MGF-Localization: State Estimation and Propagation using Moment Generating Functions

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Abstract— The *de facto* method for nonlinear state estimation has long been the Extended Kalman Filter. However, one significant drawback of the method is that the underlying state distribution is represented using a Gaussian distribution. Such unimodal distributions fail to estimate the underlying state when there are symmetries in the map geometry. In this paper, we introduce state localization using a moment generating function to represent the underlying state. Such a state representation does not require the assumption of any specific underlying distribution function. As long as the distribution function is continuous over state space, the state evolves when new motion and sensor information is obtained.

I. INTRODUCTION

Accurate state estimation is a fundamental task in robotics and autonomous systems, particularly for localization. The Extended Kalman Filter (EKF) has long been the standard approach to nonlinear state estimation due to its simplicity and computational efficiency. EKF represents the uncertainty of the state using a single Gaussian distribution, maintaining only one peak in its belief. However, this single-peak assumption limits the EKF's performance in environments with symmetric or ambiguous map structures, where multiple robot poses may equally well explain the sensor measurements.

The particle filter algorithm, however, represents the belief distribution with a set of weighted samples (particles). Particle filters naturally handle multiple possible positions simultaneously and avoid converging too quickly to a single position until more sensor information resolves ambiguity. Despite their advantages, particle filters are computationally intensive, particularly in higher-dimensional state spaces, and can suffer from particle depletion, where important hypotheses are lost due to insufficient particle coverage.

In this work, we propose MGF-Localization, a new approach to state estimation using Moment Generating Functions (MGFs). Unlike EKF, our approach does not assume any specific probability distribution form. By tracking a set of moments (such as means and variances), MGF-Localization can represent multiple possible robot positions without relying on particles. This approach provides a balance between accurately representing uncertainty and maintaining reasonable computational efficiency.

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This project presents the mathematical foundation of MGF-based localization, derives moment update rules for both scalar and vector states, and outlines an implementable algorithm. The MGF framework opens new possibilities for robust localization under complex, non-Gaussian scenarios.

II. RELATED WORK

Nonlinear state estimation is central to robot localization. The Extended Kalman Filter (EKF) [7] has long been the *de facto* standard due to its efficiency, but its assumption of a unimodal Gaussian belief limits its performance in environments with perceptual aliasing or geometric symmetries.

To address this, the Unscented Kalman Filter (UKF) [8] improves nonlinear handling but retains the unimodal constraint. Particle filters [4, 5] allow multi-modal belief representations and are widely used in Monte Carlo Localization (MCL), though they can be computationally expensive and degrade in high-dimensional spaces.

Several approaches seek richer belief representations for localization. Gaussian Mixture Models (GMMs) [12] and nonparametric belief propagation [11] allow for multi-modality, but often require additional mechanisms for component selection or pruning. Other techniques leverage kernel methods [13] or Fourier and Hilbert-space embeddings [10] to implicitly model distributions, offering strong theoretical guarantees but often requiring careful tuning and substantial computation.

More recently, non-Gaussian belief representations have been proposed to better capture the complexities of robot localization. For instance, normalizing flows have been employed to learn expressive belief distributions [3], and neural implicit representations have been used to encode spatial uncertainty [9]. However, such methods typically rely on learned components and may require extensive training data and offline computation.

In contrast, our method models the state using a moment generating function (MGF), which offers a compact and expressive continuous representation of the belief without assuming a specific distributional form. By propagating moments through time and incorporating measurement updates directly in the MGF space, our approach naturally accommodates symmetric and multi-modal posteriors, making it especially well-suited for ambiguous state estimation tasks. To our knowledge, this is the first application of MGFs for probabilistic state localization in robotics.

III. MATHEMATICAL THEORY

A. Moment Generating Functions

Let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be the random variable denoting the state estimate. We define the following objects:

Definition. The moment generating function (MGF) of a continuous real-valued random variable $\mathbf{X}$ is

$$M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{X}}] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{x}} f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

where $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$ is the probability density function of $\mathbf{X}$. The MGF is defined everywhere where the expectation is finite.

$\mathbf{s}$ is defined as an auxiliary variable and has the same dimensionality as $\mathbf{X}$.

Definition. The n'th order moment of a continuous real-valued random variable $\mathbf{X}$ is

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^n] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \mathbf{x}^n f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x}$$

where $f_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$ is the probability density function of $\mathbf{X}$ and is defined everywhere where the expectation is finite.

Despite the different mathematical objects, the underlying information represented by the different manifestations are the same – they all represent the random variable $\mathbf{X}$. Heuristically, the following information are equivalent and unique:

$$\{PDF \ of \ X\} = \{MGF \ of \ X\} = \{All \ Moments \ of \ X\}$$

Their uniqueness is guaranteed by the uniqueness theorem [6]:

Theorem. *(Uniqueness theorem of MGFs)*
The distribution of $\mathbf{X}$ is determined uniquely by the function $M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s})$. That is, if $\mathbf{Y}$ is any random vector whose MGF is the same as $M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s})$, then $\mathbf{Y}$ has the same distribution as $\mathbf{X}$.

A very useful property of MGFs is that the function is a generator for the moments of $\mathbf{X}$. In other words, the derivatives of $M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s})$ evaluated at $\mathbf{s} = 0$ gives the higher-order moments of $\mathbf{X}$. For an univariate continuous state variable $\mathbf{X}$, the following is true:

Lemma. *(Evaluation property of univariate MGFs)*
Let $M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\mathbf{s}\mathbf{X}}]$ be the MGF of a continuous random variable $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}$. If $M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s})$ is finite in an epsilon-neighborhood about $\mathbf{s} = 0$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}^k] = M_{\mathbf{X}}^{(k)}\Big|_{\mathbf{s}=0} \tag{1}$$

For multivariate continuous state variables, the result is similar:

Theorem. *(Evaluation property of multivariate MGFs)*
Let $M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s}) = \mathbb{E}[e^{\mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{X}}]$ be the MGF of a continuous random variable $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If $M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s})$ is finite in an epsilon-neighborhood about $\mathbf{s} = 0$, then

$$\mathbb{E}[X_1^{\alpha_1} X_2^{\alpha_2} \cdots X_n^{\alpha_n}] = \frac{\partial^{(\alpha_1 + \cdots + \alpha_n)}}{\partial s_1^{\alpha_1} \cdots \partial s_n^{\alpha_n}} M_{\mathbf{X}}\Big|_{\mathbf{s}=0} \tag{2}$$

where X_i is the i'th index of the vector $\mathbf{X}$ and s_i is the i'th index of the vector $\mathbf{s}$.

If the function is analytic (i.e. permits a Taylor expansion), then we obtain the following useful property:

Theorem. If there exists an epsilon-neighborhood about $\mathbf{s} = 0$ for which the MGF is finite, then every moment of $\mathbf{X}$ is finite.

This is useful since we no longer have to worry about checking if higher moments of $\mathbf{X}$ diverge. We only need to show that the MGF is finite in an epsilon-neighborhood about $\mathbf{s} = 0$. This is almost always the case for sufficiently "well-behaved" functions used in probability theory.

Propagating the MGF has some unique advantages over using the PDF. It allows us to use an arbitrary continuous function to represent the state instead of assuming the Gaussian distribution. This can be done by noting the linearity properties of MGFs:

Theorem. *(Linearity for constant vector)*
If $\mathbf{Y} = A\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{b}$, where A and $\mathbf{b}$ are constants, then

$$M_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{s}) = e^{\mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{b}} M_{\mathbf{X}}(A\mathbf{s})$$

Theorem. *(Linearity for independent vectors)*
If $\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{Y}$ are independent random variables, then

$$M_{\mathbf{X}+\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{s}) = M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s}) M_{\mathbf{Y}}(\mathbf{s})$$

Both theorems can easily be proven using the definition of MGFs.

B. Model Assumptions

We assume the model can be decomposed into three separate steps: motion step, sensor step, and finally fusion step. We discuss each in turn:

1) Motion Model: We assume a linear motion model of the form

$$\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t = A\mathbf{X}_{t-1} + B\mathbf{u}_{t-1} \tag{3}$$

where $\mathbf{u}_t$ is the stochastic control input random variable centered around the true control input. We do not require the random variables $\mathbf{X}$ and $\mathbf{u}$ to be of any specified distribution form. The only requirement is that the distribution is continuous and analytic over state space.

2) Sensor Model: The state estimation using the sensor measurement ($\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}$) permits any arbitrary continuous probability density function. The only restrictions are that $\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}$ is continuous & analytic over state space and that the domain of the distribution is the same as the state estimate $\mathbf{X}$. For example, if the sensor used is a laser rangefinder, we need to apply the following transform to the sensor readings

$$\{r, \beta\} \rightarrow \{x, y, \theta\}$$

so that the range and bearing is converted into coordinates plus orientation.

3) Fusion Model: After separate state estimates are obtained from the motion and sensor models, we combine them linearly:

$$\mathbf{X}_t = \alpha \mathbf{Z}_{t-1} + (1-\alpha)\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t \tag{4}$$

where $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{[0,1]}$ is a hyper-parameter that can be tuned. A possible method could be based on the Akaike information criterion [2]. We also assume that $\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}$ is independent of $\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t$. This allows us to apply the linearity properties of MGFs.

C. Derivation in MGF Space

We now derive the state estimate propagation in MGF space. Using the motion model (Equation 3) and fusion model (Equation 4), we apply the MGF transformation to both sides to obtain:

$$
\begin{aligned}
M_{\mathbf{X}_t}(\mathbf{s}) &= M_{\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}}(\alpha \mathbf{s}) M_{\tilde{\mathbf{X}}_t}((1-\alpha)A\mathbf{s}) \\
&= \underbrace{M_{\mathbf{u}_{t-1}}((1-\alpha)B\mathbf{s})}_{f} \underbrace{M_{\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}}(\alpha \mathbf{s})}_{g} \underbrace{M_{\mathbf{X}_{t-1}}((1-\alpha)A\mathbf{s})}_{h}
\end{aligned}
\tag{5}
$$

Note that the posterior state representation of $\mathbf{X}_t$ in MGF space is a simple product of three MGFs corresponding to the control distribution (f), sensor measurement distribution (g), and prior state distribution (h).

D. Transformation to Moment Space (Scalar $\mathbf{X}$)

Using the evaluation property of MGFs, the abstract MGF functions can be transformed into moment space. This allows the state propagation to become more tractable in the form of a look-up table of the moments of $\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}$, $\mathbf{u}_{t-1}$, and $\mathbf{X}_{t-1}$. For an univariate (scalar) state estimate $\mathbf{X}$, we can apply the n'th derivative to both sides of Equation 5 and invoking Lemma 1 to obtain the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_t^n] &= M_{\mathbf{X}_t}^{(n)}\Big|_{\mathbf{s}=0} \\
&= \frac{\partial^n}{\partial s^n}[f(s)g(s)h(s)]\Big|_{s=0} \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^{n}\sum_{j=0}^{n-i} \frac{n!}{i!j!(n-i-j)!}[f^{(i)}(s)g^{(i)}(s)h^{(i)}(s)]\Big|_{s=0} \\
&= \sum_{i=0}^{n}\sum_{j=0}^{n-i} \frac{n!}{i!j!(n-i-j)!} \times [(1-\alpha)B]^i \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}_{t-1}^i] \\
&\quad \times \alpha^j \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}^j] \times [(1-\alpha)A]^{n-i-j}\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_{t-1}^{n-i-j}]
\end{aligned}
\tag{6}
$$

Example. *(Recovering the mean)*
Let $n=1$, we recover

$$\mathbb{E}[X_t] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[Z_{t-1}] + (1-\alpha)(A\mathbb{E}[X_{t-1}] + B\mathbb{E}[u_{t-1}])$$

Example. *(Recovering the variance)*
Let $n=2$, we recover (for deterministic u_{t-1})

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[X_t^2] &= \alpha^2(\mathbb{E}[Z_{t-1}^2] - \mathbb{E}[Z_{t-1}]^2) \\
&\quad + (1-\alpha)^2 A^2(\mathbb{E}[X_{t-1}^2] - \mathbb{E}[X_{t-1}]^2) \\
&\quad + [\alpha\mathbb{E}[Z_{t-1}] + (1-\alpha)(A\mathbb{E}[X_{t-1}] + Bu_{t-1})]^2 \\
&= var[X_t] + \mathbb{E}[X_t]^2
\end{aligned}
$$

which is precisely the equations for the 1st and 2nd moments of a linear combination of random variables.

E. Transformation to Moment Space (Vector $\mathbf{X}$)

The derivation is valid for a multivariate state estimate $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^d$. However, the dimensionality of the higher moments scales as a power of the moment. For the n'th moment of $\mathbf{X}$, the dimensionality of the moment tensor is $\mathbb{R}^{d^n}$.

Applying the n'th derivative tensor to both sides of Equation 5 and invoking Theorem 2, we obtain the following:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_t^{\otimes n}] &= D^n(M_{\mathbf{X}_t})\Big|_{\mathbf{s}=0} \\
&= D^n(f(\mathbf{s})g(\mathbf{s})h(\mathbf{s}))\Big|_{\mathbf{s}=0} \\
&= \sum_{(i_1,\ldots,i_n)\in\{f,g,h\}^n} (A_{i_1}\otimes\cdots\otimes A_{i_n}) \underbrace{\mathbb{E}[V_{i_1}\otimes\cdots\otimes V_{i_n}]}_{\text{factorizes if independent}}
\end{aligned}
\tag{7}
$$

where we define

$$
\begin{aligned}
\{A_f, V_f\} &= \{(1-\alpha)B, \mathbf{u}_{t-1}\} \\
\{A_g, V_g\} &= \{\alpha, \mathbf{Z}_{t-1}\} \\
\{A_h, V_h\} &= \{(1-\alpha)A, \mathbf{X}_{t-1}\}
\end{aligned}
$$

with D^n being the n'th derivative tensor, $\otimes$ being the tensor (outer) product, and $(i_1,\ldots,i_n) \in \{f,g,h\}^n$ indicating the order n permutation group on $\{f,g,h\}$.

For the expectation term, the tensor product can be separated for independent variables. For example, if the permutation group is (f,f,f,g,h), then the expectation is separated into

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}_{t-1}^{\otimes 3}] \otimes \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}] \otimes \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_{t-1}]$$

which corresponds to a tensor product between the third moment (unstandardized skewness) of $\mathbf{u}_{t-1}$ and the first moments (mean) of $\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}$ and $\mathbf{X}_{t-1}$.

Example. *(Recovering the mean)*
Let $n=1$, we recover

$$\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_t] = \alpha \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}] + (1-\alpha)(A\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_{t-1}] + B\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}_{t-1}])$$

which is precisely the equation for the 1st moment (mean) of a linear combination of random variables.

Example. *(Recovering the variance)*
Let $n=2$ and work through the summation. There should be 9 terms in total. The exercise is quite trivial and left as an exercise for the reader.

Characterizing the state propagation using Equation 7 allows us to use look-up tables of moments of $\mathbf{Z}_{t-1}$, $\mathbf{u}_{t-1}$, and $\mathbf{X}_{t-1}$ to calculate the posterior state $\mathbf{X}_t$. This eliminates the need to calculate matrix inverses as is required by the Kalman filter.

Additionally, we are no longer restricted on only using Gaussian distributions as the state variables. As long as the states are continuous and analytic, the state propagation obtained from Equation 7 is valid.

Finally, note that from Lemma 1 and Theorem 2, the Taylor expansion of the MGF $M_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{s})$ about $\mathbf{s} = 0$ recovers the expectations of $\mathbf{X}$. So for analytic MGFs that have a convergent Taylor series, we can approximate the actual MGF of $\mathbf{X}$ using only finitely many moments of $\mathbf{X}$ to any arbitrary precision. The precision estimate is bounded by Taylor's Remainder Theorem [1].

IV. ALGORITHM

The pseudo-code for the MGF-Localization algorithm is shown in Algorithm 1:

Algorithm 1 MGF-Localization

Require: $N \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ ▷ Maximum order of moments
Require: $T \in \mathbb{N}_{>0}$ ▷ Termination timestep
Require: $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}_{[0,1]}$ ▷ Fusion hyper-parameter
Require: $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ ▷ Motion model matrix
  $t = 1$
  $\mathcal{X} = \{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_0], \cdots, \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_0^{\otimes N}]\}$ ▷ Initial state moments
  $\psi = \{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Z}_0], \cdots, \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Z}_0^{\otimes N}]\}$ ▷ Initial sensor moments
  $\Omega = \{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}_0], \cdots, \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}_0^{\otimes N}]\}$ ▷ Initial control moments
  while $t \leq T$ **do**
    $n = 1$
    $\mathcal{X}_t = \emptyset$
    while $n \leq N$ **do**
      $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_t^{\otimes n}] = \sum (A_{i_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes A_{i_n}) \mathbb{E}[V_{i_1} \otimes \cdots \otimes V_{i_n}]$
      summation over $(i_1, \ldots, i_n) \in \{f, g, h\}^n$,
      with $\{A_f, V_f\} = \{(1-\alpha)B, \mathbf{u}_{t-1}\}$,
      and $\{A_g, V_g\} = \{\alpha, \mathbf{Z}_{t-1}\}$,
      and $\{A_h, V_h\} = \{(1-\alpha)A, \mathbf{X}_{t-1}\}$
      $\mathcal{X}_t \leftarrow \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}_t^{\otimes n}]$
    end while
    $\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_t$
    $\psi = \{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Z}_t], \cdots, \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{Z}_t^{\otimes N}]\}$ ▷ New sensor readings
    $\Omega = \{\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}_t], \cdots, \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{u}_t^{\otimes N}]\}$ ▷ New control commands
    $t = t + 1$
  end while

The GitHub repository for our implementation is available here:

https: //github.com/CMU-SLAM25/MGF-Localization

V. IMPLEMENTATION

A. 1D Localization through Moment Generating Functions

We implemented the 1D case using the MGF localization Algorithm 1. The implementation used the symbolic representation of the MGF and was done using functional programming so that operators can be imposed on explicit functions. Obstacles were placed at five, ten, and fifteen meters. The robot moves at one meter per second for twenty meters and has a sensor range of eight meters only looking forward.

B. 2D Localization through Moment Generating Functions

We tested 2D MGF localization on a 2D corridor with multiple obstacles with 6 sensor measurements per timestep. The robot had a sensor range of 10 meters. The environment was designed to have four symmetrical corridors that the robot enters from the East corridor and then it goes through the South corridor into a room.

C. 1D Localization through Expected Value Updates of Moments

We implemented the 1D localization using explicit expected value updates derived from MGF formulations. In this scenario, the robot moves forward one meter per second along a straight path, with obstacle landmarks placed at fixed positions. At each timestep, the robot performs a control step followed by a sensor measurement, observing distances relative to the landmarks with additive Gaussian noise. Through successive iterations, our method integrates these measurements and control actions to estimate the robot's global position accurately. Note that we only calculate the first and the second moment of the MGF. That is, we set $N = 2$.

VI. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS

A. 1D Localization through Moment Generating Functions

The dataset used in this simulation is synthetically generated and represents the robot's true position over 20 time steps as it moves steadily to the right, advancing one unit per step. Three fixed obstacles are positioned at locations 5, 10, and 15. At each time step, the robot receives simulated sensor measurements: if obstacles are within a specified range (8 units ahead), the measurements are modeled as a mixture of Gaussians centered around those obstacle positions; otherwise, the measurements are modeled as a Gaussian centered at the robot's true location. This dynamic sensor data drives the MGF-based localization updates.

1D localization with MGF's has been shown to be successful, based on our results from Figure 1. The figure shows that the initial estimation of the robot's location starts with high standard deviations, but as more measurements are taken along the robot path, the standard deviation drops drastically and our localized pose matches the true pose.
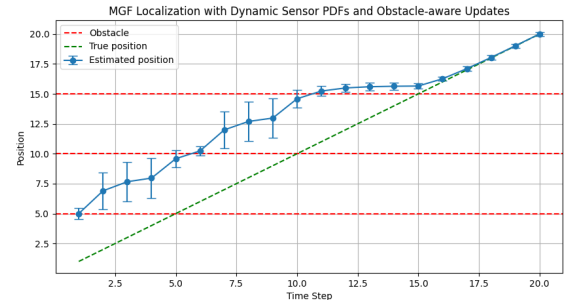

Fig. 1. 1D Localization through Moment Generating Functions

B. 2D Localization through Moment Generating Functions

The dataset for this simulation is synthetically generated and represents a robot navigating a structured environment composed of an east corridor, a south corridor, and a room. Landmarks are placed along the walls, sampled at regular intervals to create discrete points. The robot's true path is defined by a sequence of straight-line motions and turns, with slight random noise added to simulate motion uncertainty. At each time step, six noisy sensor readings estimate the robot's distance and angle to nearby landmarks, providing the observations that drive the MGF-based SLAM localization process.

2D Localization with MGF's ran into computational limitations. Due to the symbolic integration being done in Python and the large number of measurements, symbolic terms continued to grow until maxing out the simulation computer's memory. This is a limitation to of the current MGF implementation, which would need to be corrected for real world deployment.

C. 1D Localization through Expected Value Updates of Moments

For the dataset in our experiment, we manually construct data where obstacles are placed at position 5, 10, and 15, and the robot starts with position 0. In each timestep, the robot move forward by 1 unit control input.

As seen in Figure 2, our experiments demonstrated the effectiveness of using expected value updates of moments for 1D localization. Initially, the estimated position had a larger variance due to uncertainty from limited observations. As the robot proceeded and collected more measurements, the variance steadily decreased, resulting in highly accurate localization. The estimated trajectory closely matched the true positions over time, confirming the robustness and accuracy of our method under realistic conditions involving sensor noise and obstacle-aware updates. In conclusion, this method is able to model simple distribution. However, for the 2D or more dimension cases, real-time updates become more challenging since the terms that needs to be calculated are much more to model complex distributions.
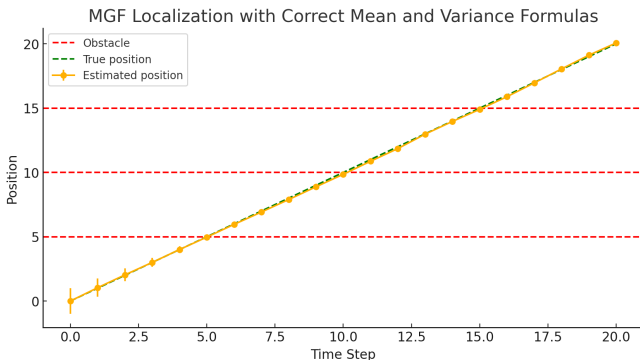

Fig. 2. 1D Localization through Expected Value Updates

VII. CONCLUSION & FUTURE WORK

Our work demonstrates that Moment Generating Functions offer a promising alternative to traditional Gaussian-based approaches for state estimation, particularly in scenarios with geometric symmetries or multi-modal uncertainty. The results from 1D experiments validate the method's accuracy and robustness, while also revealing its potential for further development.

However, the current symbolic computation implementation limits scalability to higher-dimensional spaces like 2D or 3D localization.

In future research, we can focus on:

1) Replacing symbolic integration with numerical or approximate techniques to reduce memory consumption.
2) Investigating stronger, more realistic motion models beyond the standard Gaussian assumption. Since the MGF representation does not require a fixed distribution form, it can naturally incorporate non-Gaussian uncertainties (e.g., heavy-tailed or multimodal noise), which often arise in real-world robot motion.
3) Benchmarking against standard SLAM algorithms in both simulated and physical environments to evaluate the scalability, accuracy, and robustness of the MGF-based approach.

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