

## Random multiplicative functions: the Selberg-Delange class

Marco Aymone\*

### Abstract

Let  $1/2 \leq \beta < 1$ ,  $p$  be a generic prime number and  $f_\beta$  be a random multiplicative function supported on the squarefree integers such that  $(f_\beta(p))_p$  is an i.i.d. sequence of random variables with distribution  $\mathbb{P}(f(p) = -1) = \beta = 1 - \mathbb{P}(f(p) = +1)$ . Let  $F_\beta$  be the Dirichlet series of  $f_\beta$ . We prove a formula involving measure-preserving transformations that relates the Riemann  $\zeta$  function with the Dirichlet series of  $F_\beta$ , for certain values of  $\beta$ , and give an application. Further, we prove that the Riemann hypothesis is connected with the mean behavior of a certain weighted partial sum of  $f_\beta$ .

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## 1 Introduction.

We say that  $f : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is a multiplicative function if  $f(nm) = f(n)f(m)$  for all non-negative integers  $n$  and  $m$  with  $\gcd(n, m) = 1$ , and that  $f$  has support on the squarefree integers if for any prime  $p$  and any integer power  $k \geq 2$ ,  $f(p^k) = 0$ . An important example of such functions is the Möbius function  $\mu$ , which is the multiplicative function supported on the squarefree integers such that the value at each prime  $p$  is  $-1$ .

Many important problems in Analytic Number Theory can be rephrased in terms of the mean behavior of the partial sums of multiplicative functions. For instance, the Riemann hypothesis – the statement that all the non-trivial zeros of the Riemann  $\zeta$  function have real part equal to  $1/2$  – is equivalent to the statement that the partial sums of the Möbius function have square root cancellation, that is,  $\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n)$  is  $O_\epsilon(x^{1/2+\epsilon})$ , for all  $\epsilon > 0$ . In this direction, the best unconditional result up to date is of the type  $\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) = O(x \exp(-c(\log x)^{3/5}(\log \log x)^{1/5}))$ , for some constant  $c > 0$  (see Ivić [7], pp. 309-315). Any improvement of the type  $\sum_{n \leq x} \mu(n) = O(x^{1-\epsilon})$  for some  $\epsilon > 0$  would be a huge breakthrough in Analytic Number Theory, since it would imply that the Riemann  $\zeta$  function has no zeros with real part greater than  $1 - \epsilon$ .

This equivalence between the Riemann hypothesis with the mean behavior of the partial sums of the Möbius function led Wintner [12] to investigate the behavior of a random model  $f$  for the Möbius function. This random model  $f$  is defined as follows:  $f$  is a random multiplicative function supported on the squarefree integers such that  $(f(p))_{p \in \mathcal{P}}$  (here  $\mathcal{P}$  stands for the set of primes) is an i.i.d. sequence of random variables with distribution  $\mathbb{P}(f(p) = -1) = \mathbb{P}(f(p) = +1) = 1/2$ . It is important to observe

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\*UFMG, Brazil. E-mail: aymone.marco@gmail.com

that the sequence  $(f(n))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is highly dependent; for instance, since  $30 = 2 \times 3 \times 5$ , we have that  $f(30)$  depends on the values  $f(2)$ ,  $f(3)$  and  $f(5)$ . Wintner proved the square root cancellation for the partial sums of  $f$ , that is,  $\sum_{n \leq x} f(n) = O(x^{1/2+\epsilon})$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , almost surely, and hence the assertion that *the Riemann hypothesis is almost always true*. This upper bound has been improved several times: [2], [4], [5] and [8]. The best upper bound up to date is due to Lau, Tenenbaum and Wu [8], which states that  $\sum_{n \leq x} f(n) = O(\sqrt{x}(\log \log x)^{2+\epsilon})$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , almost surely, and the best  $\Omega$  result is due to the recent result of Harper [6] which states that for any function  $V(x)$  tending to infinity with  $x$ , there almost surely exist arbitrarily large values of  $x$  for which  $|\sum_{n \leq x} f(n)| \geq \sqrt{x} \frac{(\log \log x)^{1/4}}{V(x)}$ .

Here we consider a slight different model for the Möbius function. We start with a parameter  $1/2 \leq \beta \leq 1$  and consider a random multiplicative function  $f_\beta$  supported on the squarefree integers and such that  $(f_\beta(p))_{p \in \mathcal{P}}$  is an i.i.d. sequence of random variables with  $\mathbb{P}(f_\beta(p) = -1) = \beta = 1 - \mathbb{P}(f_\beta(p) = +1)$ . For  $\beta = 1/2$ , we recover the Wintner's model; for  $\beta = 1$ ,  $f_1 = \mu$ ; for  $\beta < 1$ ,  $f_\beta(n)$  is equal to  $\mu(n)$  with high probability as  $\beta$  is taken to be close to 1. In this paper we are interested in the following questions.

*Question 1.* What can be said about the partial sums  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_\beta(n)$  for  $1/2 < \beta < 1$ ? Do they have square root cancellation as in Wintner's model and as we expect for the Möbius function under the Riemann hypothesis?

*Question 2.* If the partial sums  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_\beta(n)$  are  $O(x^{1-\delta})$  for some  $\delta > 0$ , almost surely, then can we say something about the partial sums of the Möbius function?

Considering the first question, observe that  $\mathbb{E}f_\beta(p) = 1 - 2\beta$ , and thus, we might say that at primes,  $f_\beta(p)$  is equal to  $1 - 2\beta$  on average. In the case  $1/2 < \beta < 1$  the partial sums  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_\beta(n)$  are well understood by the Selberg-Delange method, see the book of Tenenbaum [11] chapter II.5. Indeed, in the case that  $1/2 < \beta < 1$ , one can check that the Dirichlet series of  $f_\beta$ , say  $F_\beta$ , satisfies the required set of axioms for the Selberg-Delange method in [11] to apply. The most difficult to check is an upper bound in vertical strips for a random Dirichlet series with independent and mean zero summands  $\sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{X_n}{n^s}$ , which has been done in [1]. Thus, the following holds almost surely

$$\sum_{n \leq x} f_\beta(n) = (c_{f_\beta} + o(1)) \frac{x}{(\log x)^{2\beta}},$$

as  $x \rightarrow \infty$ , where  $c_{f_\beta}$  is a random constant which is positive almost surely. In particular, this implies that  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_\beta(n)$  is not  $O(x^{1-\delta})$ , for any  $\delta > 0$ , almost surely. This answers negatively to our question 1.

Here we provide a more probabilistic proof that we do not have square root cancellation for  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_\beta(n)$  for certain values of  $\beta$ , almost surely. Further, by considering the question 2, we show that the Riemann hypothesis is equivalent to the square root cancellation of certain weighted partial sums of  $f_\beta$ .

Before we state our results, let us introduce some notation. Given a probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$ , let  $\omega$  be a generic element of  $\Omega$ , and  $T : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  be a measure-preserving transformation, i.e.,  $\mathbb{P}(T^{-1}(A)) = \mathbb{P}(A)$ , for all  $A \in \mathcal{F}$ . We look at the random multiplicative function  $f_\beta$  defined over the probability space  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  as a function  $f_\beta : \mathbb{N} \times \Omega \rightarrow \{-1, 0, 1\}$ , that is,  $f_\beta(n)$  is a random variable such that  $f_\beta(n, \omega) \in \{-1, 0, 1\}$ . Moreover, the Dirichlet series of  $f_\beta$ , say  $F_\beta(s) := \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{f_\beta(n)}{n^s}$ , is a random analytic function over the half plane  $\mathbb{H}_1 := \{s \in \mathbb{C} : \text{Re}(s) > 1\}$ , that is  $F_\beta : \mathbb{H}_1 \times \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  is such that  $F_\beta(s, \omega) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{f_\beta(n, \omega)}{n^s}$  is analytic in the half plane  $\mathbb{H}_1$ , for all  $\omega \in \Omega$ .

**Theorem 1.1.** *Let  $n \geq 1$  be an integer,  $\beta = 1 - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$ , and  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathbb{P})$  be a certain probability space where it is defined  $f_\beta$  for all values of  $\beta \in [1/2, 1]$ . Let  $F_\beta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{f_\beta(n)}{n^s}$ . Then there exists a measure-preserving transformation  $T : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  such that  $T^{2^n} = \text{identity}$*

and such that the following formula holds for all  $Re(s) > 1$  and all  $\omega \in \Omega$ :

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(s)^{2^n-1}} = \frac{1}{F_{1/2}(s, \omega)} \prod_{k=1}^{2^n} F_{\beta}(s, T^k \omega). \tag{1.1}$$

In particular, if  $\beta = 3/4$ , we have

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(s)} = \frac{F_{3/4}(s, \omega) F_{3/4}(s, T\omega)}{F_{1/2}(s, \omega)}.$$

**Corollary 1.2.** *For an integer  $n \geq 1$  and  $\beta = 1 - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$ , we have that for any  $\delta > 0$ ,  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_{\beta}(n)$  is not  $O(x^{1-\delta})$  almost surely.*

The proof of corollary 1.2 utilizes the fact that the event in which  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_{\beta}(n) = O(x^{1-\delta})$  is contained in the event in which the Dirichlet series  $F_{\beta}(s)$  has analytic continuation to  $\{Re(s) > 1 - \delta\}$ , from which, one can easily check that for  $\beta > 1/2$ ,  $F_{\beta}(1) = 0$  almost surely. In Wintner’s proof [12] of the square root cancellation of  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_{1/2}(n)$ , it has been proved that  $F_{1/2}(s)$  is almost surely a non-vanishing analytic function over the half plane  $\{Re(s) > 1/2\}$ . Thus, as  $T$  preserves measure, the left side of (1.1) has a zero of multiplicity  $2^n - 1$  at  $s = 1$  while the right side of the same equation has a zero of multiplicity at least  $2^n$  at the same point, which is a contradiction, and hence the event in which  $F_{\beta}(s)$  has analytic continuation to  $\{Re(s) > 1 - \delta\}$  can not hold with probability 1. Moreover, by the Euler product formula for  $Re(s) > 1$

$$F_{\beta}(s) = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \left( 1 + \frac{f_{\beta}(p)}{p^s} \right), \tag{1.2}$$

we see that the event in which  $F_{\beta}$  has analytic continuation to  $\{Re(s) > 1 - \delta\}$  is a tail event, in the sense that it does not depend in any outcome on a finite number of the random variables  $f_{\beta}(p_1), \dots, f_{\beta}(p_r)$ , where  $p_1, \dots, p_r$  are primes. The Kolmogorov zero-one law states that each tail event has probability either equal to 0 or to 1. Thus, the event in which  $F_{\beta}$  has analytic continuation to  $\{Re(s) > 1 - \delta\}$  has probability 0, and hence the event in which  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_{\beta}(n) = O(x^{1-\delta})$  also has probability 0.

Now we turn our attention to Question 2. As mentioned above, the event in which  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_{\beta}(n) = O(x^{1-\delta})$  for some  $\delta > 0$  has probability 0. However, we can obtain an equivalence between the Riemann hypothesis and the mean behavior of certain weighted partial sums of  $f_{\beta}$ . Before we state our next result, let  $\omega(n)$  be the number of distinct primes that divide  $n$ .

**Theorem 1.3.** *The Riemann hypothesis is equivalent to the following statement:*

$$\sum_{n \leq x} (2\beta - 1)^{-\omega(n)} f_{\beta}(n) = O(x^{1/2+\epsilon}),$$

for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $x$  sufficiently large with respect to  $\epsilon$ , almost surely, for each  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} < \beta < 1$ .

Here we describe the proof of Theorem 1.3. For all  $Re(s) > 1$ , we have the following formula:

$$\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(2\beta - 1)^{-\omega(n)} f_{\beta}(n)}{n^s} = \frac{1}{\zeta(s)} \exp \left( \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{(2\beta - 1)^{-1} f_{\beta}(p) + 1}{p^s} + C_{\beta}(s) \right), \tag{1.3}$$

where  $C_{\beta}(\cdot)$  is a random function that is analytic almost surely in the half plane  $Re(s) > 1/2$  for each  $\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} < \beta < 1$ . If  $\sum_{n \leq x} (2\beta - 1)^{-\omega(n)} f_{\beta}(n) = O(x^{1/2+\epsilon})$ , for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , almost

surely, then the function on the left-hand side of (1.3) is almost surely an analytic function in the half plane  $Re(s) > 1/2$ , and then we can conclude that  $1/\zeta(s)$  must be analytic in the same half plane, which implies the Riemann hypothesis. Now if the Riemann hypothesis is true, then the right-hand side of (1.3) is almost surely an analytic function in the half plane  $Re(s) > 1/2$ , which gives that the left-hand side of (1.3) has analytic continuation to  $Re(s) > 1/2$ , almost surely. It is noteworthy to notice that the existence of analytic continuation does not necessarily imply the convergence of a Dirichlet series. For instance, we have that  $\eta(s) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{n+1}}{n^s}$  has analytic continuation to all of the complex plane and converges only in the half plane  $Re(s) > 0$ . However, in our case, we have the extra information that under the Riemann hypothesis, for all  $\sigma \geq \sigma_0 > 1/2$  and all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $1/\zeta(\sigma + it) = O_{\sigma_0, \epsilon}(t^{-\epsilon})$ , for all  $\epsilon > 0$ , where the implicit constant in  $O_{\sigma_0, \epsilon}$  depends only on  $\sigma_0$  and  $\epsilon$ . Next, by Perron's formula, we can show that if a certain Dirichlet series has analytic continuation to a larger half plane, and in this half plane satisfies the  $O(t^\epsilon)$ -bound above, then this series converges in this larger half plane. Thus, all we need to do is to bound the random Dirichlet series over primes  $P(s) := \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{(2\beta-1)^{-1} f_\beta(p)+1}{p^s}$  in vertical strips. More precisely, we need to verify a bound roughly of the type  $P(\sigma + it) = o(\log t)$ , for each fixed  $\sigma > 1/2$ , almost surely. This has been done by Carlson for Rademacher summands in [3], where he showed the almost sure bound  $O(\sqrt{\log t})$ , and then improved to  $O((\log t)^{1-\sigma} \log \log t)$  and to general random variables satisfying some moment conditions by Sidoravicius and the author in [1].

## 2 Preliminaries

### 2.1 Notations

Here we let  $p$  denote a generic prime number and  $\mathcal{P}$  the set of primes. We use  $f(x) \ll g(x)$  and  $f(x) = O(g(x))$  whenever there exists a constant  $c > 0$  such that  $|f(x)| \leq c|g(x)|$ , for all  $x$  in a certain set  $X$  – This set  $X$  could be all the interval  $[1, \infty)$  or  $(a - \delta, a + \delta)$ ,  $a \in \mathbb{R}, \delta > 0$ . We say that  $f(x) = o(g(x))$  if  $\lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} \frac{f(x)}{g(x)} = 0$ . The notation  $d|n$  means that  $d$  divides  $n$ . Here  $*$  stands for the Dirichlet convolution  $(f * g)(n) := \sum_{d|n} f(d)g(n/d)$ . We denote  $\omega(n) = \sum_{p|n} 1$ , that is, the number of distinct primes that divide  $n$ . In some contexts, the letter  $\omega$  will also denote a random element of a certain set of realizations  $\Omega$ .

## 3 Proof of the results

### 3.1 Construction of the probability space

We let  $\mathcal{P}$  be the set of primes,  $\Omega = [0, 1]^{\mathcal{P}} = \{\omega = (\omega_p)_{p \in \mathcal{P}} : \omega_p \in [0, 1] \text{ for all } p\}$ ,  $\mathcal{F}$  the Borel sigma algebra of  $\Omega$  and  $\mathbb{P}$  be the Lebesgue measure in  $\mathcal{F}$ . We set  $f_\beta(p)$  as

$$f_\beta(p, \omega_p) = -\mathbb{1}_{[0, \beta]}(\omega_p) + \mathbb{1}_{(\beta, 1]}(\omega_p).$$

It follows that  $(f_\beta(p))_{p \in \mathcal{P}}$  are i.i.d. with distribution  $\mathbb{P}(f_\beta(p) = -1) = \beta = 1 - \mathbb{P}(f_\beta(p) = +1)$ . Also, we say that  $f_\beta$  are uniformly coupled for different values of  $\beta$ , since  $f_\beta(p)$  can be written as  $f_\beta(p) = \lambda(U_p, \beta)$ , where  $\lambda$  is a function  $\lambda : [0, 1]^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $U_p$  is a random variable with uniform distribution on the interval  $[0, 1]$ .

### 3.2 Construction of the measure-preserving transformation

Now if  $\beta = 1 - \frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$  with  $n \geq 1$  an integer, we partitionate the interval  $[1/2, 1]$  into  $2^n$  subintervals  $I_k = (a_{k-1}, a_k]$  of length  $\frac{1}{2^{n+1}}$  and with endpoints  $a_k = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{k}{2^{n+1}}$ . It follows that  $a_0 = 1/2$ ,  $a_{2^n-1} = \beta$  and  $a_{2^n} = 1$ .

Let  $T_p : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  be the following interval exchange transformation: for  $\omega_p \in [0, 1/2]$ ,  $T_p(\omega_p) = \omega_p$ ; in each interval  $I_k$  as above the restriction  $T_p|_{I_k}$  is a translation;

$T_p(I_1) = I_{2^n}$  and for  $k \geq 2$ ,  $T_p(I_k) = I_{k-1}$ . It follows that the  $k$ th iterate  $T_p^k(I_k) = I_{2^n}$  and  $T_p^{2^n}$  is the identity. Also, for each prime  $p$ ,  $T_p$  and its iterates preserve the Lebesgue measure and hence,  $T : \Omega \rightarrow \Omega$  defined by  $T\omega := (T_p(\omega_p))_{p \in \mathcal{P}}$  preserves  $\mathbb{P}$ , and so do its iterates.

**3.3 Proof of Theorem 1.1**

*Proof.* We let  $F_\beta$  be the Dirichlet series of  $f_\beta$  and  $I_k = (a_{k-1}, a_k]$  be as above. Notice that  $a_0 = 1/2$  and  $a_{2^n} = 1$ , and hence  $F_{a_0} = F_{1/2}$  and  $F_{a_{2^n}} = F_1 = \frac{1}{\zeta}$ . Observe that

$$F_{1/2}\zeta = \frac{F_{a_0}}{F_{a_{2^n}}} = \frac{F_{a_0}}{F_{a_1}} \cdot \frac{F_{a_1}}{F_{a_2}} \cdot \dots \cdot \frac{F_{a_{2^{n-1}}}}{F_{a_{2^n}}}.$$

Now, by the Euler product formula (1.2), we have that for all  $Re(s) > 1$

$$\frac{F_{a_k}}{F_{a_{k+1}}}(s, \omega) = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1 + \frac{f_{a_k}(p, \omega_p)}{p^s}}{1 + \frac{f_{a_{k+1}}(p, \omega_p)}{p^s}} = \prod_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{p^s + \mathbb{1}_{I_{k+1}}(\omega_p)}{p^s - \mathbb{1}_{I_{k+1}}(\omega_p)}.$$

Thus, as all intervals  $I_k$  have same length, we see that each  $\frac{F_{a_k}}{F_{a_{k+1}}}$  is equal in probability distribution to the last  $\frac{F_{a_{2^n-1}}}{F_{a_{2^n}}}$ . Moreover, if  $T$  is as above, since  $\mathbb{1}_{I_k}(\omega_p) = \mathbb{1}_{I_{2^n}} \circ T_p^k(\omega_p)$ , we have that

$$\frac{F_{a_k}}{F_{a_{k+1}}}(s, \omega) = \frac{F_{a_{2^n-1}}}{F_{a_{2^n}}}(s, T^{k+1}\omega) = F_\beta(s, T^{k+1}\omega)\zeta(s).$$

Thus

$$F_{1/2}(s, \omega)\zeta(s) = \zeta(s)^{2^n} \prod_{k=1}^{2^n} F_\beta(s, T^k\omega),$$

which concludes the proof. □

**3.4 Proof of Corollary 1.2**

*Proof.* A standard result about Dirichlet series is that the Dirichlet series of an arithmetic function  $f$ , say  $F(s)$ , is the Mellin transform of the partial sums of  $f$ . Indeed, we have that for  $s$  in the half plane of convergence of  $F(s)$ ,

$$F(s) = s \int_1^\infty \frac{\sum_{n \leq x} f(n)}{x^{s+1}} dx.$$

Thus, we can conclude that the event in which the partial sums  $\sum_{n \leq x} f(n)$  are  $O(x^\alpha)$  is contained in the event in which the Dirichlet series  $F(s) := \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{f(n)}{n^s}$  is analytic in the half plane  $\{Re(s) > \alpha\}$ . Thus, under the assumption that  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_\beta(n) = O(x^{1-\delta})$  almost surely, we have that  $F_\beta(s) = \sum_{n=1}^\infty \frac{f_\beta(n)}{n^s}$  has analytic continuation to the half plane  $\{Re(s) > 1 - \delta\}$  almost surely. Moreover, we can check that  $F_\beta(1) = 0$  almost surely. Indeed, by taking the logarithm of the Euler product formula (1.2) and then using Taylor expansion for each logarithm, we see that

$$F_\beta(s) = \exp \left( \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{f_\beta(p)}{p^s} + A_\beta(s) \right), \tag{3.1}$$

where  $A_\beta(s) = O_{\sigma_0}(1)$  for all  $Re(s) \geq \sigma_0 > 1/2$ . Since  $\mathbb{E}f_\beta(p) = 1 - 2\beta < 0$  for all primes  $p$ , we have by the Kolmogorov two series theorem that  $\lim_{s \rightarrow 1^+} \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{f_\beta(p)}{p^s} = -\infty$  almost surely, and hence,  $\lim_{s \rightarrow 1^+} F_\beta(s) = 0$  almost surely.

If  $T$  is the measure-preserving transformation as in Theorem 1.1, then the same is almost surely true for  $F_\beta(s, T^k\omega)$ . Further, in the Wintner's proof [12] of the square root cancellation of  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_{1/2}(n)$ , it has been proved that  $F_{1/2}(s)$  is almost surely a non-vanishing analytic function over the half plane  $\{Re(s) > 1/2\}$ . Indeed, this can be proved by the formula (3.1).

A well known fact is that the Riemann  $\zeta$  function has a simple pole at  $s = 1$ , and hence,  $\frac{1}{\zeta(s)}$  has a simple zero at the same point. Moreover, we recall that if an analytic function  $G$  has a zero at  $s = s_0$ , then there exists a non-vanishing analytic function  $H$  at  $s = s_0$  and a non-negative integer  $m$ , called the multiplicity of the zero  $s_0$ , such that  $G(s) = (s - s_0)^m H(s)$ . Thus the left-hand side of

$$\frac{1}{\zeta(s)^{2^n-1}} = \frac{1}{F_{1/2}(s, \omega)} \prod_{k=1}^{2^n} F_\beta(s, T^k\omega)$$

has a zero of multiplicity  $2^n - 1$  at  $s = 1$ , while the right-hand side of the same equation has a zero of multiplicity at least  $2^n$  at the same point, almost surely, which is a contradiction. Thus we see that the probability of the event in which  $F_\beta(s)$  has analytic continuation to  $Re(s) > 1 - \delta$  is strictly less than one. Now we can check by the Euler product formula (1.2) that the event in which  $F_\beta$  has analytic continuation to  $Re(s) > 1 - \delta$  is a tail event for  $\delta < 1$ , i.e., whether  $F_\beta$  has analytic continuation to  $\{Re(s) > 1 - \delta\}$  does not depend in any outcome of a finite number of random variables  $\{f_\beta(p) : p \leq y\}$ . Indeed, we can write

$$F_\beta(s) = \prod_{p \leq y} \left(1 + \frac{f_\beta(p)}{p^s}\right) \prod_{p > y} \left(1 + \frac{f_\beta(p)}{p^s}\right),$$

and since  $\prod_{p \leq y} \left(1 + \frac{f_\beta(p)}{p^s}\right)$  is a non-vanishing analytic function in  $Re(s) > 0$ , we obtain that  $F_\beta(s)$  has analytic continuation to  $Re(s) > 1 - \delta$  ( $\delta < 1$ ) if and only if  $X_y(s) := \prod_{p > y} \left(1 + \frac{f_\beta(p)}{p^s}\right)$  has analytic continuation to the same half plane. Since  $X_y(s)$  is independent of  $\{f_\beta(p) : p \leq y, p \in \mathcal{P}\}$  and the random variables  $(f_\beta(p))_{p \in \mathcal{P}}$  are independent, we conclude that the event in which  $F_\beta$  has analytic continuation to  $\{Re(s) > 1 - \delta\}$  is a tail event.

Thus by the Kolmogorov zero-one law, we have that the probability that  $F_\beta$  has analytic continuation to  $\{Re(s) > 1 - \delta\}$  is zero, and hence the probability of  $\sum_{n \leq x} f_\beta(n) = O(x^{1-\delta})$  is also zero.  $\square$

### 3.5 Proof of Theorem 1.3

*Proof.* We begin by observing that the function  $g_\beta(n) := (2\beta - 1)^{-\omega(n)} f_\beta(n)$  is multiplicative and supported on the squarefree integers. Moreover, at each prime  $p$ ,  $g_\beta(p) = \frac{f_\beta(p)}{2^\beta - 1}$ , and hence  $\mathbb{E}g_\beta(p) = -1$ . If  $\beta > \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}$ , we have that

$$A_\beta(s) := \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \sum_{m=2}^{\infty} \frac{(-1)^{m+1} g_\beta(p)^m}{m p^{ms}}$$

converges absolutely for all  $Re(s) > 1/2$  and hence defines a random analytic function in this half plane. Moreover,  $A_\beta(s) = O_{\sigma_0}(1)$  uniformly for all  $Re(s) \geq \sigma_0 > 1/2$ . Thus, by the Euler product formula (1.2) for  $g_\beta$ , we have that the Dirichlet series  $G_\beta(s) := \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{g_\beta(n)}{n^s}$  can be represented in the half plane  $Re(s) > 1$  as

$$G_\beta(s) = \exp \left( \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{g_\beta(p)}{p^s} + A_\beta(s) \right).$$

Moreover, by the same argument, there exists an analytic function  $B(s)$  with the same properties of  $A_\beta(s)$  such that

$$\zeta(s) = \exp \left( \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{1}{p^s} + B(s) \right).$$

Now observe that

$$H_\beta(s) := G_\beta(s)\zeta(s) = \exp \left( \sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{g_\beta(p) + 1}{p^s} + A_\beta(s) + B(s) \right).$$

Now, by the Kolmogorov two series theorem,  $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{g_\beta(p)+1}{p^s}$  converges almost surely for all  $\text{Re}(s) > 1/2$  and hence it defines, almost surely, a random analytic function in this half plane. Moreover, by Theorem 3.1 of [1], for fixed  $1/2 < \sigma \leq 1$ , we have that for all large  $t > 0$ ,  $\sum_{p \in \mathcal{P}} \frac{g_\beta(p)+1}{p^{\sigma+it}} \ll (\log t)^{1-\sigma} \log \log t$ , almost surely. Thus, for each fixed  $1/2 < \sigma$ , we have

$$H_\beta(\sigma + it), 1/H_\beta(\sigma + it) \ll t^\epsilon,$$

for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $t$  sufficiently large with respect to  $\epsilon$ , almost surely. A well known consequence of the Riemann hypothesis, is that  $1/\zeta(s)$  has analytic continuation to  $\text{Re}(s) > 1/2$  and for each fixed  $\sigma > 1/2$ ,  $1/\zeta(\sigma + it) \ll t^\epsilon$ , for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $t$  sufficiently large with respect to  $\epsilon$ . Thus, if we assume the Riemann hypothesis, we obtain that  $G_\beta(s)$  has analytic continuation to  $\text{Re}(s) > 1/2$  given by  $G_\beta(s) = H_\beta(s)/\zeta(s)$  and for each fixed  $\sigma > 1/2$ ,  $G_\beta(\sigma + it) \ll t^\epsilon$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $t$  sufficiently large with respect to  $\epsilon$ , almost surely. The last bound holds, almost surely, uniformly in the half plane  $\sigma \geq \sigma_0 > 1/2$ ; see for instance [11], Chapter II.1, Theorem 1.20 and the Remark after.

Now we recall the Perron's formula (see [9], Theorem 5.2 and Corollary 5.3): for  $T > 0$ ,

$$\sum_{n \leq x} g_\beta(n) = \int_{2-iT}^{2+iT} G_\beta(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds + O \left( x^{1/4} + \frac{x^2}{T} \right).$$

Let  $1/2 < \sigma < 1$  and let  $\mathcal{R}$  be the rectangle with vertices  $2 - iT$ ,  $2 + iT$ ,  $\sigma + iT$  and  $\sigma - iT$ . By the Cauchy integral formula, almost surely

$$\int_{2-iT}^{2+iT} G_\beta(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds = - \int_{2+iT}^{\sigma+iT} G_\beta(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds - \int_{\sigma+iT}^{\sigma-iT} G_\beta(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds - \int_{\sigma-iT}^{2-iT} G_\beta(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds.$$

Now

$$\int_{2+iT}^{\sigma+iT} G_\beta(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds \ll \frac{1}{T^{1-\epsilon}} \int_\sigma^2 x^\sigma dx \ll \frac{x^2}{T^{1-\epsilon}}$$

and similarly

$$\int_{\sigma-iT}^{2-iT} G_\beta(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds \ll \frac{x^2}{T^{1-\epsilon}}.$$

Further

$$\int_{\sigma+iT}^{\sigma-iT} G_\beta(s) \frac{x^s}{s} ds \ll T^\epsilon x^\sigma \int_{-T}^T \frac{dt}{|\sigma + it|} \ll T^{2\epsilon} x^\sigma.$$

By combining these estimates, we obtain that

$$\sum_{n \leq x} g_\beta(n) \ll T^{2\epsilon} x^\sigma + \frac{x^2}{T^{1-\epsilon}}, \tag{3.2}$$

almost surely. By selecting  $T = x^3$  and  $\epsilon > 0$  small enough, we obtain that the right-hand side of the above (3.2) is  $\ll x^{\sigma+6\epsilon}$ , if  $x$  is sufficiently large with respect to  $\epsilon$ . By making  $\sigma \rightarrow 1/2^+$ , we get the desired almost sure bound.

To prove the other implication, if  $\sum_{n \leq x} g_\beta(n) \ll x^{1/2+\epsilon}$  for all  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $x$  sufficiently large with respect to  $\epsilon$ , almost surely, then  $G_\beta(s)$  is almost surely analytic in  $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1/2$  and thus  $G_\beta(s)/H_\beta(s)$  also is almost surely analytic in  $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1/2$ . Since  $1/\zeta(s) = G_\beta(s)/H_\beta(s)$ , we have that  $1/\zeta(s)$  has analytic continuation to  $\operatorname{Re}(s) > 1/2$ . This last assertion is equivalent to the Riemann hypothesis.  $\square$

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