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# CacheFlow: Fast Human Motion Prediction by Cached Normalizing Flow

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## Abstract

1 Many density estimation techniques for 3D human motion prediction require a  
2 significant amount of inference time, often exceeding the duration of the predicted  
3 time horizon. To address the need for faster density estimation for 3D human  
4 motion prediction, we introduce a novel flow-based method for human motion  
5 prediction called CacheFlow. Unlike previous conditional generative models that  
6 suffer from time efficiency, CacheFlow takes advantage of an unconditional flow-  
7 based generative model that transforms a Gaussian mixture into the density of  
8 future motions. The results of the computation of the flow-based generative model  
9 can be precomputed and cached. Then, for conditional prediction, we seek a  
10 mapping from historical trajectories to samples in the Gaussian mixture. This  
11 mapping can be done by a much more lightweight model, thus saving significant  
12 computation overhead compared to a typical conditional flow model. In such a  
13 two-stage fashion and by caching results from the slow flow model computation, we  
14 build our CacheFlow without loss of prediction accuracy and model expressiveness.  
15 This inference process is completed in approximately one millisecond, making  
16 it  $4\times$  faster than previous VAE methods and  $30\times$  faster than previous diffusion-  
17 based methods on standard benchmarks such as Human3.6M and AMASS datasets.  
18 Furthermore, our method demonstrates improved density estimation accuracy and  
19 comparable prediction accuracy to a SOTA method on Human3.6M. Our code and  
20 models will be publicly available.

21 

## 1 Introduction

22 The task of 3D human motion prediction is to forecast the future 3D pose sequence given an observed  
23 past sequence. Traditional motion prediction methods are often based on deterministic models and  
24 can struggle to capture the inherent uncertainty in human movement. Recently, stochastic approaches  
25 have addressed this limitation. Stochastic approaches allow models to sample multiple possible future  
26 motions. Stochastic human motion prediction methods utilize conditional generative models such as  
27 generative adversarial networks (GANs) [18], variational autoencoders (VAEs) [27], and denoising  
28 diffusion probabilistic model [24]. However, many stochastic approaches cannot explicitly model the  
29 probability density distribution.

30 Conversely, density estimate-based approaches explicitly model the probability density distribution. In  
31 safety-critical applications such as autonomous driving [51] and human-robot interaction [29, 31, 9],  
32 a density estimate can represent all possible future motions (not just a few samples) by tracking the  
33 volume of density. It can be used to derive guarantees on safety [43, 58, 64].

34 However, previous density estimation suffers from high computational cost. The expensive computa-  
35 tional cost can prohibit applications to real-time use-cases, especially with high dimensional data such  
36 as human motions. For instance, kernel density estimation (KDE) [56, 52] requires an exponentially

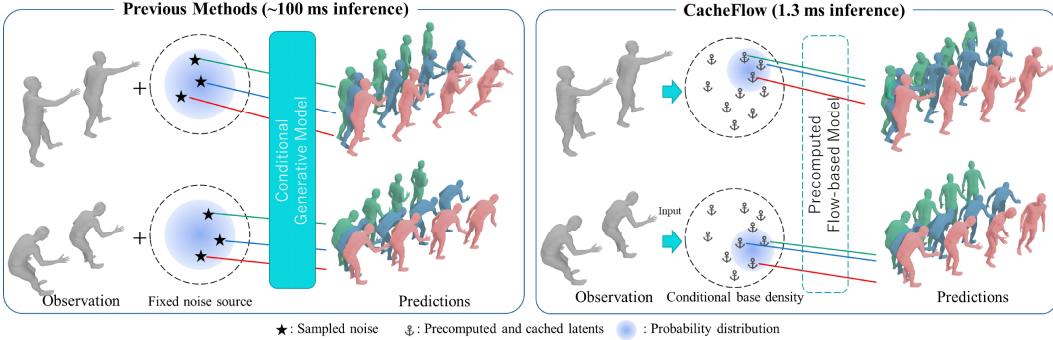


Figure 1: **Previous methods vs. Our CacheFlow.** Previous methods of stochastic motion prediction generate multiple future motions by sampling noises from the fixed source in an ad hoc manner. In contrast, CacheFlow uses the precomputed and cached latent-motion pairs from an unconditional flow-based generative model. Thus, the computation of the unconditional flow can be skipped at inference. One can achieve fast inference by selecting predictions from these cached pairs.

37 growing number of samples for accurate estimation. Concretely, more than one trillion samples are  
 38 required for accurate KDE over a 48-dim pose over 100 frames of human motion prediction [60].

39 In contrast to traditional KDE, recent parametric density estimation approaches use conditional  
 40 flow-based generative models, including normalizing flows [55, 62, 63] and continuous normalizing  
 41 flows [13]. These flow-based generative models (“flow-based model” for brevity) directly estimate the  
 42 density to avoid time-consuming sampling required in KDE. However, inferring the exact probability  
 43 of possible future motions remains computationally expensive. This is because capturing the full  
 44 shape of the distribution requires evaluating the probabilities of many potential future motions.

45 To address this computational limitation, we propose a fast density estimation method based on a flow-  
 46 based model called “CacheFlow”. Our CacheFlow utilizes an unconditional flow-based model for  
 47 prediction, as illustrated in Figure 1. Since the unconditional flow-based model is independent of past  
 48 observed motions, its calculation can be precomputed and skipped at inference. This precomputation  
 49 omits a large portion of computational cost. To achieve further acceleration, our unconditional  
 50 flow-based model represents transformation between a lightweight conditional base density and the  
 51 density of future motions. At inference, the density of future motion is estimated by computing the  
 52 lightweight conditional base density and combining it with the precomputed results of the flow-based  
 53 model. The inference of our method is approximately one millisecond.

54 CacheFlow demonstrates comparable accuracy to previous methods on standard stochastic human  
 55 motion prediction benchmarks, Human3.6M [25] and AMASS [42]. Furthermore, our method  
 56 estimates density more accurately than previous stochastic human motion prediction methods with  
 57 KDE. CacheFlow shows improved computational efficiency, making it well-suited for real-time  
 58 applications. The contributions of this paper are four-fold as follows:

- 59 1. We introduce a novel fast density estimation called CacheFlow on human motion prediction.
- 60 2. We can sample diverse future motion trajectories with explicit density estimation, and we  
 61 experimentally confirm that our method can estimate accurate density.
- 62 3. Our method achieves comparable prediction accuracy to other computationally intense  
 63 methods on several benchmarks.

## 64 2 Related Work

### 65 2.1 Human Motion Prediction

66 **Deterministic approaches.** Early approaches on human motion prediction [1, 7, 17, 8, 21, 26, 33]  
 67 focused on deterministic settings. They predict the most likely motion sequence based on the past  
 68 motion. A wide range of architectures were proposed including multi-layer perceptron [21], recurrent  
 69 neural networks [17, 26, 46, 20, 53, 37], convolutional neural networks [33, 50], transformers [1,  
 70 10, 48], and graph neural networks (GNNs) [44, 34, 14, 35]. GNN can account for the explicit tree

71 expression of the human skeleton, while other architectures implicitly learn the dependencies between  
72 joints.

73 **Stochastic approaches.** To capture the inherent uncertainty in human movements, recent works have  
74 focused on stochastic human motion prediction to predict multiple likely future motions. The main  
75 stream of stochastic methods use generative models for the purpose, such as generative adversarial  
76 networks (GANs) [5, 30], variational autoencoder (VAE) [65, 70, 45, 11], and denoising diffusion  
77 probabilistic model (DDPM) [4, 12, 66, 61]. To improve the diversity of predictions, diversity-  
78 promoting loss [45, 4] or explicit sampling techniques [66] were proposed. In contrast to generative  
79 models, anchor-based methods [69, 68] learn a fixed number of anchors corresponding to each  
80 prediction to ensure diversity. However, most stochastic methods cannot describe the density of  
81 future motions explicitly. This prevents exhaustive or maximum likelihood sampling for practical  
82 applications. On the contrary, our method allows for explicit density estimation using normalizing  
83 flows [28].

84 **2.2 Density Estimation**

85 Density estimation asks for explicit calculation of the probability for samples from a distribution.  
86 Density estimation is derived by non-parametric or parametric methods.

87 **Non-parametric Approach.** The representative non-parametric density estimation is kernel density  
88 estimation (KDE) [56, 52]. KDE can estimate density by using samples from generative models.  
89 However, KDE requires a large number of samples for accurate estimation. Therefore, it often cannot  
90 run in real-time.

91 **Parametric Approach.** As a representative parametric model, Gaussian mixture models (GMMs)  
92 parametrize density with several Gaussian distributions and their mixture weights. Its nature of mixing  
93 Gaussian priors limits its ability to generalize to complex data distribution. Another parametric  
94 approach with more expressivity is flow-based generative models [28]. By a learned bijective  
95 process, normalizing flows (NFs) [55, 62, 63] transform a simple density like the standard normal  
96 distribution into a complex data density. Recently, continuous normalizing flows (CNFs) [13, 19]  
97 achieve more expressive density than standard normalizing flows via an ODE-based bijective process.  
98 While training of CNFs is inefficient due to the optimization of ODE solutions, an efficient training  
99 strategy named flow matching [36] was proposed. FlowChain [40] was proposed for fast and efficient  
100 density estimation in human trajectory forecasting. FlowChain improves the inference time efficiency  
101 by reusing results from the conditional flow-based method while the past sequences are similar.  
102 However, with significantly different past sequences, FlowChain’s efficiency can’t hold anymore.  
103 Unlike FlowChain, our method can perform fast and efficient inference regardless of past sequences.

104 **3 Preliminary**

105 **3.1 Problem Formulation**

106 The task of human motion prediction aims to use a short sequence of observed human motion to predict  
107 the future unobserved motion sequence of that person. Human motion is represented by a sequence of  
108 human poses in a pre-defined skeleton format of 3D locations of  $J$  joints,  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times 3}$ . As input to our  
109 model, we have the past (history of) human motion as a sequence  $\mathbf{c} = [\mathbf{X}_1, \mathbf{X}_2, \dots, \mathbf{X}_H] \in \mathbb{R}^{H \times J \times 3}$   
110 over  $H$  timesteps. To predict the future human motion sequence of  $F$  timesteps, we can formulate the  
111 problem as one of conditional generation using the conditional probability function,  $p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{c})$ , where  
112  $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{X}_{H+1}, \mathbf{X}_{H+2}, \dots, \mathbf{X}_{H+F}] \in \mathbb{R}^{F \times J \times 3}$ . Similar to the stochastic human motion prediction  
113 paradigm, the method should also allow for sampling  $n$  multiple future sequences  $\{\mathbf{X}_1, \dots, \mathbf{X}_n\}$   
114 from  $p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{c})$ . The focus of our work is to accelerate the inference time of estimate and sampling of  
115 the conditional density function  $p(\mathbf{X}|\mathbf{c})$ .

116 **3.2 Normalizing Flow**

117 Normalizing flow [55, 62, 63] is a generative model with explicit density estimation. It follows a  
118 bijective mapping  $f_\theta$  with learnable parameters  $\theta$ . It transforms a simple base density  $q(\mathbf{z})$  such as  
119 a Gaussian distribution into the complex data density  $p(\mathbf{x})$ . We can analytically estimate the exact

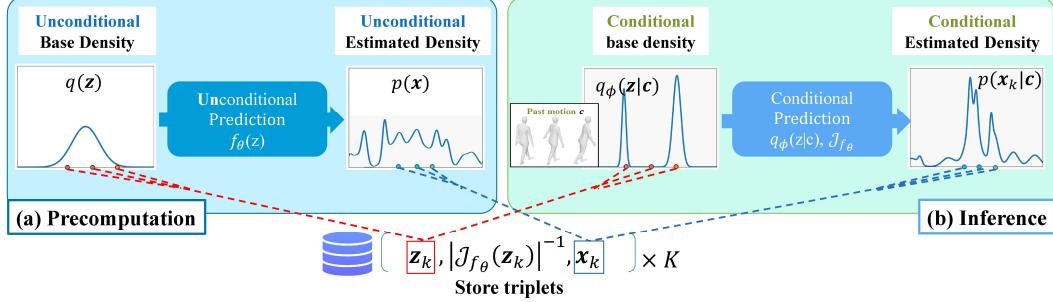


Figure 2: **Overview of our CacheFlow.** Our method utilizes the unconditional flow-based model  $f_\theta$ . This  $f_\theta$  maps the lightweight conditional base density  $q_\phi(z|c)$  into future motion density  $p(x|c)$ . In this formulation, the flow-based model is independent of past motions. Thus, we can precompute the unconditional flow-based model. These results are cached as  $K$  triplets as shown in (a). Due to the precomputation, we can skip the inference of  $f_\theta$  and omit a large portion of the entire computation. At inference, density estimation is achieved by only evaluating the lightweight conditional base density  $q_\phi(z_k|c)$  and combining it with the stored  $K$  triplets as shown in (b).

120 probability via the change-of-variables formula as follows:

$$\mathbf{x} = f_\theta(\mathbf{z}), \quad \mathbf{z} = f_\theta^{-1}(\mathbf{x}). \quad (1)$$

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = q(\mathbf{z}) |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z})|^{-1}, \quad (2)$$

121 where  $\mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}) = \frac{\partial f_\theta}{\partial \mathbf{z}}$  is the Jacobian of  $f_\theta$  at  $\mathbf{z}$ . The parameters  $\theta$  of  $f_\theta$  can be learned by maximizing  
122 the likelihood (or conditional likelihood) of samples  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  from datasets or minimizing the negative log-  
123 likelihood as  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{NLL}} = -\log p(\hat{\mathbf{x}})$ . When  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$  are latent codes, normalizing flow is transformed  
124 into latent normalizing flow. We follow this pattern in our method. We encode the past human motion  
125 into  $\mathbf{x}$  by an encoder network  $\mathcal{E}$  and decode it by a decoder network  $\mathcal{D}$ :

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{X}), \quad \mathbf{X} = \mathcal{D}(\mathbf{x}). \quad \mathbf{x} \sim \mathbb{R}^d, \quad \mathbf{X} \sim \mathbb{R}^{F \times J \times 3} \quad (3)$$

126 The encoder and decoder are trained by reconstruction. In the later part of this paper, for simplicity,  
127 we discuss the method at the latent representation level and model the conditional generation task as  
128  $p(\mathbf{x}|c)$ .

### 129 3.3 Continuous Normalizing Flow (CNF)

130 Continuous normalizing flow (CNF) [13, 19] is a normalizing flow variant based on an ordinary  
131 differential equation (ODE). CNF defines  $t$ -continuous path  $\mathbf{z}_t$  between the base density space  
132  $\mathbf{z}_0 \sim q(\mathbf{z})$  and the data space  $\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{x} \sim p(\mathbf{x})$ . This  $\mathbf{z}_t$  is defined by the parameterized vector field  
133  $\frac{d\mathbf{z}_t}{dt} = v_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t)$ . The data  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z}_1$  is generated via numerical integration of vector field  $v_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t)$  as  
134 follows:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{z}_0 + \int_0^1 v_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t) dt. \quad (4)$$

135 The CNF transformation Equation (4) is denoted as  $\mathbf{x} = f_\theta(\mathbf{z})$  for brevity. Although CNF can be  
136 trained by minimizing negative log-likelihood, it is time-consuming due to the numerical integration  
137 of ODE.

### 138 3.4 Flow Matching

139 In order to train the parameterized vector field efficiently, one can leverage the flow matching [36]  
140 strategy. As a new training strategy, Flow Matching avoids the numerical integration of ODE  
141 by directly optimizing the vector field  $v_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t)$ . The objective of flow matching is to match the  
142 parameterized vector field  $v_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t)$  to the ground truth vector field  $u(\mathbf{z}_t)$  via mean squared error as  
143 follows:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{FM}} = \mathbb{E}_{t \sim \mathcal{T}(0,1), \mathbf{z}_t} \|v_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t) - u(\mathbf{z}_t)\|^2, \quad (5)$$

144 where  $\mathcal{T}(0, 1)$  is a distribution ranging from 0 to 1.

145 However, we cannot obtain the ground truth vector field  $u(\mathbf{z}_t)$  directly. Ripman *et al.* [36] suggest  
 146 defining the conditional ground truth  $u(\mathbf{z}_t|\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1)$  instead. Specifically, it is modeled as a straight vector  
 147 field  $\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1 - \mathbf{z}_0$  in Rectified Flow [13, 19]. This is called conditional flow matching [36] trained by the  
 148 following objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{CFM}} = \mathbb{E}_{t \sim \mathcal{T}(0,1), \hat{\mathbf{z}}_1, \mathbf{z}_t} \|\mathbf{v}_\theta(\mathbf{z}_t) - u(\mathbf{z}_t|\hat{\mathbf{z}}_1)\|^2. \quad (6)$$

149 The gradients of  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{FM}}$  of Equation (5) and  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{CFM}}$  of Equation (6) are identical *w.r.t*  $\theta$ . We exploit  
 150 expressive CNFs with efficient Flow Matching training to estimate the future motion density  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c})$ .

## 151 4 Proposed Method

### 152 4.1 Overview of CacheFlow

153 We estimate the future motion density  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c})$  by transforming a conditional base distribution  $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$ .  
 154 This  $q_\phi$  is conditioned on the past motion  $\mathbf{c}$ . Then we can sample predictions  $\mathbf{x} \sim p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c})$  for  
 155 stochastic human motion prediction. Most traditional approaches based on conditional generative  
 156 models use a trivial source distribution, often a simple Gaussian. However, we redefine the source  
 157 distribution to be more informative and directly regressed from past motions. This allows us to  
 158 develop a much lighter and faster model for predicting future movements.

159 To build this informative conditional base distribution  $q_\phi$ , we would incorporate an unconditional  
 160 flow-based model  $f_\theta : \mathbf{x} = f_\theta(\mathbf{z})$  that maps latent variable  $\mathbf{z}$  into motion representation  $\mathbf{x}$ . To  
 161 understand how  $q_\phi$  and  $f_\theta$  are connected, we first reparametrize the future motion density  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c})$  by  
 162 a change of variables of probability equation as follows:

$$p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c}) = q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c}) \left| \det \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \right|, \quad (7)$$

$$= q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c}) \left| \det \left( \frac{\partial f_\theta(\mathbf{z})}{\partial \mathbf{z}} \right)^{-1} \right|, \quad (8)$$

$$= q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c}) |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z})|^{-1}. \quad (9)$$

163 This parametrization trick differs from the widely-used conditional density formulation [67] where  $\mathbf{c}$  is  
 164 conditioned to the flow-based model  $f_\theta$ . In this formulation, only the conditional base density  $q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$   
 165 varies depending on  $\mathbf{c}$  during inference, whereas the unconditional flow-based model  $\mathbf{x} = f_\theta(\mathbf{z})$   
 166 and the Jacobian  $|\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z})|^{-1}$  are kept same during inference and thus can be reused as-is once  
 167 calculated.

168 Therefore, we could precompute the mapping results and Jacobians of an unconditional flow-based  
 169 model  $f_\theta$ . We cache the triplets  $t = \{\mathbf{z}, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z})|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}\}$  for later reuse in the inference stage, as  
 170 shown in Figure 2(a).

171 Then, during inference, we design a new trick to reuse the cached triplets by associating them with the  
 172 specific conditions of the past motion sequences, as shown in Figure 2(b). Now, instead of a typical  
 173 conditional generative model, e.g., conditional normalizing flow, we only need a lightweight model  
 174 to model the conditional base density  $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$  and achieve similar expressivity. We could finally  
 175 estimate the future motion density by  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c}) = q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c}) |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z})|^{-1}$ . The method is summarized  
 176 as pseudocode in Algorithm 1. In the following paragraphs, we elaborate on the details of our method.

### 177 4.2 Precompute Unconditional Flow-based Model

178 As the first step of our method, we use the human motion dataset to learn an unconditional flow-based  
 179 model  $f_\theta$ . From this unconditional human motion prediction model, we will collect the triplets  
 180  $t = \{\mathbf{z}, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z})|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}\}$  for later use. This part is illustrated in Figure 2(a).

181 In our implementation, we built the unconditional flow model by CNFs due to its proven expressivity  
 182 for predicting human motion. The unconditional model is trained to predict a fixed-length future  
 183 motion  $\mathbf{x}$  given a noise sample  $\mathbf{z}$  from a source distribution  $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$ :

$$f_\theta : \mathbb{R}^d \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}^d \quad (10)$$

184 Because  $\mathbf{z}$  is sampled from a known distribution and normalizing-flow models are deterministic with  
 185 reversible bijective transformation, we could know the density of each  $\{\mathbf{z}, \mathbf{x}\}$  pair. We train the  
 186 unconditional continuous normalizing flow with the flow matching objective described in Equation (6).  
 187 Then we collect  $K$  samples denoted by the triplet  $t_k = \{\mathbf{z}_k, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}_k\}$ . Triplets are  
 188 collected by applying the inverse transform of  $f_\theta$  to ground truth future motions in the training split.  
 189 These triplets are cached for fast inference as described in Section 4.3. This caching operation is  
 190 different from anchor-based methods [69, 68] since CacheFlow caches all motions of the training  
 191 split.

192 **4.3 Conditional Inference by CacheFlow**

193 In previous methods, conditional human motion prediction typically requires a conditional generative  
 194 model. For instance, it is a conditional flow-based or diffusion model. These models usually have  
 195 poor time efficiency due to delicate but heavy architecture. Instead, inspired by Equation (9), we can  
 196 reuse the results of unconditional inverse transformation as triplets  $t_k = \{\mathbf{z}_k, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}_k\}$ .  
 197 Thus, we can perform conditional inference by only evaluating a conditional base distribution  $q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$ .  
 198 We model this conditional base distribution by a learnable model, thus we denote it as  $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$ . This  
 199 model can be very lightweight since the unconditional transformation  $f_\theta$  gives enough expressivity.  
 200  $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$  runs much faster than a typical conditional generative model for human motion prediction.  
 201 This part is illustrated in Figure 2(b).

202 In our implementation,  $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$  is constructed as a parametrized Gaussian mixture  
 203  $\{\mathcal{N}(\mu_m(\mathbf{c}), \sigma_m^2(\mathbf{c}))\}$ , with  $M$  mixture weights  $w_m(\mathbf{c})$ , such that  $\sum_{m=1}^M w_m = 1$ . Each  $\mu_m$  and  $\sigma_m$   
 204 are regressed based on the feature of past motion  $\mathbf{c}$ . We use a lightweight single-layer RNN for  
 205 regression to determine the GMM composition. Although the unconditional flow-based model  $f_\theta$   
 206 and the conditional base density  $q_\phi$  can be trained separately, we found that jointly training  $f_\theta$  and  $q_\phi$   
 207 improves model performance. We train the joint model by summation of log-likelihood for  $q_\phi$  and  
 208 flow matching for  $f_\theta$  as explained in Equation (6) as follows:

$$\mathcal{L} = -\log q_\phi(f_\theta^{-1}(\hat{\mathbf{x}})|\mathbf{c}) + \mathcal{L}_{\text{CFM}}. \quad (11)$$

209 With joint learning,  $f_\theta$  learns an easy mapping for the conditional Gaussian mixture  $q_\phi$ .  
 210 With  $q_\phi$  constructed, during inference, we can estimate the conditional density  $p(\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{c})$  by connecting  
 211 with precomputed triplets  $t_k = \{\mathbf{z}_k, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  as

$$p(\mathbf{x}_k|\mathbf{c}) = q_\phi(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{c}) |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}. \quad (12)$$

212 By this inference process, we could optionally generate a future human motion sequence  $\mathbf{x}$  by  
 213 retrieving a high-probability sample  $\mathbf{z}$  from  $q_\phi$  with the past motion sequence as the condition.  
 214 However,  $q_\phi$  describes a continuous distribution and the stored triplets cannot cover all samples.  
 215 Therefore, in practice, predicted motion  $\mathbf{x}_{k^*}$  is selected by the nearest neighbor of the sampling  
 216 outcome of  $q_\phi$  to the stored triplets:

$$\begin{aligned} k^* &= \operatorname{argmin}_k \|\mathbf{z}_k - \mathbf{z}\|, \\ \text{s.t. } \{t_k &= \{\mathbf{z}_k, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}_k\}, \mathbf{z} \sim q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})\}, \end{aligned} \quad (13)$$

217 where  $k^*$  is the selected index of the triplets for prediction. By this design, we can sample an arbitrary  
 218 number of likely future motion sequences by selecting the neighbors of samples  $\mathbf{z} \sim q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{c})$ .

219 **5 Experimental Evaluation**

220 **Datasets.** We evaluate our CacheFlow on Human3.6M [25] and AMASS [42]. Human3.6M contains  
 221 3.6 million frames of human motion sequences. Human motions of 11 subjects performing 15 actions  
 222 are recorded at 50 Hz. We follow the setting including the dataset split, the 16-joints pose skeleton  
 223 definition, and lengths of past and future motions proposed by previous works [47, 38, 71, 54]. The  
 224 training and test sets of Human3.6M are subjects [S1, S5, S6, S7, S8] and [S9, S11], respectively. The  
 225 past motion and future motions contain 25 frames (0.5 sec) and 100 frames (2.0 sec). AMASS  
 226 unifies 24 different human motion datasets including HumanEva-I [59] with the SMPL [41] pose  
 227 representation. AMASS contains 9M frames at 60 Hz in total. As a multi-dataset collection of  
 228 AMASS, one can perform a cross-dataset evaluation. We follow the evaluation protocol proposed

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**Algorithm 1:** Precomputation and Inference of CacheFlow.

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**Input:** Past motion  $c$   
**Output:** Estimated density  $p(\mathbf{x}_k|c)$

// Precomputation. This does not count for inference time.

**for** each future motion  $\mathbf{X}_k$  in the training dataset **do**

$\mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow \mathcal{E}(\mathbf{X}_k)$

$\mathbf{z}_k \leftarrow f_\theta^{-1}(\mathbf{x}_k)$

Calculate  $|\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}$

Store triplet  $\{\mathbf{z}_k, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}_k\}$

**end**

// Fast Inference

**for** each triplet  $\{\mathbf{z}_k, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  **do**

$q_\phi(\mathbf{z}_k|c) \leftarrow \sum_{m=1}^M w_m \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{z}_k; \mu_m(c), \sigma_m^2(c))$

$p(\mathbf{x}_k|c) \leftarrow q_\phi(\mathbf{z}_k|c) |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}$

**end**

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	Human3.6M [25]					AMASS [42]					Inference Time[ms]↓
	APD↑	ADE↓	FDE↓	MMADE↓	MMFDE↓	APD↑	ADE↓	FDE↓	MMADE↓	MMFDE↓	
HP-GAN [5]	7.214	0.858	0.867	0.847	0.858	-	-	-	-	-	-
DSF [72]	9.330	0.493	0.592	0.550	0.599	-	-	-	-	-	-
DeLiGAN [23]	6.509	0.483	0.534	0.520	0.545	-	-	-	-	-	-
GMVAE [16]	6.769	0.461	0.555	0.524	0.566	-	-	-	-	-	-
TPK [65]	6.723	0.461	0.560	0.522	0.569	9.283	0.656	0.675	0.658	0.674	30.3
MT-VAE [70]	0.403	0.457	0.595	0.716	0.883	-	-	-	-	-	-
BoM [6]	6.265	0.448	0.533	0.514	0.544	-	-	-	-	-	-
DLow [73]	11.741	0.425	0.518	0.495	0.531	13.170	0.590	0.612	0.618	0.617	30.8
MultiObj [39]	14.240	0.414	0.516	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
GSPS [45]	14.757	0.389	0.496	0.476	0.525	12.465	0.563	0.613	0.609	0.633	5.1
Motron [57]	7.168	0.375	0.488	0.509	0.539	-	-	-	-	-	-
DivSamp [15]	15.310	0.370	0.485	0.475	0.516	24.724	0.564	0.647	0.623	0.667	5.2
BeLFusion [4]	7.602	0.372	0.474	0.473	0.507	9.376	0.513	0.560	0.569	0.585	449.3
BeLFusion-D	5.777	0.367	0.472	0.469	0.506	7.458	0.508	0.567	0.564	0.591	39.3
HumanMAC [12]	6.301	0.369	0.480	0.509	0.545	9.321	0.511	0.554	0.593	0.591	1172.9
CoMusion [61]	7.632	0.350	0.458	0.494	0.506	10.848	0.494	0.547	0.469	0.466	352.6
SLD [68]	8.741	0.348	0.436	0.435	0.463	-	-	-	-	-	375.0
FlowPrecomp.	6.101	0.369	0.473	0.481	0.511	7.099	0.511	0.566	0.567	0.586	1.3
w/o Precomp.	5.385	0.374	0.489	0.490	0.531	6.291	0.516	0.586	0.573	0.608	415.9

Table 1: Quantitative comparisons over the stochastic human motion prediction metrics on Human3.6M and AMASS datasets. Lower is better for all metrics except APD. The reported inference time is when a method finishes generating 50 prediction samples from receiving the past motion.

229 by BeLFusion [4] for fair comparison, as predicting future 120 frames (2.0 sec) with 30 frames  
230 observation (0.5 sec) with downsampling to 60 Hz.

231 **Metrics.** We use the evaluation metrics to measure diversity and accuracy. 50 sampled predictions  
232 are evaluated with the following metrics: **Average Pairwise Distance (APD)** [3] evaluates sample  
233 diversity. It calculates the mean  $l_2$  distance between all predicted motions. **Average and Final**  
234 **Displacement Error (ADE, FDE)** [2, 32, 22] evaluate accuracy. They calculate the average and final-  
235 frame  $l_2$  distances between the ground truth motion and closest prediction in the 50 set. **Multimodal**  
236 **ADE and FDE (MMADE, MMFDE)** [72] also evaluate accuracy in a similar way to ADE and FDE.  
237 However, they are calculated over multimodal ground truths selected by grouping similar motions.

238 We also evaluate the accuracy of density estimation with **Multimodal Log Probability** per dimension.  
239 It calculates the log probability of the multimodal ground truths to measure how accurately the  
240 estimated density covers possible future motions. We evaluate the log probability on the motion space  
241 except for methods with latent space such as our CacheFlow and BeLFusion. While higher is better  
242 on APD and multimodal log probability, lower is better on ADE, FDE, MMADE, and MMFDE.

Method	#sample for KDE	MM log prob. per dim $\uparrow$	Inference Time[ms] $\downarrow$
BeLFusion	50	-2.383	2305.3 (440.3)
	1000	-1.633	2422.4 (449.3)
CoMusion [61]	50	-15.575	2500.5 (167.0)
	1000	-12.746	5071.5 (2741.3)
SLD [68]	50	0.080	2559.1 (375.0)
CacheFlow	-	<b>1.304</b>	<b>0.5</b> (0.5)

Table 2: **Density Estimation Accuracy on Human3.6M.** Inference time of each method is reported as {total time (time without KDE inference)}. Since our method doesn’t require KDE for density estimation, the number of samples for KDE is left blank for CacheFlow.

243 **Implementation Details.** Our method is based on a latent flow-based model. We utilize a Variational  
 244 Autoencoder (VAE) to obtain a latent representation. Specifically, we employ the Behavioral Latent  
 245 Space (BLS) [4] as a VAE to achieve a compact latent representation. BLS ensures smoothness  
 246 of predicted motions and consistency between the end of the past motion and the start of the  
 247 predicted motion. Additionally, we compress this representation using linear factorization [68]. The  
 248 dimensionality of the VAE latent space is 128, which we further reduce to 8 dimensions through  
 249 linear factorization. We trained the unconditional flow-based model on this 8-dimensional space. The  
 250 unconditional flow-based model  $f_\theta$  is a continuous normalizing flow (CNF) model, with its vector  
 251 field regressed by a U-Net architecture. The conditional base density  $q_\phi$ , as well as the VAE encoder  
 252 and decoder, are implemented as one-layer Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs). We used a Gaussian  
 253 mixture model with  $M = 50$  modes to model the conditional base density  $q_\phi$ . We precomputed  
 254 and collected triplets  $t_k = \{\mathbf{z}_k, |\det \mathcal{J}_{f_\theta}(\mathbf{z}_k)|^{-1}, \mathbf{x}_k\}$  using all training samples of each dataset. All  
 255 experiments, including inference time measuring, were carried out using a single NVIDIA A100  
 256 GPU. We used a batch size 64 and the Adam optimizer with a learning rate of  $5 \times 10^{-4}$ .

## 257 5.1 Quantitative Evaluation

258 **Accuracy Over a Fixed Number of Predictions.** We compare CacheFlow against state-of-the-art  
 259 methods of stochastic human motion prediction. While we propose using a precomputed set during  
 260 inference, we also evaluate our method without precomputation. In the absence of precomputation,  
 261 we sample  $\mathbf{z}$  from the conditional base density  $q_\phi(\mathbf{z}|c)$  and obtain  $\mathbf{x}$  through the flow-based model  
 262 inference, where  $\mathbf{x} = f_\theta(\mathbf{z})$ . The results are summarized in Table 1. Since the primary applications  
 263 of human motion prediction are in real-time scenarios, we also measure the inference time of each  
 264 method to sample 50 predictions on a GPU.

265 CoMusion and SLD were successful in predicting motions that are closer to the ground truth than  
 266 CacheFlow; however, their inference times of 167 and 375 milliseconds are too long for the intended  
 267 2000 ms prediction horizon. As a result, over 8% of the first prediction sequence is rendered useless  
 268 once the prediction is finalized. Therefore, it is difficult to use these methods with slow inference in  
 269 real-time applications. Although our primary goal is to estimate the density, CacheFlow achieves  
 270 comparable performances with a 1.3 millisecond inference time. Our method achieves around 4 $\times$   
 271 faster than the fastest VAE method, GSPS, and 30 $\times$  faster than the fastest diffusion-based method,  
 272 BeLFusion-D. The inference of our method is fast enough (1.3ms for future 2000ms) and applicable  
 273 for real-time applications. This inference speed is because the inference of the unconditional flow-  
 274 based model  $f_\theta$  is precomputed. We only need to evaluate the lightweight conditional base density  $q_\phi$   
 275 at inference. Although our conditional base density  $q_\phi$  is just a Gaussian mixture with low expressive  
 276 power, our method achieves high accuracy since the precomputed unconditional flow-based model  $f_\theta$   
 277 gives  $q_\phi$  much complexity with almost no overhead in inference.

278 **Density Estimation Accuracy.** The density estimation accuracy of each method is compared be-  
 279 tween CacheFlow and the state-of-the-art methods. The three state-of-the-art methods BeLFusion [4],  
 280 CoMusion [61], and SLD [68] are selected. CoMusion and SLD were selected since they outperform  
 281 our method in benchmarks of stochastic human motion prediction. We also include BeLFusion to  
 282 compare CacheFlow with the method with latent space. We applied KDE to these previous methods  
 283 since they only sample a set of predictions and cannot estimate density. While we evaluated 50 and  
 284 1000 samples for KDE on BeLFusion and CoMusion, SLD only allows 50 samples due to the fixed

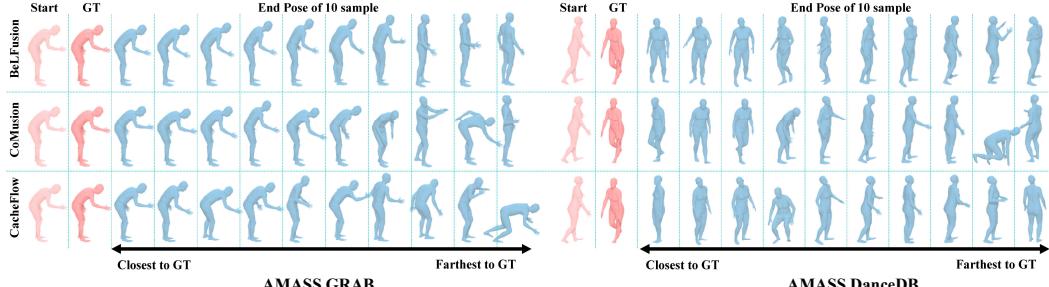


Figure 3: Qualitative Comparison on AMASS dataset.

285 number of anchors corresponding to predictions. We measured the inference time of each method to  
 286 estimate the density of ten thousand future motions from the past motion input.

287 The quantitative comparisons over the multimodal ground truth log probability are shown in Table 2.  
 288 All previous methods suffer from slow inference of their own and KDE on high-dimensional motion  
 289 data. Their inference time exceeded the prediction horizon of 2000ms in the future. Therefore, they  
 290 cannot estimate density in real-time. In contrast, our method achieves better estimation accuracy in  
 291 less than one millisecond. This indicates that CacheFlow has strong discriminative ability to list up  
 292 possible future motions required for safety assurance. Our method is even faster only on the density  
 293 estimation (0.5ms) than the inference time reported in Table 1 (1.3ms). This is because we don't need  
 294 any extra sampling operation in the density estimation.

## 295 5.2 Qualitative Comparison of Predicted Motions

296 To visually evaluate CacheFlow, we conducted a qualitative comparison of methods on the AMASS  
 297 dataset, as shown in Figure 3. We visualized the end poses of 10 samples from each method alongside  
 298 the end poses of past motions and the ground truth future motions. The sitting or lying poses were  
 299 translated to the ground plane, as the global translation is not modeled in human motion prediction.  
 300 The 10 pose samples are arranged from the closest to the farthest from the ground truth pose based  
 301 on joint rotations.

302 Our observations indicate that CacheFlow predicts realistic poses. The closest poses to the ground  
 303 truths also demonstrate that the accuracy of CacheFlow is comparable to CoMusion, as reflected  
 304 in the ADE and FDE metrics listed in Table 1. Notably, our method is computationally efficient,  
 305 operating 100 times faster than the fastest CoMusion. In summary, CacheFlow effectively delivers  
 306 realistic and accurate predictions.

## 307 6 Concluding Remarks

308 We presented a new flow-based stochastic human motion prediction method named CacheFlow.  
 309 Our method achieves a fast and accurate estimation of the probability density distribution of future  
 310 motions. Our unconditional formulation allows precomputation and caching of the flow-based model,  
 311 thus omitting a large portion of computational cost at inference. The unconditional flow-based model  
 312 enhanced the expressivity of the lightweight conditional Gaussian mixture with almost no overhead.  
 313 Experimental results demonstrated CacheFlow achieved comparable prediction accuracy with 1.3  
 314 milliseconds inference, much faster than the previous method. Furthermore, CacheFlow estimated a  
 315 more accurate density than previous methods in less than 1 millisecond.

316 Our method has one limitation. Prediction and density estimation are performed within precomputed  
 317 triplets. We cannot estimate the density or predict unseen future motions during precomputation. Our  
 318 future work is searching for a better precomputation strategy for prediction and estimation with more  
 319 coverage based on the limited dataset. Furthermore, our method is not limited to prediction tasks but  
 320 applies to any regression task requiring density estimation. We will investigate the applicability of  
 321 our CacheFlow on other domains.

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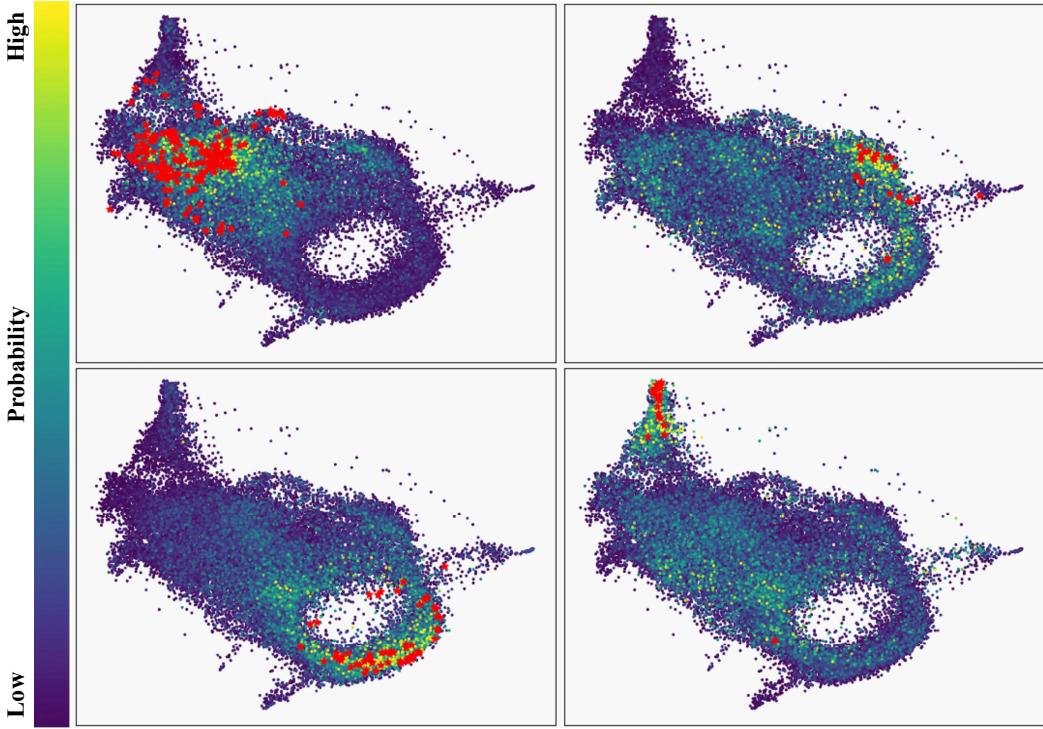


Figure 4: **Visualization of future motion densities by CacheFlow.** The estimated densities for four different motion sequences are visualized. We used UMAP to project these future motions onto a 2D space. Each dot represents an evaluated future motion, and the color of each dot indicates its probability, as shown in the side color bar. The red stars represent the projected ground truth future motions.

	Linear Factorization	Unconditional Flow-based Model	Joint Learning	Precomp. Set	Sampling	ADE $\downarrow$	FDE $\downarrow$	MM log prob. per dims $\uparrow$	Inference time[ms] $\downarrow$
(1)		✓	✓	Train Set	NN sample	0.502	0.664	0.458	4.8
(2)	✓		✓	Train Set	NN sample	0.616	0.889	0.901	0.4
(3)	✓			Train Set	NN sample	0.370	0.475	1.283	1.3
(4)	✓	✓	✓	Base Density	NN sample	0.376	0.492	-	1.3
(5)	✓	✓	✓	Train Set	Random sample	0.455	0.605	-	<b>1.2</b>
	✓	✓	✓	Train Set	Most likely	0.384	0.506	-	1.4
	✓	✓	✓	Train Set	NN sample	<b>0.369</b>	<b>0.473</b>	<b>1.304</b>	1.3

Table 3: **Ablation Study on Human3.6M.** (4) and (5) do not affect the ground truth log probability, these are left blank.

## 479 A Implementation Details of Kernel Density Estimation

480 We assessed the accuracy of density estimation using Kernel Density Estimation (KDE) on previous  
 481 methods. To ensure a fair comparison of inference time, all KDE computations were conducted on  
 482 the GPU. We applied KDE to the standardized predicted future motions (or latents for BeLFusion)  
 483 to obtain the estimated density. In this process, the  $i$ -th dimension of the predicted future motions  
 484 was standardized using its  $i$ -th variance, meaning that covariances were not considered during  
 485 standardization. We employed Scott’s rule to determine the optimal bandwidth for KDE.

## 486 B Ablation Study

487 We conducted an ablation study to investigate how each component affects the performance of our  
 488 CacheFlow. We ablate five components: (1) dimensionality reduction via linear factorization on

489 VAE, (2) the unconditional flow-based model  $f_\theta$ , (3) joint learning of the conditional base density  
490  $q_\phi$  and unconditional flow-based model  $f_\theta$ , (4) dataset for precomputation, (5) the sampling method  
491 for metrics over a fixed number of predictions. Ablation results on the Human3.6M dataset are  
492 summarized in Table 3.

493 **Linear Factorization.** We first ablate the linear factorization compressing 256-dim VAE latent to be  
494 an 8-dim factor space. Our method is considerably enhanced on the compact space by avoiding the  
495 curse of dimensionality.

496 **The Unconditional Flow-based Model.** We ablate this flow-based model  $f_\theta$  to confirm it improves  
497 the conditional base density  $q_\phi$  by adding complexity. As shown in Table 3, we observe a notable  
498 performance drop without the flow-based model. Therefore, our unconditional flow-based model  
499  $f_\theta$  complements conditional base density  $q_\phi$  to estimate complex density distribution over human  
500 motions.

501 **Joint Learning.** We ablate the joint learning of the unconditional flow-based model  $f_\theta$  and the  
502 conditional base density  $q_\phi$ . The joint learning certainly improves both prediction errors and density  
503 estimation accuracy. The unconditional flow-based model  $f_\theta$  can learn a more clustered  $z$  mapped  
504 from the motion feature  $x$ . Thus, a conditional base density  $q_\phi$  can easily model the  $z$  distribution.

505 **Dataset for Precomputation.** We propose the precomputation over the training split. Specifically,  
506 we apply inverse transform  $z = f_\theta(x)$  to ground truth future motions in the training split. However,  
507 we may precompute infinite precomputation samples. For example, we can sample  $z \sim q_\phi(z|c)$  and  
508 obtain  $x$  by forward transform  $x = f_\theta(z)$ . As shown in the ablation, precomputation on the training  
509 split outperforms one on the base density since we can regularize the prediction to be legitimate  
510 human motions using the training split.

511 **Sampling Method.** We propose the nearest neighbor sampling from the precomputation set as  
512 described in Section 4.3. Lastly, we ablate this sampling to evaluate its performance gain. We  
513 experimented with two sampling method alternatives: random sampling and most likely sampling.  
514 Precomputed motion features  $x_{k^*}$  are uniformly selected as predictions with random sampling. Most  
515 likely sampling selects motion features  $x_{k^*}$  with the highest probabilities  $k^* = \text{argmax}_k p(x_k|c)$ . We  
516 found that the large and little performance drops with random and most likely sampling respectively.  
517 This random sampling is worse due to the independence from the past motions  $c$ . The most likely  
518 method underperforms due to less diverse samples. It cannot select a motion feature set with diversity  
519 because all selected features are often located in one peak of the estimated density. Since ADE  
520 and FDE are best-of-many metrics, this less diversity leads to worse performance. In contrast, our  
521 sampling method is superior to others. Our sampling incorporates past motions and achieves good  
522 diversity by simulating sampling from the estimated density  $p(x|c)$ .

## 523 C Visualization of Estimated Density

524 We visualized the future motion density estimated by CacheFlow. Since future motions are high-  
525 dimensional data, we used UMAP [49] to project each future motion into a 2D space. We displayed  
526 the multimodal ground truth future motions alongside the visualized density map. As shown in  
527 Figure 4, CacheFlow estimated a high probability around the ground truth in all motion sequences.  
528 This visually supports the high density estimation accuracy presented in Table 2.

## 529 D Potential Broader Impact

530 The proposed CacheFlow introduces a fast probability-aware motion prediction framework, which  
531 may involve the following broader impacts:

- 532 • **Improved Collaboration in Robotics and Automation.** In collaborative robotics and  
533 industrial automation, understanding and anticipating human motion is critical for ensuring  
534 safety and efficiency. The proposed system enables robots to predict human actions and  
535 movements with probabilistic confidence, allowing them to adjust their trajectories and  
536 tasks in real time. This leads to smoother coordination in shared workspaces such as  
537 manufacturing floors, warehouses, or hospitals, where humans and robots must work in  
538 close proximity.

539

- 540 • **Proactive Support in Assistive Technologies.** In assistive technologies for the elderly
- 541 and individuals with disabilities, anticipating human motion is essential for delivering
- 542 timely and meaningful support. A fast and uncertainty-aware human motion prediction
- 543 system enables robots and smart devices to proactively assist users by foreseeing movements
- 544 such as standing, walking, or reaching, even in the presence of noisy or partial sensor
- 545 data. Furthermore, such a system could help prevent falls or injuries by detecting signs of
- 546 instability and initiating interventions early.
- 547
- 548 • **Immersive Interactions in VR and Gaming.** Virtual reality (VR) and gaming systems
- 549 stand to benefit from predictive models that can estimate future body movements in real

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