### RANDOM WALKS TO SAMPLE UNIT QUATERNIONS

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Abstract. We study a random walk on the space of unit quaternions focusing on efficient implementation on hardware.

#### 1. INTRODUCTION

Points on spheres, rotations and quaternions. In this note we study a randomized variant of the low-discrepancy set on the unit 2-sphere constructed in [\[LPS86\]](#page-8-0), [\[LPS87\]](#page-8-1). While the applied math community is aware of the method of Lubotzky-Phillips-Sarnak, it is judged difficult to use in [\[Mit08\]](#page-8-2) since the point sets constructed grow exponentially. The proposed random walk avoids this disadvantage.

The constructed point sets are actually obtained from the natural maps

$$
\mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{R}) \to \text{SO}_3(\mathbb{R}) \to \mathbb{S}^2, \quad q \mapsto k \mapsto k.e_1
$$

where the first map is the two-fold cover of the group of orientation preserving rotations  $SO_3(\mathbb{R})$  by the space of unit quaternions  $\mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{R})$ . The unit quaternions on the other hand can be identified with the unit 3-sphere. A classical method to produce random points on the 3-sphere is due to Marsaglia [\[Mar72\]](#page-8-3). Random rotations are wildly used in computer graphics, and algorithms have been discussed in [\[Arv91\]](#page-7-0), [\[Arv92\]](#page-7-1), [\[Sho92\]](#page-8-4). They also become important in machine learning [\[Ale22\]](#page-7-2), [\[LSDW22\]](#page-8-5). For a recent overview for random rotations, we refer to [\[YJLM10\]](#page-8-6). The two dimensional sphere is also important in computer graphics in the advent of ray tracing, see e.g. [\[PJH23\]](#page-8-7) The current state-of-the-art low-discrepancy unit quaternions seems to be the Super-Fibonacci spirals [\[Ale22\]](#page-7-2).

Before we describe the algorithms in the next session we briefly recall the concept of quaternions. Mathematical proofs are deferred to two appendices.

Unit quaternions. We introduce the space of quaternions

$$
q = r + xi + yj + zk \in \mathbb{H}(\mathbb{R})
$$

where  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}$ . The vectors  $i, j, k$  represent the imaginary units satisfying the multiplication laws

$$
i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1, \quad ijk = -1.
$$

By linearity, these rules define a multiplication among quaternions. Using the norm of  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , the unit quaternions  $\mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{R})$  are those with

$$
||q||^2 = r^2 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = 1
$$

and thus define elements on the 3-sphere  $\mathbb{S}^3$ . Since for two quaternions  $q_1, q_2$  we have

$$
||q_1q_2|| = ||q_1|| ||q_2||,
$$

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the unit quaternions are closed under multiplication and thus provide  $\mathbb{S}^3$  with a group structure. It is common to split the real scalar and the 3-dimensional imaginary part of a quaternion: Let  $q_1 = r_1 + v_1$  and  $q_2 = r_2 + v_2$  then the multiplication rule is

$$
q_1q_2 = (r_1r_2 - \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle) + (r_1v_2 + r_2v_1 + v_1 \times v_2)
$$

where the  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  denotes the inner product and  $\times$  denotes the cross product.

#### 2. Random walk on quaternions

2.1. Quasi Monte Carlo method of LPS. Consider the following set of six unit quaternions,

$$
S_5 = \left\{ \frac{1 \pm 2i}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{1 \pm 2j}{\sqrt{5}}, \frac{1 \pm 2k}{\sqrt{5}} \right\}.
$$

Also consider all non-reducible words of length

$$
S_5^n = \{s_1...s_n: s_i \in S_5, s_{i+1} \neq s_i^{-1}\}
$$

Here we use the fact that  $S_5$  generates a free group, meaning that there are no additional relation between the  $s_i$  that cause a word in to collapse to the identity except for the inverses. Equivalently, the graph defined on the set of words in  $S_5$  with adjacency relations  $w \sim w'$ (meaning there is  $s \in S_5$  such that  $w' = sw$ ) forms a tree of degree 6.

The low discrepancy sequence introduced by LPS is the increasing sequence of balls inside this tree, i.e.  $Q_5^n = \sqcup_{k \leq m} S_5^k$ .

The associated rotations to  $S_5$  are

$$
\frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 & -4 \\ 0 & 4 & -3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -4 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} -3 & -4 & 0 \\ 4 & -3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}
$$

and their inverses. More generally, for any prime p which satisfies p mod  $4 = 1$  there exist exactly  $p + 1$  many integer quaternions of square norm p that will generate a free group of rank  $(p+1)/2$ . More precisely, there are  $8(p+1)$  integer quaternions on the sphere of square radius p. These come in pair of eights that are permutation in the coordinate coefficients and a global sign flip.

The next primes after  $p = 5$  satisfying this congruence condition are 13 and 17. The associated quaternions of norm 13 and 17 are

$$
S_{13} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{13}} \{ 1 \pm i \pm j \pm k, 3 \pm 2i, 3 \pm 2j, 3 \pm 2k \}
$$

and

$$
S_{17} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{17}} \{ 1 \pm 4i, 1 \pm 4j, 1 \pm 4k, 3 \pm 2i \pm 2j, 3 \pm 2j \pm 2k, 3 \pm 2k \pm 2i \}.
$$

2.2. **Simple random walk.** Here is a quick description of the random walk method using  $S_5$ . Fix a starting unit quaternion  $q_0$ , say  $q_0 = 1$ . Choose a random element  $q_1$  in  $S_5$  and multiply it with  $q_0$ :  $q_1q_0$ . This is the first *random* sample. Repeat for each new sample: Given the current state  $q_{n-1}q_{n-2} \ldots q_1q_0$ , choose a random  $q_n \in S_5$  to obtain the next sample

 $q_nq_{n-1}q_{n-2} \ldots q_1q_0.$ 

The pseudo-code is given in Algorithm [1.](#page-2-0)

Algorithm 1 Random quaternions (Simple random walk)

- <span id="page-2-0"></span>1: Initialization: Lookup table  $S_5$  // An array of six 4-dimensional vectors
- 2: Input: Current state  $q_{\text{current}}$
- 3: Output: Sample q in  $\mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{R})$
- 4: procedure Simple Random walk
- 5:  $i \leftarrow \text{random}(0, 5) // Random number in \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5\}$
- 6:  $s_i \leftarrow S_5[i]$
- 7:  $q \leftarrow s_i q_{\text{current}}$
- 8: return  $q$
- 9: end procedure

Algorithm 2 Random quaternions (Biased simple random walk)

1: **Initialization:** Lookup table  $S'_5 = [s_1, s_2, s_3, s_4, s_5, s_6, s_1, s_2]$ 

- 2: Input: Current state  $q_{\text{current}}$
- 3: Output: Sample q in  $\mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{R})$
- 4: procedure Biased simple random walk
- 5:  $i \leftarrow \text{random}(0, 7)$
- 6:  $s_i \leftarrow S'_5[i]$
- 7:  $q \leftarrow s_i q_{\text{current}}$
- 8: return q
- 9: end procedure

2.3. Biased walk. A slight nuisance that these numbers are not powers of two, where modulo calculation will be cheaper. Coming back to  $S_5$ , we can modify the algorithm by building a lookup table  $S_5^{\text{biased}}$  of size 8 where the last 2 elements are some duplicates of  $S_5$ . Taking a random element from this new array is equivalent of doing the random walk with biased weights. This walk will still give a sequence which asymptotically converges to the uniform measure on  $\mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{R})$ . The primes (1 mod 4) below some power of two are 5, 13, 29, 61, 113, 241, 509.

Algorithm 3 Random quaternions (Nonbacktracking random walk)

1: **Initialization:** Lookup table  $S_5'' = [s_1, s_2, s_3, s_1^{-1}, s_2^{-1}, s_3^{-1}]$ 2: **Input:** Current state  $q_{\text{current}}$  and last choice  $j$ 3: Output: Sample q in  $\mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{R})$ 4: procedure Nonbacktracking random walk 5:  $i \leftarrow (j + 4 + \text{random}(0, 4)) \mod 6$ 6:  $s_i \leftarrow S_5''[i]$ 7:  $q \leftarrow s_i q_{\text{current}}$ 8: return  $q$ 9: end procedure

2.4. **Nonbacktracking walk.** For small primes  $p$ , there is a high probability of seeing the same element that one saw two time steps ago. One can avoid this by restricting to nonbacktracking paths. We again start with at a point  $q_0$ . and move with equal probability to any of the 6 neighbors  $q_1q_0$  for  $q_1 \in S_5$ . For the next move, we restrict to  $q_2 \neq q_1^{-1}$ , the

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non-backtracking condition. This will hold for all future times  $n + 1$  as well:  $q_{n+1} \neq q_n^{-1}$ . The set of non-backtracking paths of length n starting at  $q_0$  is denoted by  $S_5^n q_0$ .

The non-backtracking walk will have to save the last step in its internal state. By using an ordering  $\{s_i\}$  of the elements in  $S_5$  in which the inverse of  $s_i$  is  $s_{(i+3) \text{mod} 6}$ , we can easily sample from the elements  $i + 4 + \{0, 1, 2, 3, 4\}$  mod 6 that won't take a step back.



```
1: Initialization: Lookup table S_5 and Q_{13}^22: Output: Sample q in \mathbb{H}^1(\mathbb{R})3: Internal State: MC state q_{\text{current}} and QMC-index k.
 4: procedure RQMC
 5: if k = 196 then
 6: i \leftarrow \text{random}(0, 6)7: k \leftarrow 08: s_i \leftarrow S_5[i]9: q_{\text{current}} \leftarrow s_i q_{\text{current}}10: return q_{\text{current}}11: else
12: q_i \leftarrow Q_{13}^2[k]13: k \leftarrow k + 114: return q_i q_{\text{current}}15: end if
16: end procedure
```
2.5. Randomized Markov Monte Carlo. So far we discussed the quasi-Monte Carlo method of LPS and discussed a Markov Chain Monte Carlo version by walking the tree randomly. One can combine both methods, by taking the replicated QMC sequences that are translated by some random amount. This allows to use confidence intervals from the random part but keep the error that of a QMC sequence. A survey of randomized QMC can be found in [\[Owe98\]](#page-8-8).

For example, we can walk according to the laws of  $S_5$  and at each step, take the QMC sequence  $Q_{13}^2 = S_{13} \sqcup S_{13}^2$ . Note that the cardinality of  $Q_{13}^2$  is  $14 + 14 * 13 = 196$ . The advantage of using two different primes is to avoid cancellations between the MC and QMC part.

2.6. Parallel Quasi Monte Carlo with shared memory. Suppose we wish to produce lots of samples on a parallel compute system. There is not a straight forward implementation of the random walk method without an explicit formula for the nth word given a list of choices (other than naive multiplication). Further, random walks of short length starting at the same position will produce the same elements.

To accommodate this difficulty, we first produce  $S_5^m$  store it in shared memory. We then produce samples by randomly calculating elements from  $S_5^m$ . Here we use  $m = 4$  (750) elements). We set serves as pool for random elements. Its relative large size ensures that there are not many common paths. Now each kernel will walk the walk individually. We skip the first three elements to ensure that a set of one million threads has 500 million different starting points.

Algorithm 5 Random quaternions (Parallel Quasi-Monte Carlo)

- 1: Initialization:  $S_5$ , Shared memory  $S_5^4$ 2: Input: i (Kernel id)
- 3: **Output:** Length  $k$ -array  $Q$  of quaternions per kernel
- 4: procedure Initialize shared memory

5:  $i_5 \leftarrow i/5$ 6:  $i_{25} \leftarrow i_{5}/5$ 7:  $i_{125} \leftarrow i_{25}/5$ 8:  $S_5^4[i] \leftarrow 1$ 9: Barrier 10:  $j \leftarrow i_{125}$  $11:$  $S_5^4[i] = S_5[j \mod 6] * S_5^4[i]$ 12: Barrier 13:  $j \leftarrow j + 4 + i_{25} \mod 5$  $14:$  $S_5^4[i] = S_5[j \mod 6] * S_5^4[i]$ 15: Barrier 16:  $j \leftarrow j + 4 + i_5 \mod 5$  $17:$  $S_5^4[i] = S_5[j \mod 6] * S_5^4[i]$ 18: Barrier 19:  $q[i] \leftarrow S_5^4[\text{random}(0, 750)] * S_5^4[\text{random}(0, 195)]$ 20: end procedure 21: procedure Parallel qmc 22: for  $l$  in 1... $k$  do 23:  $q[i] \leftarrow S_5^4[\text{random}(0, 750)] * q[i]$ 24:  $Q[i, k] \leftarrow q[i]$ 25: end for 26: end procedure

Naturally, the more elements each kernel produces in a loop, the better the offset of the initial cost to initialize the shared memory. To avoid modulus calculation, we could fill an array as large as the next power of two by adding elements from the next sphere in the tree. This can easily be done by initializing the shared memory with

shared\_memory[i] = i < 750 ? 1 : S\_5[0].

### Appendix A: On the the theorem of Lubotzky-Phillips-Sarnak

The method of LPS is summarized well in the Bourbaki Seminar [\[CdV88\]](#page-7-3) and discussed in book form in [\[Lub94b\]](#page-8-9), [\[Sar90\]](#page-8-10) from different point of views. Some further studies on the discrepancy can be found in [\[CF97\]](#page-7-4). Here we present the relevant theorems for this note.

Let G be a group acting via isometries on a metric space X. Let  $S \subset G$  be a finite subset of G. Suppose X is endowed with a probability measure  $\mu$  left invariant by G. Let  $L^2(X)$  be the Hilbert space of square integrable functions on X with respect to  $\mu$ . Define the averaging operator  $T_S$  on  $L^2(X)$  by

$$
T_S f(x) = \frac{1}{|S|} \sum_{\gamma \in S} f(\gamma x).
$$

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Then the operator norm  $||T_{S_p} - id||$  where  $id : f \mapsto f$  will measure how fast iterates  $T_{S_p}^n f$ converge to  $\mu(f)$  for any square-integrable f in  $L^2$ -norm.

Now specify  $G = SO_3(\mathbb{R}), X = \mathbb{S}^2 = SO_3(\mathbb{R})/SO_2(\mathbb{R}), \mu$  the normalized Lebesgue measure on  $\mathbb{S}^2$ .

Let p be a prime congruent to 1 mod 4. Consider those integer quaternions  $H(\mathbb{Z})$  whose square norm equals p. There are  $8(p+1)$  of those. Of those,  $p+1$ -many have their real part odd and positive. Normalize these elements to be unit quaternions. Denote the set of such elements by  $S_n$ :

$$
S_p = \left\{ \frac{q}{\sqrt{p}} \; : \; q = r + xi + yj + zk \in H(\mathbb{Z}), r^2 + x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = p, \; r = 1(2), \; r > 0 \right\}
$$

Every unit quaternion defines a rotation via by Adjoint representation of  $SU(2)$ . We identify  $S_p$  with its image under this representation. Then, for example,  $S_5$  corresponds to rotations around the x, y, z axis with an angle of  $\arccos(-\frac{2}{5}) \approx 2.21$  radians.

The associated operator  $T_{S_p}$  is known as Hecke operator. The main result of Lubotzky-Philips-Sarnak is the following spectral bound of the Hecke operator, which remarkably enough follows from Deligne's resolution of the Weil conjecture on the Riemann hypothesis over finite fields.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>**Theorem 2.1** ([\[LPS86\]](#page-8-0), Theorem 1.3).

$$
||T_{S_p} - id||_{L^2(X)} = \frac{2\sqrt{p}}{p+1}
$$

The set  $S_p$  is symmetric, i.e. if  $\gamma \in S_p$  then  $\gamma^{-1} \in S_p$ . Most importantly,  $S_p$  generates a free subgroup  $\Gamma_p$  inside  $\text{SO}_3(\mathbb{R})$  of rank  $\frac{p+1}{2}$ . Thus, the associated Cayley graph with generators  $S_p$  defined by the node set  $\Gamma_p$  and adjacency relations  $g \sim h$  if  $g = \gamma h$  for some  $\gamma \in S_p$  is a tree. In particular,  $T_{S_p}$  projects from the random walk on this tree. By a theorem of Kesten [\[Kes59\]](#page-8-11), the second largest eigenvalue of the Markov operator is at least  $2\sqrt{p+1}$  which is the lower bound in Theorem [2.1.](#page-5-0)

Theorem [2.1](#page-5-0) can be generalized twofold. First, let let  $S_p^n$  denote the set of reduced words in the alphabet  $S_p$  of length n. Equivalently, this is the sphere of radius n inside the Cayley graph. The cardinality of this set is  $N = (p+1)p^{n-1}$ .

Secondly, we can lift  $T_p$  and more generally the Hecke operator associated to  $S_p^n$  to SO<sub>3</sub>( $\mathbb{R}$ ): For  $f \in L^2$ (SO<sub>3</sub>( $\mathbb{R}$ )),

$$
T_{S_p^n} f(g) = \frac{1}{|S_p^n|} \sum_{\gamma \in S_p^n} f(\gamma g).
$$

Here  $SO_3(\mathbb{R})$  is equipped with the normalized Haar measure.

<span id="page-5-1"></span>**Theorem 2.2** ([\[Sar90\]](#page-8-10), Section 2.6). Let  $N = |S_p^n|$ .

$$
||T_{S_p^n} - id||_{L^2(\text{SO}_3(\mathbb{R}))} = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\log N}{N^{\frac{1}{2}}}\right)
$$

This Theorem [2.1](#page-5-0) implies the following low-discrepancy theorem.

**Theorem 2.3** ([\[LPS86\]](#page-8-0), Theorem 2.1; [\[CdV88\]](#page-7-3), Theorem D). Let  $N = |S_p^n|$ . Suppose  $D \subset \mathbb{S}^2$  has a  $C^1$  boundary. Then for any  $x_0 \in \mathbb{S}^2$ ,

$$
\left| \frac{1}{N} |\{\gamma \in S_p^n : \gamma x_0 \in D\}| - \frac{\text{area}(D)}{4\pi} \right| = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{\log N}{N^{\frac{1}{3}}}\right)
$$

Conjecturally,this bound can be improved to be  $\mathcal{O}(N^{-\frac{1}{2}-\varepsilon})$  ([\[LPS86\]](#page-8-0)[Conjecture 2.4]).

Lattice method of the LPS theorems. In [\[LPS87\]](#page-8-1) the lattice method for the analysis of Hecke operators is introduced. This allows to give a very quick proof for Theorem [2.1](#page-5-0) and Theorem [2.2](#page-5-1) which we now outline. The group of unit quaternions modulo its center defines an algebraic group G such that  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{R}) \simeq \text{SO}_3(\mathbb{R})$  and  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Q}_p) \simeq \text{PGL}_2(\mathbb{Q}_p)$ . Here  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  denote the p-adic numbers. There is a cover of  $SO_3(\mathbb{R})$  (modulo the finite group of permutations) by the S-adic space  $X = \mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{p}]) \backslash \mathbb{G}(\mathbb{R}) \times \mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Q}_p)$ , see [\[Lub94a\]](#page-8-12). The fiber is the compact group  $K_p = \mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}_p)$  where  $\mathbb{Z}_p$  denote the *p*-adic integers. Moreover, at every point x, the orbit of  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Q}_p).x$  is a tree. The Hecke operator  $T_p$  can be lifted from  $L^2(SO_3(\mathbb{R}))$  to  $L^2(X)$ . There, it acts by convolution with the characteristic function  $\chi$  of the set  $\cup_{\gamma \in S_p} K_p \gamma = K_p a K_p$ where  $a = \text{diag}(p, 1) \in \text{PGL}_2(\mathbb{Q}_p)$ . This set correspond to the first sphere of the tree. More generally,  $\Box_{\gamma \in S_p^n} K_p \gamma = K_p a^n K_p$ . The spectral gap of  $T_p$  then translates directly into decay of matrix coefficients for the action of a, which is bounded by  $\sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}$  [\[COU01\]](#page-7-5).

### Appendix B: Law of large numbers and a central limit theorem

The  $L^2$  bounds on the Hecke operators imply analogous bounds for the  $L^{\infty}$  norm, see [\[GM03\]](#page-8-13), [\[CU04\]](#page-7-6). Thus, there exists  $\theta > 0$  such that for every g, every Lipschitz function f on  $SO_3(\mathbb{R}),$ 

$$
\left|T_p^n(f)(g) - \mu(f)\right| = \mathcal{O}_f(\theta^n)
$$

and a similar bound holds for  $T_{S_p^n}$  instead of  $T_p^n$ .

We wish to show the law of large numbers for the sum of random variables  $f(\gamma_k \dots \gamma_1 g)$ :

$$
Y_n(\gamma_1,\ldots,\gamma_n):=\frac{1}{n}\left(f(\gamma_1g)+f(\gamma_2\gamma_1g)+\cdots+f(\gamma_n\ldots\gamma_1g)\right)
$$

where  $\gamma_i$  is chosen uniformly from  $S_p \setminus {\gamma_i}$  (non-backtracking random walk) or uniformly among  $S_p$  (simple random walk).

For brevity, we restrict now to the simple random walk. Let  $\nu$  be the uniform measure on  $S_p$ . This is the law of the walk. The space of all paths is  $S_p^{\otimes N}$  carrying the Bernoulli measure  $\beta = \nu^{\otimes \mathbb{N}}$ . The expectation  $\mathbb E$  of  $Y_n$  with respect to  $\beta$  is

$$
\mathbb{E}[nY_n] = \frac{1}{(p+1)^n} \sum_{\gamma_1,\ldots,\gamma_n} Y_n(\gamma_1,\ldots,\gamma_n) = Tf(g) + T^2 f(g) + \cdots + T^n f(g)
$$

Applying the above operator bound,

$$
\mathbb{E}[Y_n] = \mu(f) + \mathcal{O}(n^{-1})
$$

since the error term sum to a geometric series bounded by a constant. Analogously one shows that the variance behaves like  $Var[Y_n] = (\mu(f^2) - \mu(f)^2)n^{-1} + \mathcal{O}(n^{-2})$ , using that if  $k > \ell$  then  $T_p^k(f)T_p^{\ell}(f) = T_p^{\ell}(fT^{k-\ell}f).$ 

The pointwise convergence of  $T_p^n$  implies that for any continuous function f, and any  $T_p$ -invariant probability measure on  $\mu'$  on  $SO_3(\mathbb{R})$ , we have  $\mu'(f) = \mu(f)$ . It follows from Breiman's Law of Large Numbers Theorem for Markov chains [\[Bre60\]](#page-7-7), see also [\[BQ16\]](#page-7-8)[Section 3.2], which applies to both the simple random walk and the non-back tracking walk:

$$
Y_n \to \mu(f).
$$

We also deduce the central limit theorem, see [\[DS23\]](#page-7-9), writing  $\beta = \mathbb{P}$ ,

$$
\mathbb{P}\left[\frac{Y_n - \mathbb{E}[Y_n]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[Y_n]}} \in (a, b)\right] \to \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_a^b e^{-t^2/2} dt.
$$

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By the previous estimates, the fraction in the LHS is  $\sqrt{n}(Y_N - \mu(f))$  which gives the usual form of the CLT. We note that related aspects of equidistribution properties of quaternions have been studied in [\[EMV13\]](#page-7-10), [\[Kha17\]](#page-8-14) and [\[Wie19\]](#page-8-15).

Convergence of the biased walk. The spectral gap for the uniform averaging operator implies the spectral gap for small biases from general perturbation theory [\[Kat13\]](#page-8-16). Rigidity of the underlying group action implies spectral gap for arbitrary positive weights, [\[FS99\]](#page-8-17). Convergence can also directly deduced from the recent breakthrough of Benoist-Quint in their study of stationary measures for Lie group action on homogeneous spaces [\[BQ13\]](#page-7-11). They show that given a Lie group G and a lattice  $\Gamma$  in G (i.e. a closed discrete subgroup such that  $G/\Gamma$  has finite volume using the measure induced from Haar on G), a law  $\mu$ supported on G such that the support of  $\mu$  is dense in G. Then for any  $x \in G/\Gamma$ , then for almost every choice of  $g_1, g_2,...$ , where  $g_i$  is sampled according to i.i.d. sampled from  $\mu$ ,

$$
\frac{1}{n}\sum_{k=1}^n \delta_{g_k...g_1.x} \to m_{G/\Gamma}.
$$

Here, almost every choice means almost surely with respect to the Bernoulli measure  $\mu^{\otimes N}$ .

This theorem holds true more generally for S-adic group, in particular for  $\mathbb{G}(\mathbb{Z}[\frac{1}{p}])$  acting on X as defined above. This shows that the biased random walk converges. Recently, a Markov Chain version of the theorem of Benoist-Quint has been obtained [\[PS20\]](#page-8-18). While that paper only deals with real Lie group, the S-adic case is likely to hold. This would imply convergence of the biased non-backtracking walk.

Acknowledgement. The author thanks Omri Sarig, Barak Weiss and Miri Ben-Chen helpful references. This work was supported by the ISF 264/22 during his time at the Weizmann Institute of Science. The author is greatful to Omri Sarig for his hospitality.

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