

# Unleashing the Power of Data Generation in One-Pass Outdoor LiDAR Localization

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## Abstract

Point cloud regression localization technology has a wide range of applications in the multimedia field. For example, in virtual reality and augmented reality, accurate point cloud localization can significantly enhance the user experience. Recently, point cloud pose regression algorithms based on APR (Absolute Pose Regression) and SCR (Scene Coordinate Regression) have achieved near sub-meter accuracy, requiring multiple repetitive trajectories for training. The key to their success lies in the diversity of viewpoints, temporal changes, and trajectories, **which is resource-consuming**. However, due to the errors in GPS/INS, the coupling between trajectories is not ideal, and the stability of re-localization is insufficient. Since LiDAR has covered most of the scene, single-shot localization has the potential to approach or even surpass multi-trajectory localization methods through pose enhancement. Specifically, we present Pose Enhancement Localization (PELoc), which feeds one trajectory, proposing SSDA (Single-shot Data Augmentation) and LTI (LiDAR Trajectories-coupled Interpolation) to simulate different driving poses, and we introduce KP-CL (Key Points Contrastive Learning) through feature perturbation to mitigate the differences in viewpoint/temporal phase transformations in similar scenes across

different trajectories. Our algorithm has been tested on the Oxford, QE-Oxford, and NCLT datasets, where single-shot localization accuracy can approach near sub-meter level on QE-Oxford and NCLT. The code will be published in <https://github.com/Eaton2022/PELoc>.

## CCS Concepts

• Computing methodologies → Vision for robotics.

## Keywords

Single-shot localization, Single-shot Data Augmentation, LiDAR Trajectories-coupled Interpolation, Key Points Contrastive Learning

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## 1 Introduction

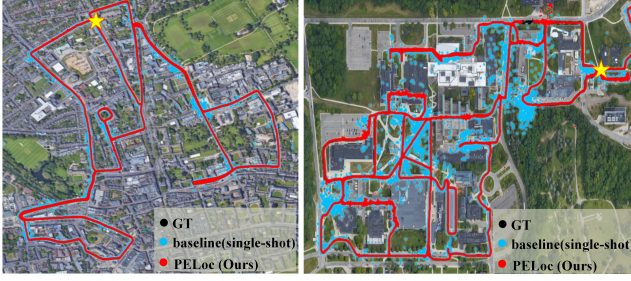
Multi-path effects and terrain occlusions can degrade the performance of GPS/GNSS devices, limiting their ability to provide high-precision localization[10, 18] in all conditions[16, 28]. Recently, point cloud localization[37, 50] based on deep learning has enabled scene recognition when devices fail. Therefore, point cloud[12, 24] localization is a fundamental and hot research topic in fields such as autonomous driving[7, 11, 22, 34] and intelligent navigation[8, 35, 51–53]. Retrieval-based methods[27, 32, 41] require pre-built maps, which demand substantial storage and computational resources for maintaining and searching the map database.

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**Figure 1: Single-shot localization results of PELoc (ours) and the baseline on the Oxford and NCLT datasets. PELoc achieves significantly more accurate localization results.**

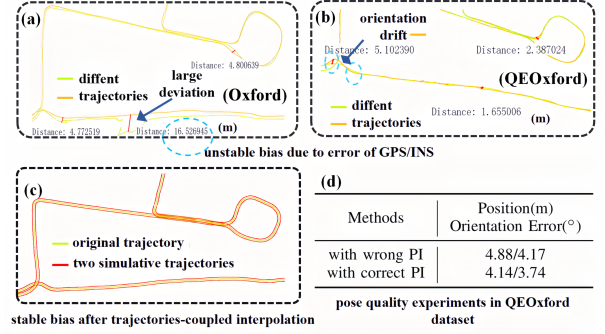
In contrast, absolute pose regression[31] methods are map-free, enabling efficient and rapid decision-making for localization.

Popular regression-based localization algorithms[21, 46] heavily rely on multiple repetitive trajectories, which provide rich scene and viewpoint variations. However, trajectory collection is time-consuming and labor-intensive[13, 56]. When the network is fed with only a single trajectory, the model’s performance is significantly lower than that of multi-trajectory training. The blue trajectory points in Figure. 1 represents the results of single-shot training, which exhibit a large number of prediction noise points.

Next, we will delve deep into two questions. **Question one: Why does single-shot localization fall short in accuracy?** Firstly, the poses between different trajectories inherently have deviations. When using a single trajectory for training, there will inevitably be translation and rotation errors. **Secondly**, the model encounters some reversed or unfamiliar scenes that it has never seen before. **Thirdly**, viewpoint and scene transformations can also cause feature differences in the same scene across different trajectories, which the model finds hard to handle.

**Question 2: Why does single-shot localization has the potential to approach even outperform multi-trajectory localization?** Some study [20] indicates that the acquisition of ground truth in current methods largely relies on GPS/INS, which is error-prone, as shown in Figure 2 (a). Such ground truth errors also lead to inconsistencies in trajectories, thereby reducing localization accuracy. We conducted this experiment in Figure 2 (d), often necessitating time-consuming trajectory correction. However, even after correcting the poses, there are still a few errors remaining, as shown in Figure 2 (b). This has motivated us to propose LTI for trajectory generation. The trajectories we generate are coupled with each other, as illustrated in Figure 2 (c), resulting in higher relocalization accuracy, a finding that has been verified in our experimental section. Therefore, our trajectories-coupled interpolation has the potential to surpass multi-trajectory localization methods.

Based on the aforementioned analysis, we present PELoc for single-shot localization. The primary limitations of single-shot localization stem from the singularity of trajectory and pose. The antidote lies in: (1) SSDA (single-shot data augmentation) and (2) LTI (LiDAR Trajectories-coupled Interpolation). Additionally, to mitigate the feature differences caused by viewpoint and scene changes, we introduce KP-CL (Key Points Contrastive Learning).



**Figure 2: (a) and (b): Due to the errors in GPS/INS devices, the relative stability between different trajectories is not ideal. (c) illustrates the effect of our proposed trajectories-coupled interpolation. (d) presents the experimental results of pose quality. PI denotes pose interpolation.**

Our contributions are summarized as follows:

- We conduct a thorough analysis of the key factors and limitations of multi-trajectory point cloud localization, presenting our novel single-shot localization algorithm, PELoc, which is the first work to research map-free single-shot localization as far as we are aware.
- We introduce novel LTI (LiDAR Trajectories-coupled Interpolation), SSDA (Single-shot Data Augmentation), KP-CL (Key Points Contrastive Learning), and a training strategy RFT(Remove 5% Random Consecutive Frames Training) to increase the diversity of data and poses, effectively enhancing the accuracy of single-shot localization.
- We perform experiments on the Oxford, QEOxford, and NCLT datasets, achieving average near sub-meter localization accuracy on the QEOxford (7.15m/4.94° to 1.09m/1.62°) and NCLT datasets (17.94m/10.83° to 1.02m/3.61°), which outperforms the result of the baseline trained with four trajectories in some trajectories. We also compare it with other methods suitable for single-shot localization, thereby demonstrating the superiority of our approach.

## 2 Related Work

Point cloud localization[23, 30, 38] can be categorized into map-based and regression-based(map-free) methods. Map-based methods treat point cloud localization as a place recognition task[1, 55], following a pipeline of retrieval and registration. Retrieval-based methods rely on pre-built map databases, while registration-based methods can achieve precise localization but at the cost of higher complexity. Regression-based methods can be further divided into relative and absolute pose estimation. Relative pose estimation[17] analyzes consecutive laser scans and is prone to cumulative errors, whereas absolute pose estimation[4, 5] enables independent decision-making. Our single-shot localization is based on absolute pose estimation, which we will focus on introducing next.

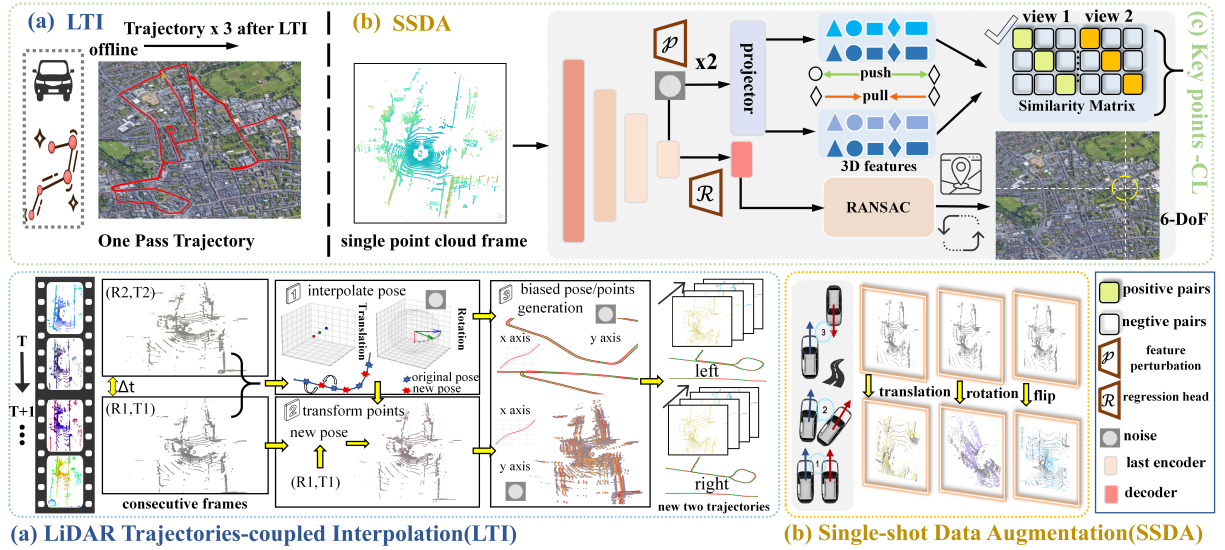


Figure 3: Network architecture of PELoc. PELoc is an algorithm designed for regressing world poses using a single trajectory for long-term localization. The flow of PELoc’s network is as follows: LTI generates two new trajectories, making a total of three trajectories for training. After the point clouds undergo SSDA, they are fed into an Encoder-Decoder network. The features extracted are used for both KP-CL and point cloud regression. The final loss is a combination of the losses from KP-CL and point cloud regression. **Note:** Details of the encoder architecture and SSDA can be found in Figure 4 and in the Experimental Settings section.

## 2.1 Regression-based Localization

Point cloud regression localization can be divided into APR and SCR methods[20, 48]. APR methods regress the 6-DoF pose directly through a neural network. Classic representative works include Atloc[29], Ms-Transformer[14], PointLoc[33], etc. Recently, Diffloc[19] has treated LiDAR localization as a conditional pose generation problem, utilizing a diffusion model to construct a denoising process for APR. Inspired by the image localization method ACE[3], FlashMix[9] employs a scene-agnostic backbone to extract a feature buffer, significantly reducing training time. SCR methods first regress the 3-DoF world coordinates and then use RANSAC[26] to compute the correspondences between local and world coordinates, resulting in a 6-DoF pose[45]. Representative works include SGLoc and LiSA[40]. SGLoc identified GPS/INS errors in localization datasets, while LiSA incorporated semantic features into the localization process. SCR methods tend to converge faster than APR methods. Our PELoc method is based on SCR. The coupling in our proposed LTI method is better than that of the original multi-trajectories, thus having the potential to surpass the accuracy of multi-trajectory training.

## 2.2 Single-shot Localization Solutions

To the best of our knowledge, this work is the first to investigate single-shot point cloud map-free regression. We have identified several promising approaches for single-shot localization[42] and

compared with them in our ablation studies. (1) Equivariant Features: Point cloud retrieval is typically single-shot. RING[39] derived rotation-translation equivariant point cloud feature representations using Fourier formulas. Kaba et al.[15] learned canonical representations of point cloud rotation data, effectively capturing their equivariance. (2) Point Cloud Interpolation: Due to the insufficient number of samples for a single trajectory, we considered the method of point cloud interpolation. PointNet[25] estimated the scene flow between two adjacent point clouds and proposed a novel point fusion scheme; NeuralPCI[54] further considered the spatiotemporal dimension, implicitly integrating information from multiple frames to handle large nonlinear motions. (3) Contrastive Learning: Contrastive learning has been extensively applied in recommendation systems[44], graph learning[49], and vision tasks[43]. In the 3D detection field, it can effectively identify regions of interest[36], significantly reducing computational load. How to apply contrastive learning in point cloud localization remains a challenge.

We will compare our method with these approaches in the methodology and experimental sections, demonstrating that our method is superior and more suitable for point cloud absolute localization.

## 3 Proposed Framework: PELoc

### 3.1 Framework Overview & Motivation

PELoc trains using only one original trajectory. After regressing the world coordinates, it employs RANSAC to eliminate outliers, thereby obtaining a 6-DoF (Degree of Freedom) pose. Recent regression-based LiDAR pose estimation algorithms[20, 40] heavily

rely on the diversity provided by multiple trajectories. However, collecting multiple trajectories is resource-consuming. This has motivated us to explore localization using a single trajectory. To address challenges such as trajectory variations and viewpoint changes, we present PELoc, see Figure. 3. PELoc's LTI and SSDA effectively increase the diversity of training data, while KP-CL's contrastive learning capability further enhances the robustness of the algorithm. Additionally, we propose a new training method, RFT(Remove 5% Random Consecutive Frames for Training), to mitigate the trajectory dependency in single-trajectory training. When using multiple trajectories for localization, data augmentation plays a limited role due to the abundance of data, and some current state-of-the-art methods[20, 40] do not employ it. However, for single-shot localization, data augmentation is critical, prompting us to propose an effective SSDA (Single-shot Data Augmentation). Some current works[57] only consider the rotation and translation of point clouds, but do not take into account flipping, which is crucial for single-shot localization. This is because, during single-shot training, some reverse sections remain unseen. We will elaborate on SSDA in the Settings section.

### 3.2 LiDAR Trajectories-coupled Interpolation

The primary motivations for LTI are twofold: (1) The training data for single-shot localization lacks trajectory diversity; (2) we can generate coupled trajectories by interpolating from a single trajectory. As analyzed in **Introduction**, question 2, and further validated in our experiments on **the Stability of Re-localization**. We summarize the process of LTI in the form of pseudocode, as shown below in Algorithm 1. LTI is a simple yet effective point cloud interpolation method. Its role is to simulate the movement of different trajectories. We explicitly generate two trajectories for left and right driving, rather than forward. We provide a comparative explanation in the experiment section titled "**Comparison with Other Single-shot Localization Solutions**".

It can be broadly divided into three steps: (1) **Interpolate new poses from two consecutive frames**; In the interpolation of rotations, we employ quaternions to perform spherical linear interpolation (SLERP). First, we convert the rotation matrix to a quaternion:

$$q = a + b \cdot i + c \cdot j + d \cdot k \quad (1)$$

,  $a$  represents the angle of rotation, while  $(i,j,k)$  denote the three orthogonal axes in 3D space. Given the rotation angle,  $q$  can be represented as:

$$q = \cos\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right) + \sin\left(\frac{\theta}{2}\right)(b \cdot i + c \cdot j + d \cdot k) \quad (2)$$

After obtaining the quaternions corresponding to two rotation matrices, we can interpolate to get a new rotation pose:

$$q(\Delta t) = \frac{\sin(1 - \Delta t) \cdot \theta}{\sin(\theta)} \cdot q_1 + \frac{\sin(\Delta t \cdot \theta)}{\sin(\theta)} \cdot q_2, \Delta t \in [0, 1]. \quad (3)$$

$$\theta = \arccos(q_1 \cdot q_2) \quad (4)$$

For the interpolation of translations, LTI utilizes effective linear interpolation (LERP). Therefore, we can obtain the interpolated rotation matrix  $R_{\Delta t}$  and translation matrix  $T_{\Delta t}$ .

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#### Algorithm 1: LTI Method Pseudocode

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**Input** : Original point cloud trajectory  $\mathcal{P} = \{P_1, \dots, P_n\}$ ;  
rotation matrices  $\mathcal{R} = \{R_1, \dots, R_n\}$ ; translation  
vectors  $\mathcal{T} = \{T_1, \dots, T_n\}$   
**Output**: New trajectory  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{new}}$ ; interpolated rotations  $R_{\Delta t}$ ;  
interpolated translations  $T_{\Delta t}$   
**Data**:  $R_p$ : rotation perturbation  $\sim \mathcal{U}(-2^\circ, 2^\circ)$ ;  
 $T_{py}$ : y-axis translation perturbation  $\sim \mathcal{U}(-0.3, 0.3)$ ;  
 $T_{px}$ : x-axis sine wave perturbation;  
 $\vec{V} = [0, \pm 2, 0]^T$ : lateral shift vector;  
1 **for** each consecutive frame pair  $i \in \{1, \dots, n-1\}$  **do**  
    // Rotation interpolation via SLERP  
     $R_{\Delta t} \leftarrow R_p \cdot \text{SLERP}(R_i, R_{i+1}, \Delta t)$ ;  
    // Linear translation interpolation  
     $T_{\Delta t} \leftarrow T_i + \Delta t \cdot (T_{i+1} - T_i)$ ;  
    // Compute relative rotation and translation  
     $R_r \leftarrow R_{\Delta t} \cdot R_i^T$ ;  
    2  $T_r \leftarrow R_r^T \cdot (T_{\Delta t} - T_i)$ ;  
    // Compute new point cloud  
    3  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{new}} \leftarrow P_i \cdot R_r^T - T_r$ ;  
    // Shift y-coordinate of new points by  $\pm 2$  and  
    add perturbation for x and y coordinate  
    4 **for** each point  $p \in \mathcal{P}_{\text{new}}$  **do**  
        5  $p.y \leftarrow p.y \pm 2$ ;  
        6  $p.x \leftarrow p.x + T_{px}$ ;  
        7  $p.y \leftarrow p.y + T_{py}$ ;  
    8 **end**  
    // compute new translation and add  
    perturbation for new translation  
     $T_{\Delta t} \leftarrow T_{\Delta t} \mp R_{\Delta t} \vec{V}$ ;  
    9  $T_{\Delta t}.x \leftarrow T_{\Delta t}.x + T_{px}$ ;  
    10  $T_{\Delta t}.y \leftarrow T_{\Delta t}.y + T_{py}$ ;  
    11 **return**  $(\mathcal{P}_{\text{new}}, R_{\Delta t}, T_{\Delta t})$ ;  
12 **end**

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(2) **Compute new point cloud**. In this step, we calculate the relative pose between the interpolated frame and the original point cloud, obtaining the relative rotation  $R_r$  and translation  $T_r$ . Then, we transform the point cloud to the position of the interpolated frame, resulting in a new point cloud  $\mathcal{P}_{\text{new}}$ .

(2) **Explicitly translate the point cloud and pose laterally**. We shift coordinates of y axis which is lateral direction for both points and poses. To simulate natural object motion or environmental noise as much as possible, We introduce random sine perturbations in the forward direction for both the point cloud and the pose, and apply uniform perturbations in the lateral directions. These perturbations help generate rich trajectory information.

### 3.3 Key Points Contrastive Learning

The motivation behind KP-CL is to enable the model to learn the correlation between different trajectories in the same scene. However, applying contrastive learning (CL) to large-scale point clouds



localization poses a challenge for GPU memory. The graph structure used in contrastive learning has far fewer nodes than point clouds. Unlike point cloud detection, where each frame contains many foreground objects of different categories that can easily form positive and negative sample pairs, point cloud localization does not have this advantage.

Therefore, we face two problems: (1) how to reduce the computational memory of CL, and (2) how to find positive and negative sample pairs. To address the first problem, we observed that the number of points is reduced to 1/8 of the original scene by the last layer of the encoder through convolution operations (see Figure.4). We refer to the points in the last layer as key points, whose deep features can effectively encode the scene and also serve as the input for KP-CL. Regarding the second problem, inspired by some related work[44] and considering that the features of the same scene on different trajectories are relatively similar, adding a small amount of noise for simulation is appropriate. Therefore, we construct positive and negative sample pairs by adding noise, without the need for multiple inferences through different data augmentations, which would cause an unbearable memory overhead.

Additionally, our KP-CL has a notable difference from the original CL. The original CL typically constructs a symmetric loss between augmented views. However, the original features are quite important in point cloud localization. Therefore, we compare the original features with the augmented views. Next, we present the process of KP-CL.

First, we augment the features  $x$  of the key points to obtain two views  $\tilde{x}^1, \tilde{x}^2$ , taking  $\tilde{x}^1$  as an example:

$$\tilde{x}^1 = x + \text{sign}(x) \cdot \frac{\varepsilon^1}{\|\varepsilon^1\|_2} \cdot 0.1 \quad (5)$$

$\varepsilon$  is random noise which  $\in [0,1]$ . Next, we project and normalize the features to obtain new features:  $z, \tilde{z}^1, \tilde{z}^2$  (feature:128 dimensions). Finally, we define the contrastive learning loss. Through our experiments, we found that considering the diagonal elements of the similarity matrix between  $z$  and  $\tilde{z}^1$  for positive samples, and considering both  $z$  with  $\tilde{z}^1$  and  $\tilde{z}^2$  for negative samples yields better results:

$$\mathcal{L}_{kp-cl} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left[ \frac{z_i^T \cdot \tilde{z}_i^1}{\tau} - \log \left( \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ i \neq j}}^N (e^{z_i^T \cdot \tilde{z}_j^1 / \tau} + e^{z_i^T \cdot \tilde{z}_j^2 / \tau}) \right) \right] \quad (6)$$

$\tau$  is the temperature parameter, and we set it as 0.15.

### 3.4 Ransac, Loss function and RFT

In the RANSAC section, we follow SGLoc[20] and utilize RANSAC to ultimately obtain the 6-DoF localization of the point cloud. The overall loss of PELoc is divided into two parts: localization loss and contrastive learning loss.

$$\mathcal{L}_{loc} = \frac{1}{P} \sum_{p_i \in P} \|p_i - p_i^*\|_1 \quad (7)$$

$p_i$  denotes predicted position and  $p_i^*$  is the ground world coordinate position. Based on our experiments, we set the coefficient of the contrastive learning loss to 2. The total loss is:

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{L}_{loc} + 2 \cdot \mathcal{L}_{kp-cl} \quad (8)$$

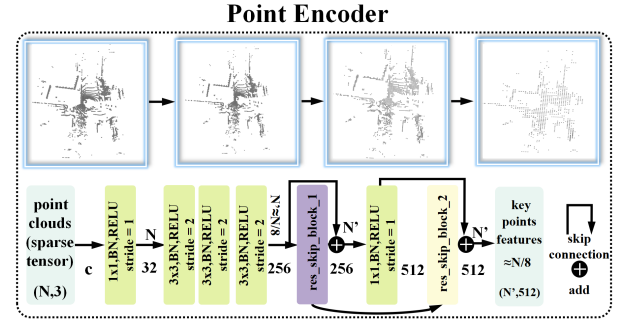


Figure 4: The structure of the PELoc encoder. We utilize the features of key points for KP-CL.

Additionally, we introduce a new training strategy called RFT (Remove 5% Random Consecutive Frames Training). RFT randomly discards 5% of consecutive frames in each training iteration. This approach aims to reduce the dependency on a single trajectory and enhance the diversity of the training trajectories.

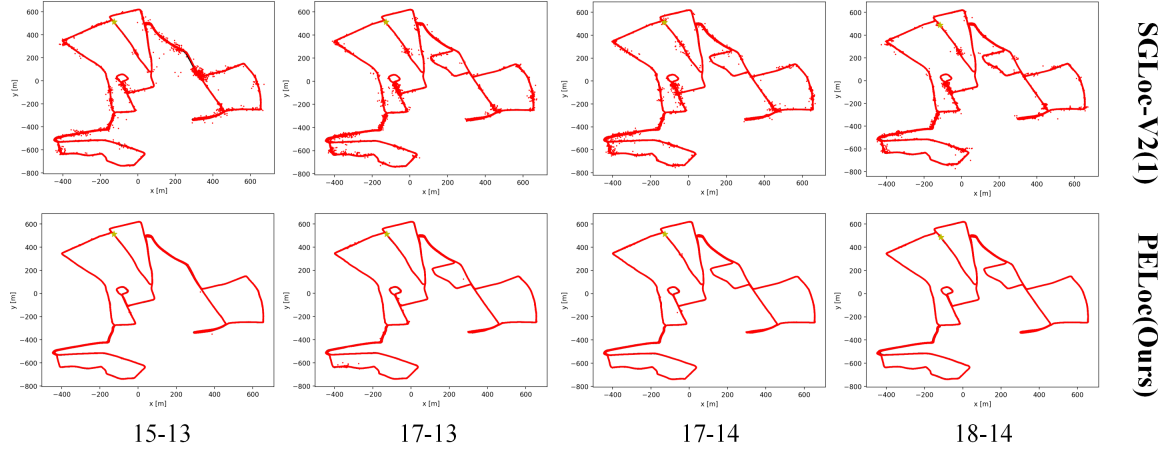
## 4 Experiments

### 4.1 Settings

**Benchmark datasets** We conducted extensive experiments on three large-scale datasets: Oxford Radar RobotCar, Quality-enhanced Oxford and NCLT.

**Oxford Radar RobotCar**(Oxford)[2] is a large-scale urban autonomous driving dataset collected over a year using a specially equipped vehicle. It contains multi-sensor recordings from a 3D LiDAR, stereo cameras, Radar and GPS/INS system, capturing a 10km route through central Oxford under diverse conditions, including sunlight, rain, snow, and night-time illumination. The repeated traversals of the same nominal route exhibit natural trajectory variations characteristic of real-world driving scenarios, while maintaining consistent route topology. **Quality-enhanced Oxford** (QEOxford)[20], introduced in the SGLoc framework, addresses GPS/INS measurement errors in the original Oxford dataset through Iterative Closest Point (ICP)-based pose refinement. Specifically, it aligns raw data with high-quality reference submaps using ICP. We include QEOxford as an enhanced evaluation benchmark in our experiments. **NCLT**[6] was collected by the University of Michigan using a Segway robotic platform, spanning 27 sessions over 15 months across indoor/outdoor campus environments. It provides multimodal sensor data (omnidirectional vision, 3D LiDAR, IMU, RTK GPS) and captures significant environmental dynamics, including seasonal weather shifts, dense summer foliage, and it contains no single trajectory that covers all test paths. By fusing RTK GPS with LiDAR point cloud alignment, it delivers millimeter-level pose ground truth, making it ideal for evaluating localization robustness under real-world variability.

**Setup and Training details** We chose SGLoc as our baseline and improved the encoder, as shown in the Figure 4. The residual block structure can enhance the accuracy of the algorithm, which we call SGLoc-V2. Our GPU is an NVIDIA RTX 4090. Apart from the



**Figure 5: Visualization results of PELoc and SGLoc-V2 (single-shot, our baseline) on the four test trajectories of the QEOxford dataset. Black represents the ground truth, and red represents the predicted values.**

**Table 1: Comparison of average position error and orientation error between PELoc (single-shot) and SoTA, which uses four trajectories to train on the Oxford/QEOxford datasets. SGLoc-V2 (single-shot) serves as the baseline for PELoc. <sup>†</sup> denotes using four trajectories to train. (1) denotes using one original trajectory to train.**

| Oxford dataset(m, <sup>o</sup> ) ↓                      |                           |                            |                           |                           |                            |                        |             |                                   |
|---------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|
| Methods                                                 | PoseSOE <sup>†</sup> [47] | PosePN++ <sup>†</sup> [48] | NIDALoc <sup>†</sup> [45] | DiffLoc <sup>†</sup> [19] | SGLoc-V2 <sup>†</sup> [20] | LiSA <sup>†</sup> [40] | SGLoc-V2(1) | PELoc(ours (1))<br>SGLoc-V2-based |
| 15-13-06-37                                             | 7.59/1.94                 | 9.59/1.92                  | 6.71/1.33                 | 3.57/0.88                 | 2.57/1.37                  | 2.36/1.29              | 10.29/5.06  | 2.78/1.40                         |
| 17-13-26-39                                             | 10.39/2.08                | 10.66/1.92                 | 5.45/1.40                 | 3.65/0.68                 | 3.71/1.47                  | 3.47/1.43              | 7.92/4.69   | 3.19/1.73                         |
| 17-14-03-00                                             | 9.21/2.12                 | 9.01/1.51                  | 6.68/1.26                 | 4.03/0.70                 | 2.99/1.42                  | 3.19/1.34              | 7.21/4.46   | 2.76/1.65                         |
| 18-14-14-42                                             | 7.27/1.87                 | 8.44/1.71                  | 4.80/1.18                 | 2.86/0.60                 | 1.88/1.21                  | 1.95/1.23              | 6.42/3.93   | 2.50/1.66                         |
| Average                                                 | 8.62/2.00                 | 9.43/1.77                  | 5.91/1.29                 | 3.53/0.72                 | 2.78/1.36                  | 2.74/1.32              | 7.96/4.54   | 2.81/1.61                         |
| Quality-enhanced(QE) Oxford dataset(m, <sup>o</sup> ) ↓ |                           |                            |                           |                           |                            |                        |             |                                   |
| 15-13-06-37                                             | 4.17/1.76                 | 4.54/1.83                  | 3.71/1.50                 | 2.03/1.04                 | 1.06/1.05                  | 0.94/1.10              | 8.20/4.61   | 1.06/1.56                         |
| 17-13-26-39                                             | 6.16/1.81                 | 6.44/1.78                  | 5.40/1.40                 | 1.78/0.79                 | 1.38/1.17                  | 1.17/1.21              | 6.72/6.65   | 1.22/1.62                         |
| 17-14-03-00                                             | 5.42/1.87                 | 4.89/1.55                  | 3.94/1.30                 | 2.05/0.83                 | 0.76/1.14                  | 0.84/1.15              | 7.20/4.44   | 1.02/1.63                         |
| 18-14-14-42                                             | 4.16/1.70                 | 4.64/1.61                  | 4.08/1.30                 | 1.56/0.83                 | 0.72/1.06                  | 0.85/1.11              | 6.49/4.06   | 1.06/1.68                         |
| Average                                                 | 4.98/1.79                 | 5.13/1.69                  | 4.28/1.38                 | 1.86/0.87                 | 0.98/1.11                  | 0.95/1.14              | 7.15/4.94   | 1.09/1.62                         |

**Table 2: Comparison of average position error and orientation error between PELoc (single-shot) and SoTA, which use four trajectories to train on the NCLT datasets. SGLoc-V2 (single-shot) serves as the baseline for PELoc. <sup>†</sup> denotes using four trajectories to train. (1) denotes using one original trajectory to train.**

| NCLT dataset(m, <sup>o</sup> ) ↓ |                           |                            |                           |                           |                            |                        |             |                                   |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------|-------------|-----------------------------------|
| Methods                          | PoseSOE <sup>†</sup> [47] | PosePN++ <sup>†</sup> [48] | NIDALoc <sup>†</sup> [45] | DiffLoc <sup>†</sup> [19] | SGLoc-V2 <sup>†</sup> [20] | LiSA <sup>†</sup> [40] | SGLoc-V2(1) | PELoc(ours (1))<br>SGLoc-V2-based |
| 2012-02-12                       | 13.09/8.05                | 4.97/3.75                  | 4.48/3.59                 | 0.99/2.40                 | 0.76/2.70                  | 0.97/2.23              | 8.79/10.32  | 0.89/3.49                         |
| 2012-02-19                       | 6.16/4.51                 | 3.68/2.65                  | 3.14/2.52                 | 0.92/2.14                 | 0.71/2.49                  | 0.91/2.09              | 37.12/17.48 | 1.22/3.73                         |
| 2012-03-31                       | 5.24/4.56                 | 4.35/3.38                  | 3.67/3.46                 | 0.98/2.27                 | 0.68/2.66                  | 0.87/2.21              | 7.92/4.69   | 0.96/3.63                         |
| Average                          | 8.16/5.71                 | 4.33/3.26                  | 3.76/3.19                 | 0.96/2.27                 | 0.71/2.61                  | 0.92/2.18              | 17.94/10.83 | 1.02/3.61                         |

network design, there are several notable differences between PELoc and SGLoc-V2. (1) SGLoc-V2 trained with four trajectories on both Oxford/QEOxford and NCLT datasets, whereas PELoc utilized only one. After careful consideration, we selected two relatively complete trajectories: 2019-01-11-14-02-26 for Oxford/QEOxford

and 2012-02-18 for NCLT. (2) Given the abundance of samples four-trajectory training, data augmentation was not employed in SGLoc. However, for single-shot localization, data augmentation is crucial, prompting us to introduce SSDA.

**Single-shot Data Augmentation:** SSDA not only accounts for vehicle translation and angular offset but also considers the scenario where the vehicle travels in the opposite direction on a certain pass. The translation augmentation settings are as follows: the probability of translation along the xyz axes is 0.5 each, with translation ranges of  $[-3,3]$  m for the x and y axes and  $[-1,1]$  m for the z axis. The rotation augmentation settings are: the probability of rotation for roll, pitch, and yaw angles is 0.5 each, with rotation ranges of  $[-\pi/4, +\pi/4]$  for roll and pitch angles and  $[-\pi/2, +\pi/2]$  for the yaw angle. The reverse settings are: the probability of reversing is 0.5, with simultaneous flipping of the xy axes.

## 4.2 Comparison With State-of-the-Arts: Methods Using Four Trajectories

As far as we are aware, this is the first work on single-shot localization. In this section, we will primarily compare with the state-of-the-art methods that use four trajectories for localization. In subsequent sections, we will specifically compare with potential single-shot solutions. The algorithms we compare include the classics PoseSOE, PosePN++, PoseMinkLoc, and the latest state-of-the-art methods: FlashMix, SGLoc-V2, LiSA, and SGLoc-V2 (single-shot, our baseline). We will report the mean position and orientation errors.

**Localization on the QEOxford/Oxford dataset:** PELoc achieves an average position error of 2.81m and an orientation error of  $1.61^\circ$  on the four test trajectories of the Oxford dataset, reducing the errors of our single-shot baseline (7.96m,  $4.54^\circ$ ) by 5.15m and  $2.93^\circ$  respectively. Due to the more inconsistencies among the trajectories in Oxford, our PELoc is able to almost match the performance of SGLoc-V2 (using four trajectories for training), with an average localization error lagging by only 3 centimeters. It is worth mentioning that PELoc achieved SoTA position error performance on the 17-13 and 17-14 trajectories. On the QEOxford dataset, thanks to the improved INS pose errors, PELoc attains better accuracy, with an average position error of 1.06m and an orientation error of  $1.62^\circ$ , a significant reduction from the single-shot baseline errors of 6.09m and  $3.32^\circ$ . The average position/orientation error lags behind that of SGLoc-V2 (using four trajectories for training) by 0.14m/0.51 degrees, which we consider to be an acceptable range. Additionally, we outperformed it on the 17-13 trajectory. The visualization Figure. 5 shows that PELoc exhibits minimal large jumps, indicating that it has learned robust environmental features from the limited one pass and can effectively handle challenges such as viewpoint changes and trajectory reversals.

**Localization on the NCLT dataset:** The NCLT dataset is more challenging for single-shot localization for longer temporal and spatial variations. The average error for single-shot localization (baseline) reaches 17.36 m and  $12.17^\circ$ . SGLoc-V2, which uses four trajectories for training, achieves state-of-the-art performance. PELoc also performs remarkably well, with an average error of 1.02 meters and 3.61 degrees. It achieves sub-meter position accuracy on the 02-12 and 03-31 trajectories. On the 02-19 trajectory, it reduces the baseline error by 33.16 m and  $13.75^\circ$ . However, PELoc fails to handle the 05-26 trajectory, we do not provide a comparison of accuracy. We will discuss this further in the discussion section. The visualization is presented in Figure.6.

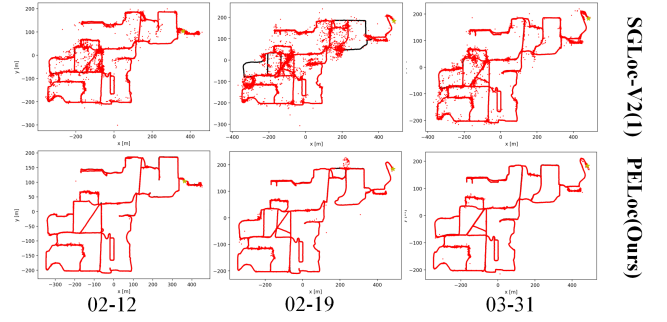


Figure 6: Visualization results of PELoc and SGLoc-V2 of the NCLT dataset.

## 4.3 Stability of Re-localization

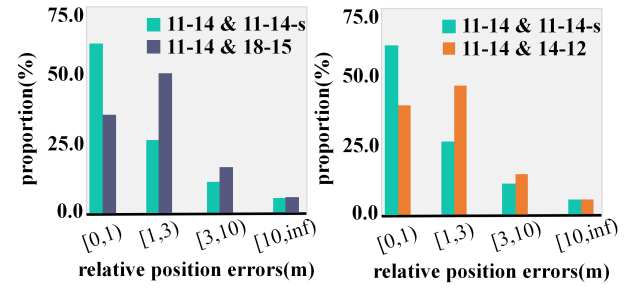


Figure 7: It shows the relative localization errors of the three trajectories in the same scene. The 11-14-s simulated point cloud corresponds to the 11-14 trajectory, while the 18-15, 14-12 trajectory was collected on a different day.

PELoc's LTI exhibits a significant distinction from the original multi-trajectory training: the generated point cloud trajectories are coupled, whereas the other trajectories (e.g. 11-14 and 11-18) are affected by GPS/INS errors more or less. This coupling enhances the stability in re-localization. Taking the left picture as an example, we trained three models using the 11-14 trajectory from Oxford, and its simulated trajectory 11-14-s, as well as another trajectory, 18-15, for individual training. The three models were then tested on the 15-13 trajectory. By comparing the per-frame position errors of different models, we obtained the relative localization accuracy differences for the same scene. The Figure.7 illustrates that the relative position error between 11-14 and 11-14-s is primarily concentrated within 0-1 meters, whereas the relative position error between 11-14 and 18-15 is mainly distributed between 1-3 meters, indicating that the re-localization accuracy between the LTI trajectory and the original trajectory is higher. This approach eliminates additional GPS/INS errors between training trajectories. We believe this is beneficial for localization.

## 4.4 Comparison with Other Single-shot Localization Solutions

In the comparison with other single-shot localization solutions, we selected DTG and EF. The experimental results are shown in the

**Table 3: Comparison with Other Single-shot Localization Method.** DTG: Denser Trajectory Generation, EF: Equivariant Features.  $^\dagger$  means use the same SSDA.

| single-shot Localization Solutions |                              |                 |
|------------------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------|
| Methods                            | PE/OE (15-13) (m/ $^\circ$ ) | Training Epochs |
| baseline                           | 8.20/4.61                    | 50              |
| DTG[25] $^\dagger$                 | 2.89/2.57                    | 50              |
| EF[15]                             | 2.69/1.94                    | 100             |
| Ours $^\dagger$                    | 1.06/1.56                    | 50              |

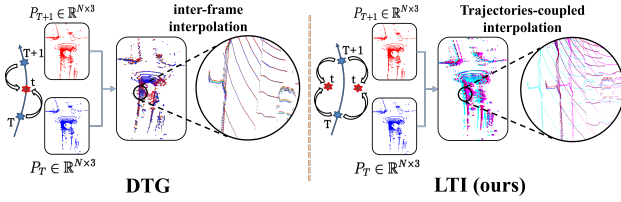
**Figure 8: Comparison of point cloud generation between DTG (left) and LTI (right) methods. Both approaches utilize point clouds from frames  $T$  (blue) and  $T + 1$  (red) to synthesize the intermediate frame  $t$  (other colors).**

Table 3. DTG, inspired by point cloud interpolation works such as PointNet[25], aims to increase the density of trajectories (in the forward and backward directions, not lateral, see Figure.8). However, since PointNet and NeuralPCI[54] take nearly 1 minute to generate a single frame of point cloud, the time consumption is excessive. We used the method in LTI to simulate forward-moving point clouds, but the results were not as good as ours. The main reason is that the original point cloud trajectory is already dense, and the forward and backward interpolation methods cannot introduce a richer set of poses. The EF method, inspired by work[15], maps the point cloud to a canonical space and learns the equivariant rotation of the point cloud. Compared to the baseline, the effect is significant. However, it still falls short of our method. First, the LiDAR on Oxford dataset is mounted on the left side, which affects the learning of the reverse point cloud angles. Second, it requires more training epochs to fit both the original network and the equivariant network.

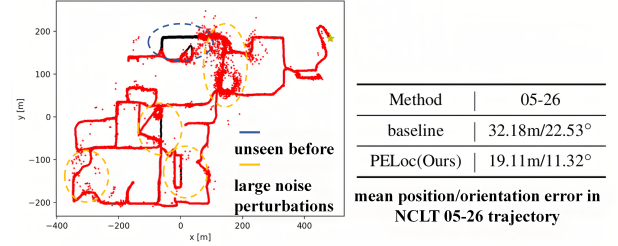
#### 4.5 Ablation Study

The ablation is shown in Table 4. Ablation on SSDA: SSDA significantly boosts performance by effectively simulating trajectory rotations and translations, reducing the baseline error by 4.06m in position and 0.87 degrees in orientation. Ablation on LTI: The combination of LTI and SSDA serves as an antidote for single-shot localization. LTI's diversity in pose and point cloud further reduces errors by 2.49m in position and 1.85 degrees in orientation. Ablation on KP-CL: KP-CL enhances the model's ability to distinguish between similar scenes, lowering the baseline error by 2.51m in position and 1.65 degrees in orientation in standalone experiments. In the final combination, it reduces errors by an additional 0.45m in position and 0.33 degrees in orientation, effectively minimizing

**Table 4: Performance Breakdown of PELoc on the QEOxford 15-13 Trajectory: KP-CL (Key Points Contrastive Learning), SSDA (Single-shot Data Augmentation), RFT (Remove of 5% random Consecutive Frames for Training), LTI (LiDAR Trajectories-coupled Interpolation).**

| KP-CL | SSDA | RFT | LTI | 15-13 (m/ $^\circ$ ) |
|-------|------|-----|-----|----------------------|
|       |      |     |     | 8.20/4.61            |
| ✓     |      |     |     | 5.69/2.96            |
|       | ✓    |     |     | 4.14/3.74            |
|       | ✓    | ✓   |     | 4.00/3.77            |
|       | ✓    | ✓   | ✓   | 1.51/1.89            |
| ✓     | ✓    | ✓   | ✓   | 1.06/1.56            |

localization noise. Ablation on RFT: RFT contributes to localization accuracy. As shown in Table 4, RFT reduces errors by 0.14m, this training strategy further enhances the diversity of trajectories.

**Figure 9: Qualitative and quantitative analysis of the NCLT 05-26 trajectory**

#### 4.6 Discussion

**Why LTI is effective:** There are two main reasons for its effectiveness: (1) Though the trajectories generated by LTI aren't "real," the lateral interpolation operations in LTI lead the model to perceive that the car is on different trajectories. Thus, we posit that the coordinate offsets in the point cloud scenes can, to some extent, serve as a proxy for real point clouds. (2) The lateral interpolation and perturbation operations in LTI increase the diversity of poses and scenes.

**Limitations of PELoc:** PELoc is unable to handle the 05-26 trajectory in the NCLT dataset for two main reasons, as you can see in Figure .9: (1) The vegetation and trees are much denser on 05-26, resulting in significant differences in point cloud features compared to 02-18. (2) There are large sections of new trajectories on 05-26 that PELoc cannot process since it has not seen them before.

#### 5 Conclusion

In this work, we present PELoc, a method for long-term LiDAR regression-based localization using a single trajectory, enabling near sub-meter localization accuracy on the QEOxford and NCLT datasets. Looking ahead, we commit to researching more long-term and robust one-pass localization algorithms.



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