flat intervals and the last row contains the first ten inflexion points. We display the spectrum and its features in Figure 1.
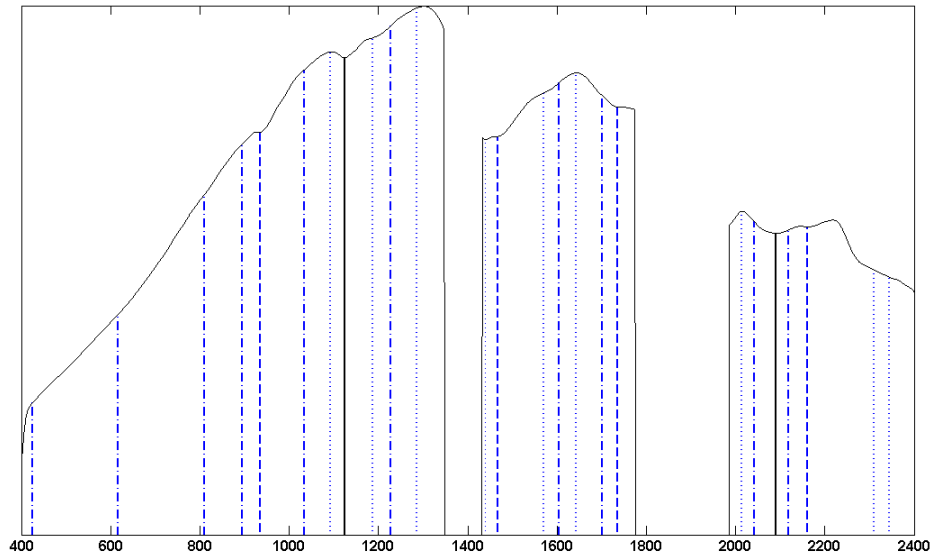

Figure 1: Spectrum # 50. The curve – smoothed data, solid verticals – deep minima, dashed verticals – shallow minima, dot verticals –flat intervals, dashdot verticals – inflexion points.

2.2   Construction of the table

As a result of above procedures we obtain the set of the extracted selected characteristic features of all the N spectra in the reference database. For each spectrum we have at most 40 features, which describe locations of deep and shallow minima, flat intervals and inflexion points. Assume that the locations of all the features do not exceed R (for the data we are dealing with $R = 3000$). To formalize the distinction between different types of features, we increase each location of the shallow minimum by R, each location of the flat interval by $2R$ and each location of the inflexion point in by $3R$. Then, we construct a table $\mathbf{T}$ that describes the distribution of the selected characteristic features among the spectra in the reference database.

We set a <u>tolerance interval</u>, whose length I is determined according to the conditions of the experiment. We do not distinguish two features if their difference is less than I. Namely, if $0 < f_2 - f_1 < I$ then we put $f_2 = f_1$. Let K be the number of different (up to the tolerance interval) features in all N spectra from the database. The table $\mathbf{T} = \{t(i,j)\}$, $i = 1 : K$, $j = 1 : N+1$, is organized as follows. Its first column comprises all K features in ascending order. The remaining columns of $\mathbf{T}$ consist of zeros and ones. Locations of ones in a row k indicate spectra that have the feature $t(k,1)$. For example, if $t(k,1) = \tau_0 < R$ and $t(k,m) = 1$ then it means that spectrum $\#m - 1$ has a feature at the location τ_0 (up to a tolerance interval I). Since $\tau_0 < R$, this feature is a deep minimum. If $t(w,1) = \tau_1$, $R < \tau_1 < 2R$ and $t(w,v) = 1$ then it means that spectrum $\#v - 1$ has a shallow minimum at the location $\tau_1 - R$ (up to a tolerance interval I).

Example of the construction of reference table: Table 1 displays locations of deep and shallow minima in spectra # 36–41.

36	669	1157	4454	5008	5143	5166	5196	5299	5322	0	0	0	0	0
37	1162	1446	5155	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
38-*/	673	743	1008	1185	2011	2236	2337	3616	5046	5067	5088	5117	5188	0
39	670	1009	1171	1444	3970	4119	5008	5043	5171	5197	5232	5261	5290	0
40	432	672	973	1167	2001	2148	2343	3619	5039	5062	5088	5117	5181	5215
41	671	1168	1445	3420	3617	5056	5169	5258	5324	0	0	0	0	0

Table 1: Deep and shallow minima locations in ascending order in spectra # 36–41.

The feature Table 1 is transformed into the reference table $\mathbf{T}$, whose portions are displayed in Table 2. For example, the table indicates that only spectrun # 40 has deep minimum at wavelength of 973nm, whereas the deep minimum at wavelength of 1157nm is peculiar to the spectra ## 36, 37 and 40. Spectra ## 38, 40 and 41 have the shallow minimum at wavelength of 616nm.

Features	36	37	38	39	40	41
973	0	0	0	0	1	0
1008	0	0	1	1	0	0
1157	1	1	0	0	1	0
1168	0	0	0	1	0	1
1185	0	0	1	0	0	0
1444	0	1	0	1	0	1
2001	0	0	1	0	1	0

Features	36	37	38	39	40	41
3616	0	0	1	0	1	1
3970	0	0	0	1	0	0
4119	0	0	0	1	0	0
4623	0	0	0	0	1	1
5008	1	0	0	1	0	0
5039	0	0	1	1	1	0
5056	0	0	0	1	0	0

Table 2: Portions of the reference table $\mathbf{T}$ representing some deep minima of spectra # 36–41 (left panel) and shallow minima (right panel).

The reference table $\mathbf{T}$ contains all the information needed for the identification of a test spectrum. Thus, there is no need to keep in memory the whole database. Obviously, the memory volume needed for the storage of the table $\mathbf{T}$ is insignificant, even for huge databases.

3 Fast identification of a spectrum

Input: A raw *test* spectrum s_n and the constructed reference table $\mathbf{T}$ (as was described in Section 2.2) are loaded. The test spectrum may or may not belong to the reference database.

Extraction of features: The features of the spectrum s_n are extracted according to the procedure described in Section 6.1 of Appendix. The features are gathered into the row vector $\mathbf{X}_n = \{x_n(k)\}_{k=1}^M$ (M is our case can be at most 40).

Reduction of the feature distribution table T: Recall that for $i = 1 : K$, the first column $t(i,1)$ in the table $\mathbf{T}$ contains all the features from the reference database. Then, the $K \times N{+}1$ table $\mathbf{T}$ is reduced to the $M \times N{+}1$ table $\mathbf{T}_n$ in such a way that only the rows $t(i,:)$ are retained, whose first terms $t(i,1)$ coincide (up to the tolerance interval I) with one of the features $x_n(k)$ of the tested spectrum

Detecting spectra that have common features with the presented spectrum: For this pur-

pose, we calculate the sums in columns $t(i,j)$, $j = 2 : N + 1$, of the reduced table $\mathbf{T}_n$ that correspond to the spectra in the reference database: $C_{n,j} = \sum_i t(i,j)$, $j = 2 : N + 1$.

The value of $C_{n,j}$ determines the number of features in spectrum $\#j$ from the database that coincide (up to the tolerance interval) with the features of the presented spectrum $\#n$.

Note that we can use all the available sets of features (deep and shallow minima, flat intervals an inflexion points) or any combination of these sets.

Histograms: We present the result of the search as a histogram that displays graphically the total number of spectra that have different numbers of common features with the test spectrum.

All these operations are conducted in real time.

The output from the identification process: Once the histogram related to the presented spectrum $\# n$ is displayed, the user indicates the number ν of common features to be used. Then, the algorithm produces a list of spectra that have $\geq \nu$ common features (up to the size of the tolerance interval) with the presented spectrum. Optionally, the plots of these spectra are displayed versus the plot of presented spectrum. Common features are also displayed in these images.

We exemplify the process of the identification of a spectrum in Section 6.2 of Appendix.

4   Identification results

In this section, we present a few examples of identification of natural materials by the algorithm described above. We made experiments with a data base that contains 173 entries (spectra). Each spectrum (vector) in the database is of predefined length (in our case 2001), which is the number of wavelengths. Some groups of spectra belong to the same material but measured in different conditions.

Initially, we extracted the characteristic features from the available 173 spectra and constructed the reference table. It appeared that there are 414 different (up to the tolerance interval $I = 10$) features. Consequently, the size of the reference table became 414×174, where first column contained all the features in ascending order. Then, we tested a number of spectra from that database in order

to find similar spectra. The results gave a strong evidence in favor of the presented scheme. The spectra that had a number of common features with the tested spectrum belonged either to the same material or to the same group of materials that this spectrum.

Identification of the spectrum # 25: Figures 2 and 3 illustrate the results of the identification of the spectrum # 25 against the full database using only deep minima features. This spectrum was emitted by a green vegetable material. Figure 2 displays the distribution of spectra in the database with respect to the number of deep minima common with the deep minima of the spectrum # 25. It is seen from the histogram that two spectra ## 26 and 34 have six common deep minima and three spectra ## 27, 30 and 31 have five deep minima common with the spectrum # 25. We display the spectrum # 25 and five similar spectra in Figure 3. Also, locations of features are marked in the plots. All these spectra were emitted by green vegetable materials. The spectra ## 25 and 26 are emitted by the same material.
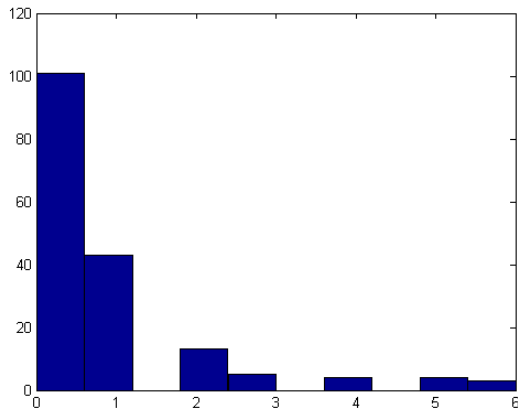

Figure 2: Histogram of the distribution of spectra in the database with respect to the number of deep minima common with the deep minima of the spectrum # 25.
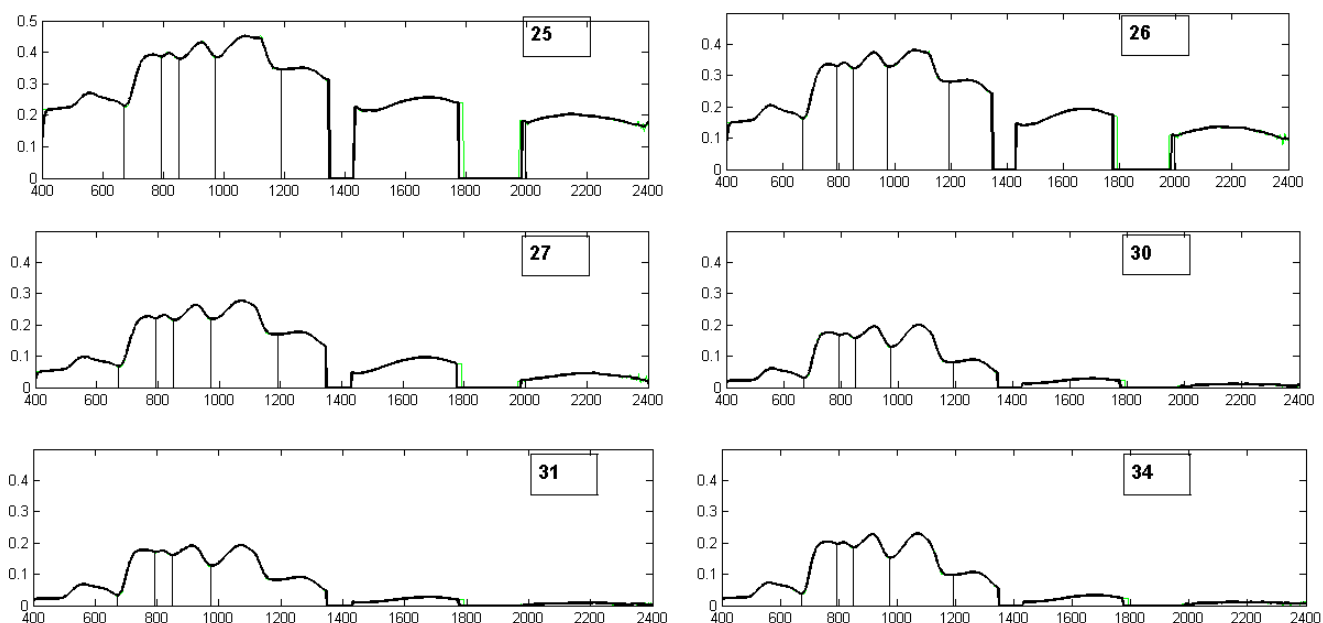
Figure 3: Tested spectrum # 25 (top left) and similar spectra. Spectra # 26 (top right) and # 34 (bottom right) have six common deep minima with spectrum # 25, spectra ## 27 (center left), 30 (center right) and 31 (bottom left) have five deep minima common with the spectrum # 25.

Identification of the spectrum # 38: Figures 4 and 5 illustrate the results of the identification of the spectrum # 38 against the full database using only deep minima features. This spectrum was emitted by the wet mud at an animal compound. Figure 4 displays the distribution of spectra in the database with respect to the number of deep minima common with the deep minima of the spectrum # 38. It is seen from the histogram that three spectra ## 1, 5 and 13 have four common deep minima with the spectrum # 38. We display the spectrum # 38 and three similar spectra in Figure 5. Also, locations of features are marked in the plots. These three spectra were emitted by the spring and rivers water measured in different locations.
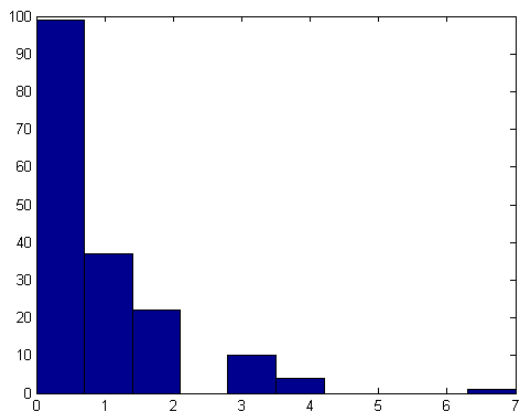
Figure 4: Histogram of the distribution of spectra in the database with respect to the number of deep minima common with the deep minima of the spectrum # 25.
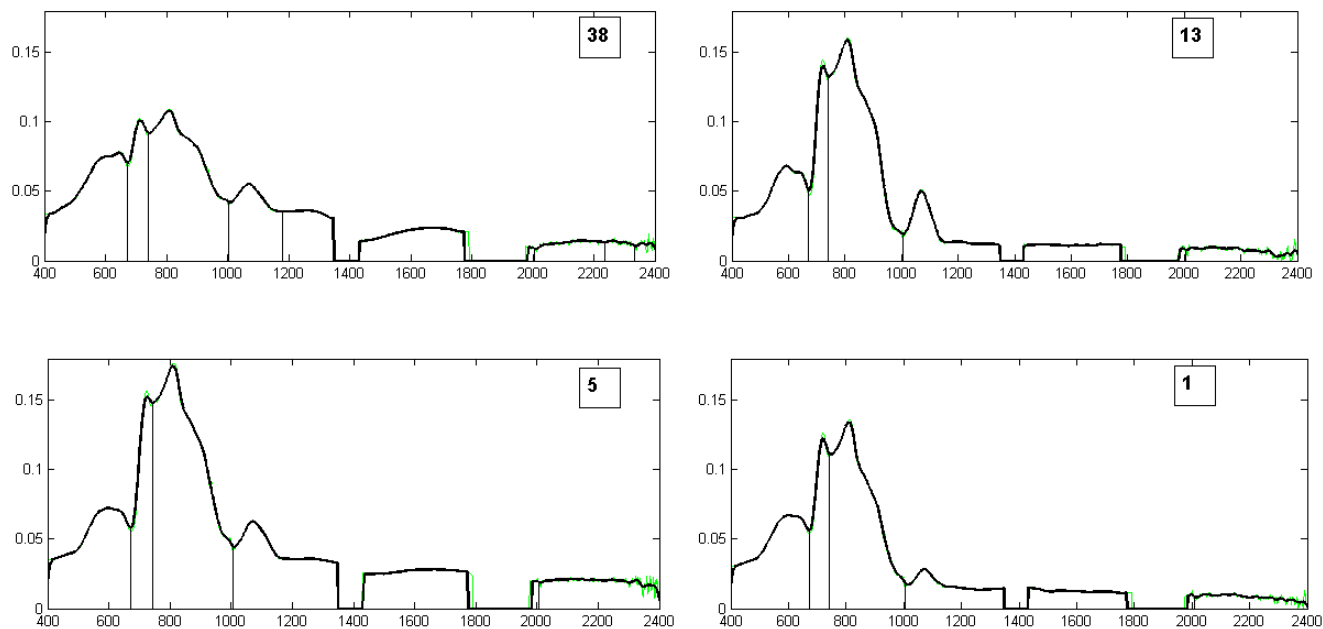

Figure 5: Tested spectrum # 39 (top left) and similar spectra. Spectra # 13, (top right) #5 (bottom left)and # 1 (bottom right) have four common deep minima with spectrum # 39.

Carton is similar to hey: Figure 6 illustrate the result of the comparison of the features of spectrum # 60 (carton) with the features of spectrum # 49, which was emitted by the hey at a animal compound. In addition to the coincidence of two major absorption bands (deep minima), they have in common one shallow minimum an one flat interval. This results from the strong cellulose component inherent in both materials.
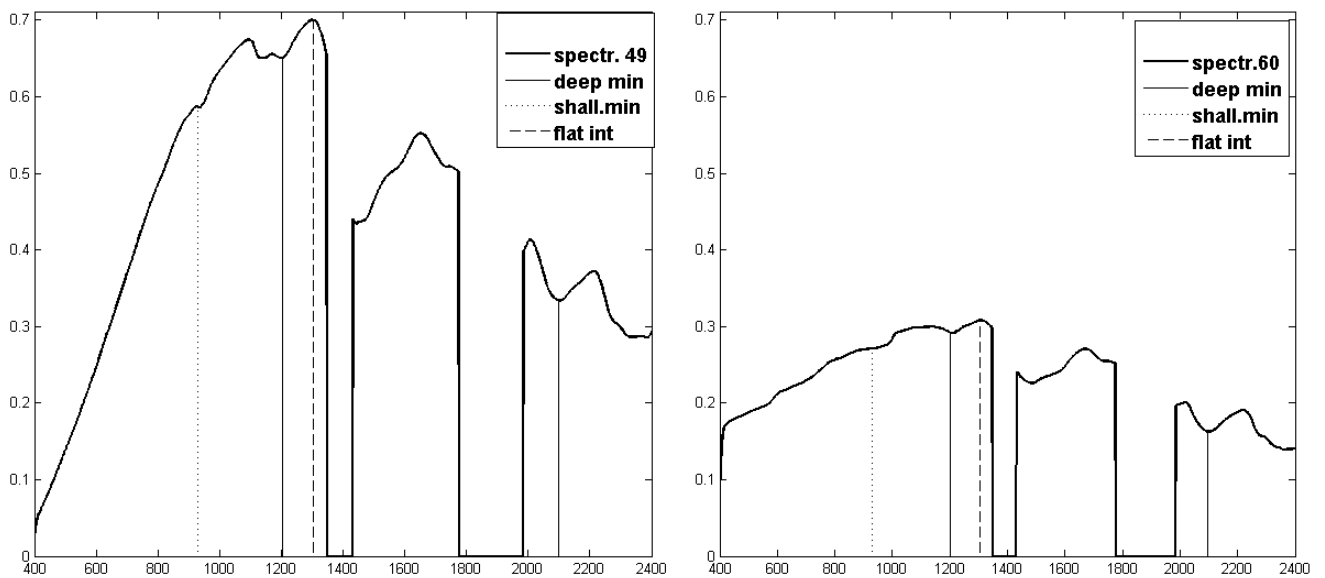

Figure 6: Tested spectrum # 49 (left) and similar spectrum # 60 (right).

5   Conclusions

The algorithm, which was described in this paper, efficiently reveals the spectra in the reference database that are related to the spectrum presented for identification. The extent of the relation is interactively defined by the user. If the presented spectrum belongs to the reference database then

the algorithm correctly identifies it and finds all the spectra originating from the same material as well as the spectra belonging to a similar group of materials. The scheme can be utilized as an initial step in solving the unmixing problem. Namely, it can reveal potential endmembers, prior to the qualitative analysis.

Typically, when spectra are recorded in natural environment, they are corrupted by noise. Deep minima locations, which present the major absorption bands, remain stable even by the strong noise. That is not the case for the others sets of features. However, these latter are useful for the identification of relatively clean spectra and for the exact search of a certain spectrum in a given database. Other physical features can be chosen either to replace or enhance the physical features presented in this paper.

The algorithm was implemented in Matlab and in ENVI-IDL.

6 Appendix

6.1 Extraction of characteristic features

Here is the description how the features 1-4 are found:

Location of minima: We set two parameters T_1 and $T_2 < T_1$. First we find all the points $\{k_c\}$, where the sequence $\{DY(k)\}$ changes the sign from $-to+$: $DY(k_c - 1) < 0$, $DY(k_c + 1) > 0$. Let k_c be a marked point. Let $k_{cl} \leq k_c$ be the point such that for all $k_{cl} \leq k \leq k_c$, $DY(k) < 0$. Let $k_{cr} \geq k_c$ be the point such that for all $k_c < k \leq k_{cr}$ $DY(k) > 0$. Denote by $V_l \overset{\Delta}{=} \{k : k_{cl} \leq k < k_c\}$ and $V_r \overset{\Delta}{=} \{k : k_c < k \leq k_{cr}\}$ the left- and right-side vicinities of the point k_c, respectively. We calculate $M_l \overset{\Delta}{=} \max_{k \in V_l} Y(k)$, $M_r \overset{\Delta}{=} \max_{k \in V_r} Y(k)$, $M \overset{\Delta}{=} \max(M_r, M_l) - Y(k_c)$ and $m \overset{\Delta}{=} \min(M_r, M_l) - Y(k_c)$.

Then, we sort the points in the following way:

- If $M < T_1$ then we discard the point k_c.

- If $M > T_1$ and $m > T_2$ then we mark the point $k_c = k_{dm}$ as a deep minima.

- If $M > T_1$ but $m < T_2$ then we mark the point $k_c = k_{sm}$ as a shallow or one-side minima.

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Location of near-horizontal flat intervals: We set two parameters: a small T_3 and a natural number N_1. We find intervals of length no less than N_1 samples such that $0 < |DY(k)| < T_3$ within these intervals. The central points k_f in these intervals are marked as the locations of near-horizontal flat intervals.

Location of inflexion points: We set a parameters T_4. First, we find all the points $\{k_q\}$, where the second difference $\{D^2Y(k)\}$ changes the sign $-to+$ or $+to-$: $D^2Y(k_q - 1) < 0$ and $D^2Y(k_q + 1) > 0$ or $D^2Y(k_q - 1) > 0$ and $D^2Y(k_q + 1) < 0$. Then, we sort the points in the following way: Let k_q marks "$-to+$" point. Let $k_{ql} \leq k_q$ be the point such that for all $k_{ql} \leq k \leq k_q$, $D^2Y(k) < 0$. Let $k_{qr} \geq k_q$ be the point such that for all $k_q < k \leq k_{qr}$, $D^2Y(k) > 0$. Denote by $V_w \overset{\Delta}{=} \{k : k_{ql} \leq k \leq k_{qr}\}$ and $V_n \overset{\Delta}{=} \{k : k_q - 5 \leq k \leq k_q + 5\}$ the wide and narrow vicinities of the point k_q, respectively. We calculate $M_w \overset{\Delta}{=} \max_{k \in V_w} |(DY(k)|$ and $m_n \overset{\Delta}{=} \min_{k \in V_n} |(DY(k)|$. We discard the point k_q if $M_w < T_4$ (near flat interval) or if $m_n > T_4$ (near vertical interval). Otherwise, the point k_q is marked as an inflexion point.

Thinning the features arrays: We set a parameter N_2 to be a natural number.

- If inside an interval of length N_2 several deep minima points are located, we retain only one point, where the value of Y is the smallest. Other points inside the interval are discarded.

- The same is done for shallow minima points and for the indicators of flat intervals.

- Similar operation is performed for the inflexion points but here points with the smallest $|DY|$ values are retained.

Sorting the features arrays: We consider the deep minima as the most significant features, next in significance are the shallow minima, which are followed by flat intervals and inflexion points, respectively. This rating does not affect the output of the algorithm. It affects only the structure of the reference table to be formed. Consequently, we carry out the following procedures:

We set a parameter N_3 to be a natural number.

- If within distance of N_3 samples from an inflexion point lies a minimum point or an indicator of a flat interval then this inflexion point is discarded.

- If within distance of N_3 samples from an indicator of a of flat interval lies a minimum point then this indicator is discarded.

- If within distance of N_3 samples from a shallow minimum lies a deep minimum point then this shallow minimum point is discarded.

Finally, we have for a spectrum $\#n$ a reduced set of features.

6.2 Example of the identification of a spectrum in a small database

We consider the identification of the spectrum $\#$ 39 against the small database $\#\#$ 36–41. We extract features (only deep minima in this example) from this spectrum and arrange them into a row.

$$\mathbf{X}_{39} = (670\ 1009\ 1171\ 1444\ ).$$

Then, we reduce the reference table $\mathbf{T}$ retaining only rows γ such that $|x_n(k) - t(\gamma, 1)| < I$, where $I = 10$ is the length of the tolerance interval. The reduced reference table is

$t(i,1)$	S.36 $t(i,2)$	S.37 $t(i,3)$	S.38 $t(i,4)$	S.39 $t(i,5)$	S.40 $t(i,6)$	S.41 $t(i,7)$
669	1	0	1	1	1	1
1008	0	0	1	1	0	0
1168	0	0	0	1	0	1
1444	0	1	0	1	0	1
$C(39,j)$	1	1	2	4	1	3

Table 3: Reduced reference table $\mathbf{T}_{39}$ for the database of spectra $\#$ 36–41.

The histogram in Fig. 7 displays the distribution of spectra from the reference database (spectra $\#$ 36 to $\#$ 41) according to the number of common features (deep minima) with the presented spectrum $\#$ 39, which was emitted by the wet mud at an animal compound. We can see from the histogram in Fig. 7 that three spectra have only one common feature with spectrum $\#$ 39, one spectrum $\#38$ (wet mud) has two common features and one spectrum $\#41$ (wet meadow) has tree common features with the spectrum $\#$ 39. We display last two spectra in Figure 8.
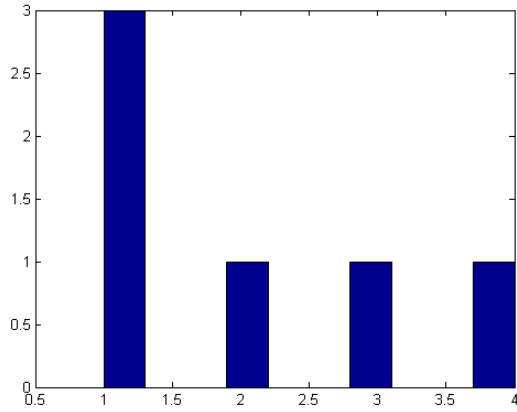
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Figure 7: Distribution of spectra # 36 to # 41 according to the number of common features (deep minima) with the presented spectrum # 39.
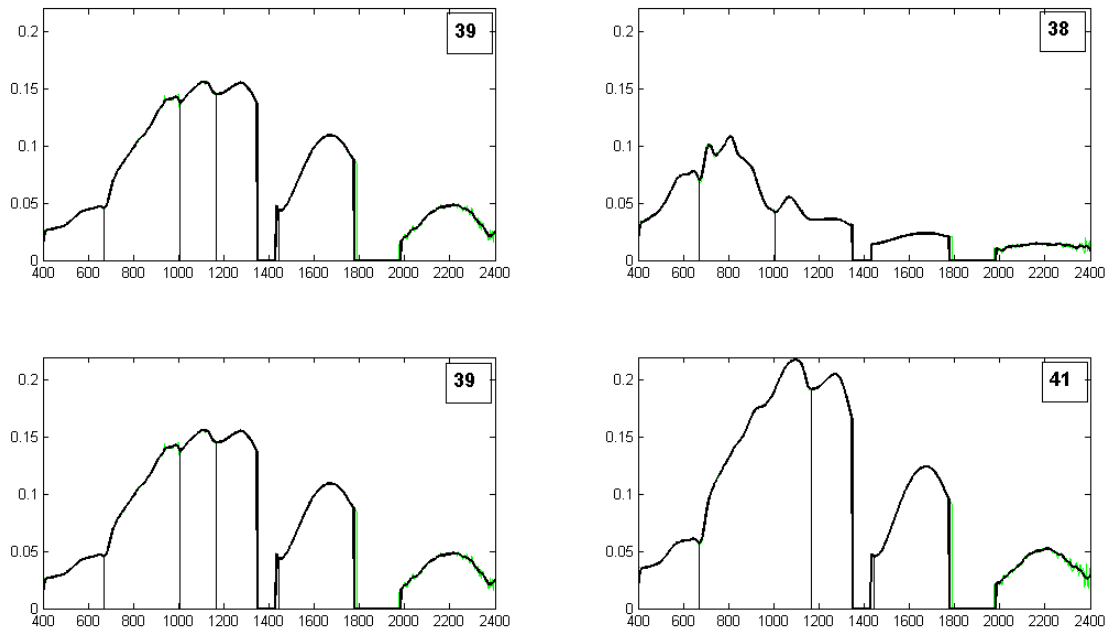

Figure 8: Spectrum # 39 (top left and bottom left) tested against the reduced database and similar spectra. Spectrum # 38 (top right) has two common deep minima with spectrum # 39, spectrum # 41 (bottom right) has three deep minima common with the spectrum # 39.

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