Dimensional crossover in ultracold Fermi gases from Functional Renormalisation

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We investigate the dimensional crossover from three to two dimensions in an ultracold Fermi gas across the whole BCS-BEC crossover. Of particular interest is the strongly interacting regime as strong correlations are more pronounced in reduced dimensions. Our results are obtained from first principles within the framework of the functional renormalisation group (FRG). Here, the confinement of the transverse direction is imposed by means of periodic boundary conditions. We calculate the equation of state, the gap parameter at zero temperature and the superfluid transition temperature across a wide range of transversal confinement length scales. Particular emphasis is put on the determination of the finite temperature phase diagram for different confinement length scales. In the end, our results are compared with recent experimental observations and we discuss them in the context of other theoretical works.

I. INTRODUCTION

Lower-dimensional systems are of particular interest both in condensed matter and statistical physics as they feature a pronounced influence of fluctuations. Furthermore, they are of experimental and technological importance with examples ranging from high temperature superconductors over layered semiconductors to graphene. To disentangle the effects of the dimensionality from other many-body physics effects constitutes a key challenge in the study of systems of reduced dimensionality.

With the recent progress in trapping ultracold atomic gases in quasi-two-dimensional geometries [1, 2] both zero [3–5] as well as finite temperature effects [3, 6–11] have been measured. Hereby, strongly anisotropic trapping potentials on the one hand and one-dimensional optical lattices on the other hand allow for the experimental realisation of quasi-two-dimensional quantum gases.

For example, the algebraic correlations associated with the BKT phase transition in (quasi-) two-dimensional systems have been observed in bosonic [9, 12–16], as well as fermionic systems [6, 17]. In addition, (quasi-) two-dimensional systems exhibit the breaking of the scale invariance in the strongly interacting regime of the BCS-BEC crossover. Here, extensive progress both in theory [18–25], as well as in experiment [26–28] has been achieved in recent years.

Due to an insufficient degree of anisotropy in the experimental setup one may not be restricted to a particular dimension, but find oneself in a dimensional crossover without a well-defined dimensionality. Apart from being an undesired effect for the investigation of pure two-dimensional systems, the crossover may also lead to new materials with physically interesting properties.

We concentrate here on ultracold Fermi gases. A comparable quasi-two-dimensional setup has been studied in [29, 30] in a mean-field approach, for a Fermi gas at unitarity and zero temperature in [31], using the Luttinger-Ward approach in two dimensions in [32] and using QMC calculations in two dimensions in [33]. Furthermore, two-dimensional fermionic systems have been addressed in [34–36]. Fermi gases, typically a system of ⁶Li or ⁴⁰K, constitute a rich physical system as their interatomic interactions may be altered via a Feshbach resonance. For a large negative value of the three-dimensional scattering length $a_{3D}$ the fermions form large spatially overlapping Cooper pairs below a critical temperature (BCS limit). On the other hand, for large positive scattering lengths, the fermions form tightly bound molecular dimers which condense into a Bose-Einstein condensate (BEC) at sufficiently low temperatures. The BCS-BEC crossover has been studied extensively in three dimensions using functional renormalisation group (FRG) techniques [37–51]. Finite size effects have been investigated in both cold atom systems [31, 52] and in QCD [53–55].

In this work we study the dimensional crossover from three to two spatial dimensions for ultracold Fermi gases by means of the functional renormalisation group, for a study of non-relativistic bosonic systems see [56]. In particular, we are interested in the critical temperature for the superfluid transition over the BCS-BEC-crossover in dependence of the dimensionality.

The dimensional crossover is achieved by compactifying the ‘transverse’ z-direction by a potential well of length $L$. We discuss (anti-)periodic boundary conditions, as well as a confinement to a box with boundaries fixed to zero. The compactification leads to a discrete momentum spectrum in z-direction. The choice of the boundary conditions is crucial for a well-defined two-dimensional limit. It also influences the mapping between three- and two-dimensional parameters of the Fermi gas. Both aspects are discussed in detail in Section II C.

This paper is organised as follows: In Section II we introduce the ultracold Fermi gas and the functional renormalisation group (FRG) in the dimensional crossover. In particular, we discuss the aspect of boundary conditions for a dimensional reduction. The truncation used within the FRG, as well as the initial conditions are presented in Section III. In Section IV the results for the equation of state and the gap parameter in the dimensional crossover at zero temperature are discussed. The finite temperature phase diagrams with respect to the dimensionality...
are addressed in Section V. We conclude in Section VI. Some technical details are deferred to Appendix A-C.

II. MODEL AND FUNCTIONAL RENORMALISATION

A. Model

Close to a broad Feshbach resonance, as found in quantum gases consisting of $^6\text{Li}$ and $^{40}\text{K}$, details of the atomic interactions in ultracold Fermi gases become irrelevant for the description of the macrophysics. The system can then be described by a universal action

$$S[\psi] = \int_X \left[ \sum_{\sigma=1,2} \psi_\sigma^* (\partial_\tau - \nabla^2 - \bar{\mu}) \psi_\sigma + \bar{\lambda}_\psi \psi_1^* \psi_2 \psi_1 \right],$$

where $\psi_\sigma$ and $\psi_\sigma^*$ denote Grassmann fermions in the hyperfine state $\sigma = 1,2$. We introduce $X = (\tau, \vec{x})$ with $\tau$ being the Euclidean time and $\int_X = \int_0^\beta d\tau \int d^dx$ with spatial dimension $d$. Moreover, the chemical potential $\bar{\mu}$ and the four-Fermi coupling $\bar{\lambda}_\psi \rightarrow \lambda_\psi = 8 \pi a_{3D}$ are related to the physical chemical potential and the scattering length through an appropriate vacuum renormalisation.

We use $\hbar = k_B = 2M = 1$ with $M$ being the mass of the fermionic atoms. For sufficiently low temperatures, the ultracold Fermi gas may develop many-body instabilities resulting in the formation of a macroscopic anomalous self-energy $\Delta$ which is related to the non-vanishing expectation value $\langle \psi_1 \psi_2 \rangle$. This is signalled by a divergence of the frequency- and momentum-dependent four-Fermi vertex at lower momentum scales and causes the breaking of the global $U(1)$-symmetry. In particular, in the strongly coupled regime, i.e. for a diverging three-dimensional s-wave scattering length $a_{3D}$, the quantitative determination of this phase transition is complicated by the frequency and momentum dependence of the vertex. In order to resolve this difficulty, a scale-dependent treatment in the path integral formulation is appropriate.

The starting point is the grand canonical partition function of the system

$$Z[\eta, \bar{\eta}] = \int D\bar{\psi} D\psi e^{-S[\psi, \bar{\psi}] - \bar{\eta} \cdot \psi + \bar{\psi} \cdot \eta}.$$  \tag{2}

In order to exclude redundancies included in the grand canonical partition function, the effective action may be introduced as the Legendre transform of the Wigner functional $W[\eta, \bar{\eta}] = \log Z[\eta, \bar{\eta}]$

$$\Gamma[\psi, \bar{\psi}] = \int_X \left( \bar{\psi}_X \eta_X + \eta_X \psi_X \right) - W[\eta, \bar{\eta}].$$  \tag{3}

B. Functional renormalisation

For the scale-dependent treatment the integration is grouped in frequency and momentum shells according to

$$q_0^2 + \langle \vec{q}^2 - \mu \rangle^2 \simeq k^4$$

with external momentum scale $k$. The full grand canonical partition function is obtained by successively integrating over the corresponding frequency and momentum shells starting at $k = \infty$ and arriving in the end at $k = 0$.

The microscopic action in (1) is related to an ultraviolet (UV) momentum scale $k = \Lambda$ at length scales much smaller than the van der Waals length $\ell_{vdW}$. However, the relevant physics takes place at scales $\ll \Lambda$ where the thermal and quantum fluctuations are included. To incorporate these fluctuations and furthermore to obtain results in the strongly coupled regime the above scale-dependent procedure is implemented via the functional renormalisation group (FRG), which includes these fluctuations successively at each momentum scale $k$. Introducing the scale-dependent partition function

$$Z_k[\eta, \bar{\eta}] = \int D\bar{\psi} D\psi e^{-S[\psi, \bar{\psi}] - \bar{\eta} \cdot \psi + \bar{\psi} \cdot \eta}$$

the suppression of the low momentum fluctuations $\omega, \vec{q} \ll k^2$ is incorporated via a mass-like infrared modification of the dispersion relation. In practice, a regulator or cutoff term $\Delta S_k[\psi]$ is added to the microscopic action $S[\psi]$ being quadratic in the fields

$$\Delta S_k[\psi] = \int_Q \sum_{\sigma=1,2} \psi_\sigma (-Q) R_\psi(Q) \psi_\sigma(Q).$$  \tag{5}

The regulator $R_k(Q)$ may be chosen freely with the requirements

$$\lim_{\omega^2/k^2 \rightarrow 0} R_k(Q) = k^2, \quad \lim_{\omega^2/k^2 \rightarrow \infty} R_k(Q) = 0. \tag{6}$$

The scale-dependent effective action $\Gamma_k$ can be defined accordingly. Starting at $\Gamma_\Lambda = S$, the full effective action is reached after the inclusion of all fluctuations where $\Gamma_k$ smoothly interpolates between the microscopic action $\Gamma_\Lambda$ and the full effective action $\Gamma_k=0 = \Gamma$. Each infinitesimal change of the average effective action is described by a flow equation $\partial_t \Gamma_k$ depending on the correlation function of the theory and a way how to suppress infrared modes with momenta smaller than $k$. In the end fluctuations with large wavelengths are included. Since the functional renormalisation group includes the fluctuations stepwise, there are no infrared divergences when approaching the inclusion of long wavelength modes. Analogous to defining the quantum theory by means of the classical action in the path integral formulation, the initial effective action $\Gamma_\Lambda$ together with the flow equation (8) determines the full quantum theory.

The infinitesimal change of the effective action $\Gamma_k$ with respect to the momentum scale $k$ is governed by the flow
where $\Gamma_k^{(2)}$ is the second functional derivative of $\Gamma_k$ with respect to the fields. As the flow equation (8) is an integro-differential equation, its full solution is in most cases out of reach. One therefore relies on approximation schemes to the full effective action $\Gamma_k$ which should incorporate the examined physics already at lower order of the approximation and reduce the number of flow equations to a manageable set of couplings. Furthermore, it is convenient to rewrite the four-Fermi interaction $\lambda_\psi$ at a large cutoff $\Lambda$ in terms of a bosonic degree of freedom $\phi$ via a Hubbard-Stratonovich transformation.

In this work we choose a three-dimensional Litim-type regulator [66–68] for the cutoff function $R(Q)$ in three spatial dimensions. It is given for bosons and fermions, respectively, by

\[ R_{\phi,k}(q^2) = \frac{(k^2 - q^2/2)}{\theta \left( k^2 - q^2/2 \right)}, \]
\[ R_{\psi,k}(q^2) = k^2 \left( \text{sgn}(z) - z \right) \theta \left( 1 - |z| \right), \]

where $\theta(x)$ represents the Heaviside-Theta function, $\text{sgn}(x)$ the sign function and we used $z = (q^2 - \mu)/k^2$. Note, that only spatial momenta $q^2 = |\vec{q}|^2$ are regularised for this type of regulator. However, a particular neat property of (9) is that the finite temperature Matsubara sums can be performed analytically.

### C. Function space and boundary conditions

The choice of the boundary conditions plays a crucial role in arriving at the correct two-dimensional physics. The dimensional crossover is implemented by compactifying the ‘transverse’ $z$-direction by a potential well of length $L$,

\[ V_{\text{box}}(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & 0 \leq z \leq L \\ \infty & \text{else} \end{cases}. \]

One may choose (anti-)periodic boundary conditions

\[ \psi(x,y,z = 0) = \pm \psi(x,y,z = L), \]

or restrict oneself to a box

\[ \psi(x,y,z = 0) = \psi(x,y,z = L) = 0. \]

The compactification leads to a discrete momentum spectrum in $z$-direction. For periodic boundary conditions the respective energies, $E_z = \frac{\hbar q_z^2}{2M}$, are discrete with $q_z \rightarrow k_n$

\[ k_n = \frac{2\pi n}{L}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}, \]

which includes a zero mode $k_0 = 0$ with vanishing energy $E_{\text{min}} = 0$. In turn, for anti-periodic boundary conditions one finds $k_n = (2n + 1)\pi/L$ with $n \in \mathbb{Z}$ and with a lowest mode $|k_0| = \pi/L$ with a finite energy $E_{\text{min}} = \hbar \pi^2/(2ML^2)$. Finally, confining the Fermi gas inside a box leads to $k_n = \pi n/L$ with a vanishing energy $E_{\text{min}} = 0$.

The non-vanishing zero point energy for anti-periodic boundary conditions results in a gap in the evaluation of the the (discrete) mode sum at zero temperature. Consequently, anti-periodic boundary conditions do not yield the two-dimensional limit for vanishing length $L \rightarrow 0$. For a relativistic system the dispersion relations allows one to identify the length of the potential well $L$ with the inverse temperature $1/T$ in the evaluation of the discrete mode sum at zero temperature. As a result, $T = 0$ and $L = L_0$ gives the same result as $T = 1/L_0$ and $L = 0$, i.e. the zero length limit $L \rightarrow 0$ at zero temperature $T = 0$ corresponds to the limit of infinite temperature $T \rightarrow \infty$ at zero length $L = 0$. For a non-relativistic system the situation is less simple, since the dispersion relation allows no clear mapping between the temperature and the length of the system. Nevertheless, it is clear that anti-periodic boundary conditions do not admit a two-dimensional limit for $L \rightarrow 0$.

Here we choose periodic boundary conditions, which result in a two-dimensional limit for vanishing length $L \rightarrow 0$. Since all modes with $n \neq 0$ have for $L \rightarrow 0$ a large gap they can be integrated out. In general, the three-dimensional system with finite $L$ can be viewed as a two-dimensional system with infinitely many fermions as “modes”, one for each $n$. Integrating out the modes with $n \neq 0$ reduces the system to a single two-dimensional fermion, the one for $n = 0$.

The map from the three-dimensional system to the two-dimensional system proceeds by integrating out the $n \neq 0$ modes. This maps the parameters of the three-dimensional theory to the ones of an effective two-dimensional theory. For $L \rightarrow 0$ this map may induce large changes for characteristic quantities as the chemical potential $\mu$ or the scattering length $a$. This can lead to shifts in fractions including $\varepsilon_F$ and $T_F$, as well as in the crossover parameter. For experiment, the three-dimensional quantities are generally the ones available, and we will typically use them for our discussion. When comparing to results obtained from computations in two-dimensions, the matching between three- and two-dimensional parameters becomes important, however. In the present paper we do not deal with this issue, but the reader should keep it in mind when comparing with two-dimensional results.

Experimentally realistic confinement potentials, used in most ultracold atom experiment, such as [6] and [10], are implemented by using harmonic trapping potentials. Here, the function space consists of Hermite polynomials. Heuristically, our choice is a limiting case. In particular, observables that do not show an impact of the different boundary conditions studied here should be the same for
D. Dimensional reduction

In order to obtain a system within the dimensional crossover from three to two dimensions we initialise the renormalisation group (RG) flow at ultraviolet cutoff scale $k = \Lambda$ where the effective action $\Gamma_\Lambda$ coincides with the microscopic action of a three-dimensional ultracold Fermi gas. By delimiting the $z$-direction of the system via a potential well of length $L$ we introduce an additional scale to the three-dimensional system. By following the RG as a function of $k$ for a given length scale $L$ one observes that the contribution of modes with $k^2 \gg k^2$ is suppressed by powers of $k^2/k_n^2$. These modes decouple and effective dimensional reduction is achieved automatically once $k \ll 2\pi/L$. This is very similar to the effective dimensional reduction in finite temperature quantum field theory realised by solutions of the flow equations [69]. Following the RG from $k = \Lambda$ to $k = 0$ the flow always makes a transition from a three-dimensional regime to a two-dimensional one. For this purpose the UV scale is always chosen such that $\Lambda \gg (L^{-1}, \mu^{1/2}, T^{1/2})$. The flow equations become effectively two-dimensional for $k \ll 2\pi/L$, while the physical system is effectively two-dimensional if $L^{-1}$ is much larger than all other many-body scales [56].

To incorporate the effects of the compactification in transversal $z$-direction given by the potential well in (10), the regulators in (9) are modified according to

$$q^2 = \hat{q}^2 + q_n^2 \rightarrow \hat{q}^2 + k^2,$$

where $k_n$ is chosen according to the boundary conditions and $\hat{q}^2$ denotes the square of the $x$- and $y$-components of the momentum.

III. RUNNING OF COUPLINGS

A. Truncation

After a Hubbard-Stratonovich transformation the full microscopic action is given by

$$S = \int_X \left[ \sum_{\sigma = 1, 2} \psi_\sigma^* \left( \partial_\tau - \nabla^2 - \mu + m_\sigma^2 \right) \psi_\sigma ight. 
\left. \right. 
+ m_\sigma^2 \phi \phi^* - h \left( \phi \psi_1 \psi_2 - \phi \psi_1^* \psi_2^* \right) \right].$$

with $\overline{m}_\psi = -h^2/m_\phi^2$, which can be seen via a Gaussian integration over the bosonic field $\phi$. The Feshbach coupling $h$ accounts for the interconversion of two fermionic atoms $\psi$ with different spin to a bosonic dimer $\phi$. Connecting the above action to the experimental setup we explicitly introduce the closed channel via the bosonic field $\phi$. The physical detuning $\nu = \nu(B)$, which depends on the external magnetic field of the trap in the experiment, denotes the distance of the closed-channel bound state from the scattering threshold. In the kinetic term of the bosonic dimer $\phi$ the factor of $\nabla^2/2$ reflects the composite mass of the dimer, while this composition also yields twice the chemical potential for the bosons

$$S[\psi^*, \psi, \phi^*, \phi] = \int_X \left[ \psi^* \left( \partial_\tau - \nabla^2 - \mu \right) \psi 
+ \phi^* \left( \partial_\tau - \nabla^2/2 + \nu - 2\mu \right) \phi 
- h \left( \phi^* \psi_1 \psi_2 - \phi \psi_1^* \psi_2^* \right) \right].$$

Our ansatz for the effective average action can be divided into a kinetic part and an interaction part

$$\Gamma_k = \Gamma_{\text{kin}} + \Gamma_{\text{int}}.$$  

The kinetic part in terms of the renormalised fields $\psi = A^{1/2}_\psi \overline{\psi}$ and $\phi = A^{1/2}_\phi \overline{\phi}$ describes the fermion and boson dynamics and is given by

$$\Gamma_{\text{kin}}[\psi, \phi] = \int_X \sum_{\sigma = 1, 2} \left[ \psi_\sigma^* \left( S_\psi \partial_\tau - \nabla^2 - \mu \right) \psi_\sigma 
+ \phi^* \left( S_\phi \partial_\tau - V_\phi \partial_\tau^2 - \frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 \right) \phi \right].$$

We normalised the coefficients of the gradient terms by means of the wave function renormalisations $A_\psi$ and $A_\phi$ which enter the renormalisation group flow via the anomalous dimensions

$$\eta_\psi = -\partial_\tau \log A_\psi, \quad \eta_\phi = -\partial_\tau \log A_\phi.$$  

Due to the renormalisation of the fields the expectation value $\Delta = (h^2 \rho)^{1/2}$ can be non-zero, even in the two-dimensional limit [56], where the Mermin-Wagner theorem [70, 71] forbids true long-range order. However, algebraically decaying correlation functions with a non-vanishing superfluid density can be found [72–75].

The interactions can, after the Hubbard-Stratonovich transformation, be written as

$$\Gamma_{\text{int}}[\psi, \phi] = \int_X \left[ U(\phi^* \phi) - h \left( \phi^* \psi_1 \psi_2 - \phi \psi_1^* \psi_2^* \right) \right].$$

The effective average potential $U(\rho)$ depends only on the $U(1)$-invariant quantity $\rho = \phi^* \phi$ and describes bosonic scattering processes. The $U(1)$-symmetry is spontaneously broken for a non-zero minimum $\rho_0$ of the effective
average potential and thus describes superfluidity. In a Taylor-expansion we write

\[ U(\rho) = m_\phi^2 (\rho - \rho_0) + \frac{\lambda_\phi}{2} (\rho - \rho_0)^2 + \sum_{n=3}^{N} \frac{\mu_n}{n!} (\rho - \rho_0)^n. \]  

(21)

where we need to include at least up to the second order in \( \rho \) to reproduce the second order phase transition to superfluidity. In the symmetric regime we therefore have \( \rho_0 = 0 \) and positive bosonic mass \( m_\phi^2 > 0 \), whereas the symmetry-broken regime is realised for \( \rho_0 > 0 \) and vanishing bosonic mass \( m_\phi^2 = 0 \). In the following we restrict this work to order \( \phi^4 \).

The truncation can be classified by the diagrams in Fig. 1 included on the right hand side of the flow equation (8). By including only fermionic diagrams (F) we arrive at the mean-field result. Bosonic fluctuations enter the flow equation by including diagrams with two internal bosonic lines (B).

![Figure 1: (F)- and (B)-truncation schemes of the flow equations. The flow of the inverse boson propagator incorporates both fermionic and bosonic diagrams. Bosonic propagators correspond to dashed and fermionic propagators to solid lines, while the distinct vertices are shown in different shapes. The regulator insertion is denoted by a cross.](image)

Furthermore, the flow of the density of the Fermi gas is calculated via a derivative of the effective action with respect to the chemical potential

\[ \partial_k n_k = -\partial_k \frac{\partial U(\rho)}{\partial \mu}. \]  

(22)

In practice, we approximate the dependence of the effective average action on the chemical potential by an expansion in \( \rho \) and \( \mu \) [45]

\[ U(\rho) = \sum_{n=1}^{2} \frac{\mu_n}{n!} (\rho - \rho_0)^n - n_k \delta \mu + \alpha_k (\rho - \rho_0) \delta \mu. \]  

(23)

Here the chemical potential is split into a reference part \( \mu_0 \) and an offset \( \delta \mu \), such that \( \mu = \mu_0 + \delta \mu \).

B. Initial conditions and universality

In three dimensions the running couplings approach fixed points in the renormalisation group flow of the Fermi gas. As a result, the macrophysics (on the length scales of the inter-particle spacing) becomes independent of the microphysics (on the molecular scales) to a large extent, cf. e.g. [45, 47].

When reaching the fixed points the system loses its memory of the microphysics with its initial conditions. Consequently, the initial conditions of the running couplings are irrelevant and we may essentially start at the fixed point values in the ultraviolet. Even if we had not done so, they would be immediately generated.

An exception constitutes the bosonic mass term \( m_\phi^2 \) whose fixed point is unstable towards the infrared. Hence, for the effective potential we set as initial condition in the ultraviolet

\[ U_\Lambda(\rho) = (\nu_\Lambda - 2 \mu) \rho. \]  

(24)

Herein the chemical potential \( \mu \) can be artificially split into a vacuum component \( \mu_v \) and a many-body contribution \( \mu_{mb} \) such that the vacuum part \( \mu_v \) equals half the binding energy of a bosonic dimer \( \varepsilon_B/2 \) in three spatial dimensions. The detuning \( \nu_\Lambda \) is related to the physical detuning via an appropriate vacuum renormalisation [45].

Since the RG flow for a system in reduced dimension is initialised at an UV scale where the Fermi gas is described by the three-dimensional classical action, these considerations can be applied to the study of systems inside the dimensional crossover. We therefore choose the fixed point values of the three-dimensional Fermi gas as our initial conditions.

IV. DIMENSIONAL CROSSOVER AT ZERO TEMPERATURE

The flow equations underlying the results at zero and at finite temperature shown below are obtained analytically with periodic boundary conditions for both bosonic and fermionic fields inside the potential well. They are given in Appendix A. Imposing anti-periodic boundary conditions for fermionic fields \( \psi(x) \) we find, as expected in Section II C, that for small confinement length scales \( L_{\sqrt{\mu_{mb}}} \sim 2 \) the fermionic flow is strongly suppressed and no phase transition on the BCS-side of the crossover can be found. The BEC-side, however, is not affected by this choice.

For the three-dimensional BCS-BEC crossover all running couplings saturate quickly in the infrared, while we find a mild dependence for the gap parameter \( \Delta = (\rho_0 \hbar^2)^{1/2} / \varepsilon_F \) on the final scale of the RG-flow \( t_f \) in a system with reduced dimensionality. This dependence on \( t_f \) starts at a confinement length of \( L_{\sqrt{\mu_{mb}}} \approx 10 \) and follows through until we arrive at the two-dimensional limit.

In order to display the the confinement in transversal direction we introduce the dimensionless length parameterer \( L_{\sqrt{\mu_{mb}}} \) of the potential well, where \( \mu_{mb} = \mu - \varepsilon_B/2 \) denotes the chemical potential for the three-dimensional gas with half the dimer binding energy \( \varepsilon_B/2 \) being substracted.
At zero temperature a reduction of the dimensionless confinement length parameter $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}}$ leads to an increased density and thereby to an increased Fermi energy $\varepsilon_F = k_F^2$. As a consequence the equation of state $(\mu - \varepsilon_B/2)/\varepsilon_F$ in Figs. 2 and 3 is lowered for more confined systems.

Here the Fermi momentum is calculated using the three-dimensional definition $k_F = (3 \pi^2 n)^{1/3}$ as the initial condition for the flow of the density is explicitly given for a three-dimensional system. This means that the Fermi momentum $k_F$ of the (quasi-) two-dimensional system has to be calculated by using the functional form given in the ultraviolet, where the reduced dimension enters via the flow of the density.

In Fig. 2 the equation of state is shown as a function of the three-dimensional crossover parameter $c^{-1} = (k_F a_{3D})^{-1}$, which can be interpreted as the inverse concentration of the Fermi gas. For large confinement length scales $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}}$ the three-dimensional result is recovered, while the equation of state in dependence of the transversal extension starts to saturate only at the order of $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}} = 10^{-4}$ for a two-dimensional limit.

For better comparison to experiment the equation of state is also displayed in Fig. 3 with respect to the two-dimensional crossover parameter $\ln(k_F a_{2D})$. Here the (quasi-) two-dimensional scattering length $a_{2D}$ is calculated by [56]

$$a_{2D}^{(pbc)} = L \exp \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \frac{L}{a_{3D}} \right\} \quad (25)$$

for our setup with periodic boundary conditions. Comparing the result in 2 with the experimental data found in [3] for a (quasi-) two-dimensional setup we find a qualitatively good agreement. Especially on the BEC-side, where the measurements were obtained in the superfluid phase, the equation of state for lower values of the confinement length $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}}$ our result yields the correct behaviour. However, on the BCS-side the equation of state for confinements $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}} \lesssim 6$ does not give the quantitative correct result. This behaviour might be on the one hand attributed to an insufficient precision in the determination of the density. For a more elaborate way to obtain the density see Appendix C. On the other hand, as mentioned in Section II C, the two-dimensional limit for periodic boundary conditions may feature parameters which do not coincide with the ones in three dimensions.

Comparing the gap parameter $\Delta = (\hbar^2 \rho_0)^{1/2}$ with respect to the Fermi energy $\varepsilon_F$ in Fig. 4 for different confinement length scales one finds a flattening of the curve for lower dimensionality, while the three-dimensional case is recovered for large length scales $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}}$. Interestingly, the gap saturates much faster for small length scales, already around $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}} \approx 0.5$ for a two-dimensional limit. Moreover, depending on the (three-dimensional) scattering length $a_{3D}$, regions of an increased gap $\Delta/\varepsilon_F$ can be found at intermediate length scales within the dimensional crossover. This dip-like structure is a characteristic of the modes given by the boundary conditions chosen and is also found at finite temperature.
V. SUPERFLUID TRANSITION

A. Dimensional crossover of the critical temperature

At finite temperature we study the behaviour of the critical temperature $T_c/T_F$ with respect to the spatial extension in transversal $z$-direction $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}}$. The Fermi temperature $T_F = k_F^2$ is, as in the zero temperature case, calculated using the three-dimensional relation between the Fermi momentum and the density $k_F = (3 \pi^2 n)^{1/3}$. The order parameter for the superfluid transition is the (finite-temperature) gap $\Delta = (h^2 \rho)^{1/2}$.

As shown exemplary for $a_{3D}^{-1} = 0$ in Fig. 5 one can identify a dimensional crossover from three to two dimensions for all values of the three-dimensional scattering length. The limiting case of three dimensions is reached for large confinement scales $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}}$. Moreover, a distinct two-dimensional limit is obtained where the critical temperature in units of the Fermi temperature saturates and is significantly reduced with respect to the three-dimensional case.

Furthermore, one can clearly discern dips in the dimensional crossover of the critical temperature where we find an increased $T_c/T_F$ at intermediate stages between the two- and three-dimensional limit. Interestingly, their appearance and amplitude seem to be related to the scattering length $a_{3D}$ chosen in the ultraviolet. Moreover, we find a larger amplitude for more confined systems. This behaviour is caused by the mode structure of a confined system specified by the chosen boundary conditions. As a consequence, the density of states for a confined system has a step-like structure and the dips can be found at the positions of the discontinuities. The dip structure for the critical temperature $T_c/T_F$ emerge at the same confinement length scales $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}}$ as for the zero temperature gap parameter $\Delta$. In a mean-field analysis with a confinement in transversal $z$-direction induced by a harmonic potential on the weakly-interacting BCS-side of the BCS-BEC crossover a similar dip-like structure of the critical temperature was found [29].

B. Finite temperature phase diagram

In Figs. 6 and 7 the critical temperature $T_c/T_F$ as a function of the three dimensional inverse concentration $c^{-1} = (k_F a_{3D})^{-1}$ and the two-dimensional crossover parameter $\ln(k_F a_{2D})$ is shown for different confinement length scales over the whole BCS-BEC crossover. The phase diagram in Fig. 6 approaches the three-dimensional limit for large confinement length scales, while the critical temperature is reduced for lower dimensionality over the BCS-BEC crossover. On the other hand, we find an increased critical temperature on the BCS-side of the crossover around $L \sqrt{\mu_{mb}} = (0.5 \ldots 5)$. On the BEC-side $T_c/T_F$ continues to be reduced for more confined systems.

In Figs. 7 and 8 we find the expected exponential decrease on the BCS-side of the crossover, where $\ln(k_F a_{2D}) \gg 1$, for small confinement scales in a quasi-two-dimensional geometry. Here it was found [76] that

$$
\frac{T_c}{T_F} = \frac{2 e^\gamma}{\pi k_F a_{2D}}
$$

(26)
with the Euler number $\gamma \approx 0.5772$. The critical temperature is lowered by a factor of $e$ when including the Gorkov-Melik contribution [77].

Furthermore, the BKT-transition temperature on the BEC-side, where $\ln(k_Fa_{2D}) \ll 1$, is approximately reached for these length scales. However, for smaller $L/\mu_{mb}$, we obtain a smaller value than the predicted BKT transition temperature [77, 78]

$$\frac{T_c}{T_F} = \frac{1}{2} \left[ \log \left( \frac{B}{4\pi} \log \left( \frac{4\pi}{k_F a_{2D}^2} \right) \right) \right]^{-1}, \quad (27)$$

with $B \approx 380$.

As described in Section II C this behaviour might be attributed to our choice of boundary conditions. Although we are arriving at a two-dimensional system using periodic boundary conditions, integrating out the higher modes in the transversal $z$-direction may lead to a shift in the parameters of the Fermi gas. This shift can also be differently pronounced depending on the scattering length. The observation that $T_c/T_F$ decreases towards zero on the BEC-side for $L \to 0$ may be an indication for a strong $L$-dependence in the map from three-dimensional to two-dimensional parameters in this region of the phase diagram and range of $L$.

In the region of strong correlations, where $\ln(k_Fa_{2D}) \simeq 1$, we find a substantial increase in the critical temperature $T_c/T_F$ which cannot be found in a mean-field analysis by extrapolation of the known BCS- and BEC-limits.

Comparing our results for $L/\mu_{mb} = 2.5$ to the experimental data from [6] in Fig. 8, where $L/\mu_{mb}$ is approximately of the order $0.5 \ldots 5$, we find a qualitatively similar phase diagram. Here the increased critical temperature in the strong coupling regime can also be found, yet slightly less pronounced.

In Fig. 9 we show our result for a confinement length of $L/\mu_{mb} = 2.5$ and the experimental data on the nonthermal fraction found in [6]. Here the preferred onset of a presuperfluid phase in the strongly correlated region is on par with our result of an increased superfluid temperature. The shift with respect to the two-dimensional crossover parameter can be assigned to the change in the parameters from three to two dimensions of the Fermi gas.

Figure 6: Phase diagram in terms of $T_c/T_F$ for different confinement length scales and the three dimensional case with respect to the 3D crossover parameter $1/(k_F a_{3D})$. From top to bottom: 3D limit (solid-red), $L/\mu_{mb} = 1000$ (dashed-black), $L/\mu_{mb} = 10$ (dashed-blue), $L/\mu_{mb} = 5$ (dashed-red), $L/\mu_{mb} = 2$ (dashed-green) and $L/\mu_{mb} = 1$ (dashed-orange).

Figure 7: Phase diagram in terms of $T_c/T_F$ for different confinement length scales with respect to the 2D crossover parameter $\ln(k_F a_{2D})$. From top to bottom $L/\mu_{mb} = 10$ (blue), $L/\mu_{mb} = 5$ (red), $L/\mu_{mb} = 2$ (green) and $L/\mu_{mb} = 1$ (orange). The low critical temperature on the BEC-side is caused by our choice of boundary conditions, see Section II C.

Figure 8: Phase diagram in terms of $T_c/T_F$ for a confinement length of $L/\mu_{mb} = 2.5$ with respect to $\ln(k_F a_{2D})$. Here we show the experimental data from [6] with the corresponding statistical errors in orange, as well as both the perturbative BKT- and BCS-transition temperature as dashed red lines in the appropriate regimes, i.e. $\ln(k_F a_{2D}) \ll -1$ (BEC) and $\ln(k_F a_{2D}) \gg 1$ (BCS).
Here we show the experimental data from [6]. The experimental critical temperature $T_c/T_F$ with the corresponding statistical errors is depicted in white, while the colour scale denotes the non-thermal fraction which signals the onset of a presuperfluid phase.

VI. CONCLUSIONS AND OUTLOOK

In this paper we have studied the dimensional crossover in an ultracold Fermi gas from three to two dimensions, thus extending the work on non-relativistic bosons carried out in [56], as well as the mean-field analysis in [29] for fermions. Particular emphasis was put on the superfluid phase transition calculated over the whole BCS-BEC crossover in dependence on different confinement length scales. A comparison to recent experiments in [3] and [6] found a qualitative good agreement. Moreover, we find a non-trivial behaviour of the finite temperature phase diagram when confining the Fermi gas in reduced dimensionality. Here for small confinement length scales a substantial reduction of the critical temperature $T_c/T_F$ on the one hand is found on the BEC-side of the crossover, while on the other hand the critical temperature on the BCS-side is moderately increased. Notably, in the strongly-coupled regime a substantially higher critical temperature is found which is on par with recent measurements [6].

Within the dimensional crossover from three to two dimensions a dip-like structure with regions of increased and reduced critical temperature $T_c/T_F$ were found. This dip-like structure is more or less pronounced depending on the scattering length chosen in the ultraviolet $a_{3D}$ and is an artefact of the boundary conditions chosen for the confinement. For a harmonic confinement similar dips were seen in [29] for a mean-field study of the critical temperature on the BCS-side for quasi-two dimensional Fermi gases.

These results suggest that a geometry lying between three and two dimensions might be beneficial in finding systems with increased critical temperature and thus in advancing in the quest for high-$T_c$ superconductors.

The above procedure of confinement from three to two dimensions can in general be extended to confinements from three to one and from two to one dimensions. Moreover, for a more realistic confinement scenario a harmonic trapping potential $V(z) = \frac{1}{2} m \omega_z z^2$, as it is approximately realised in most ultracold atom experiments, should be implemented instead of the periodic conditions used in this work in order to account for the correct trapping geometry. However, already the periodic boundary conditions yield qualitatively similar features in the $L$-dependence of the critical temperature as a harmonic trap.

A further quantitative improvement, within the dimensional crossover as well as in three dimensions, concerns the calculation of the density by which every quantity is normalised, by means of the Fermi momentum $k_F$. As detailed in Appendix C, the initial conditions for observables $g_i$ with scaling dimension $d_g \geq 2$ are dependent on the chemical potential $\mu$. As a consequence, the flow of the density, calculated by an $\mu$-derivative of the effective potential, is not UV-finite. In Appendix C we outline an iterative safe way of calculating the density whose results will be presented in future work. In addition, the truncation may be extended to include also the renormalisation of the fermion propagator, as well as higher orders in the derivative expansion.

Another interesting aspect would be the study of spin- and mass-imbalanced Fermi gases within the dimensional crossover, since here the influence of mismatching Fermi surfaces and stronger fluctuations in lower dimensions might result in competing effects concerning pairing [79–83]. This may shed further physical insight, for example in the search for high temperature superconductors.

Already at the present stage our beyond-mean-field analysis is an advancement in the study of the interplay between many-body physics and dimensionality of ultracold Fermi gases. It reveals that the dependence of fluctuation effects on the effective dimensionality leads to new characteristic features that can be exploited in experiment and serve as a test for theoretical methods.

VII. ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Appendix A: Flow equations

In this appendix we derive the flow equations for an ultracold Fermi gas in the dimensional crossover. By defining a Master equation all flow equations of the individual couplings can be obtained by suitable projection descriptions. Furthermore, we consider only the isotropic case where the flow of the couplings in transverse direction equal the ones in the plane $g_t = g_{i,z}$, since this distinction is negligible [56]. Our procedure is based on [47].

The ansatz for the effective average action can be divided in an kinetic part which consists of the fermion and bosonic dynamics and an interaction part

$$\Gamma_k = \Gamma_{\text{kin}} + \Gamma_{\text{int}}. \quad (A1)$$

The kinetic part in terms of the renormalised fields $\psi = A^{1/2}_\psi \overline{\psi}$ and $\phi = A^{1/2}_\phi \overline{\phi}$ is given by

$$\Gamma_{\text{kin}}[\psi, \phi] = \int_X \left[ \sum_{\sigma = \{1,2\}} \psi_\sigma^* \left( S_\phi \partial_\tau - \nabla^2 + m_\phi \right) \psi_\sigma \right. \left. + \phi^* \left( S_\phi \partial_\tau - V_{\phi} \partial_\tau^2 - \nabla^2/2 \right) \phi \right]. \quad (A2)$$

We normalised the the coefficients of the gradient terms by means of the wave function renormalisations $A_\psi$ and $A_\phi$ which enter the renormalisation group flow via the anomalous dimensions

$$\eta_\psi = - \partial_\epsilon \log A_\psi, \quad \eta_\phi = - \partial_\epsilon \log A_\phi. \quad (A3)$$

Unrenormalised quantities are in the following denoted with an overbar, while renormalised ones are overbarless. The interactions can, after a Hubbard-Stratonovich transformation, be written as

$$\Gamma_{\text{int}}[\psi, \phi] = \int_X \left( U(\phi^* \phi) - \hbar \left( \phi^* \psi_1 \psi_2 - \phi \psi_1^* \psi_2^* \right) \right) \quad (A4)$$

neglecting the RG-flow of the four-fermion vertex $\lambda_{\psi,k}$.

The effective average potential depends only on the $U(1)$-invariant quantity $\rho = \phi^* \phi$ and describes bosonic scattering processes. The $U(1)$-symmetry is spontaneously broken for a non-zero minimum $\rho_0$ of the effective average potential and thus describes superfluidity. In a Taylor-expansion we write

$$U(\rho) = m_\phi^2 (\rho - \rho_0) + \frac{\lambda_\phi}{2} (\rho - \rho_0)^2 - n_k \delta \mu + \alpha_k (\rho - \rho_0) \delta \mu, \quad (A5)$$

where we need to include at least up to the second order in $\rho$ to reproduce the second order phase transition to superfluidity. In the symmetric regime we therefore have $\rho_0 = 0$ and $m_\phi^2 > 0$, whereas the symmetry-broken regime is realised for $\rho_0 > 0$ and $m_\phi^2 = 0$.

1. Truncation

By including only the fermionic diagrams (F) of Fig. 1 we arrive at the mean-field result and the bosonic fluctuations are taken care of by the diagrams including two bosonic lines (B).

The inverse propagators $\overline{G}_\phi^{-1}(Q)$ and $\overline{G}_\psi^{-1}(Q)$ are calculated by

$$\Gamma^{(2)}_{\overline{G}_\phi}(X, Y, \rho) = \frac{\delta^2 \Gamma}{\delta \overline{\phi}(X) \delta \overline{\phi}(Y)}[\overline{\phi}], \quad (A6)$$

where the bosonic field background $\phi$ is assumed to be real valued and the direction of the arrow for the inverse fermion propagator denotes derivatives acting from left and right on the effective potential. In momentum space we arrive at

$$\Gamma^{(2)}_{\overline{G}_{BB}}(Q, Q') = \delta(Q + Q') \overline{G}_\phi^{-1}(Q), \quad \Gamma^{(2)}_{\overline{G}_{FP}}(Q, Q') = \delta(Q + Q') \overline{G}_\psi^{-1}(Q) \quad (A7)$$

After performing the functional derivatives we obtain in the $\{\phi_1, \phi_2\}$-basis for a constant bosonic background field $\phi = \sqrt{\rho}$

$$\overline{G}^{-1}_\phi(Q) = A_\phi \begin{pmatrix} P^{S,Q} + U' + 2 \rho U'' & i P^{A,Q} \\ -i P^{A,Q} & P^{S,Q} + U' \end{pmatrix}, \quad (A8)$$

with $= \overline{G}^{-1}_\phi = A_\phi \overline{G}_{\phi}^{-1}(Q), \ I$ being the 2-dimensional unity matrix, $\varepsilon = ((0,1), (-1,0))$ the fully antisymmetric tensor and a prime denotes a derivative with respect to $\rho$.

The regulators in the $\{\phi_1, \phi_2\}$-basis are given by

$$\overline{R}^Q_\phi = A_\phi \overline{R}^Q_\phi = A_\phi \begin{pmatrix} R^S_\phi(Q) & i R^A_\phi(Q) \\ -i R^A_\phi(Q) & R^S_\phi(Q) \end{pmatrix}, \quad (A9)$$

Moreover we defined the symmetrised and antisymmetrised components of the propagators and regulator functions as

$$f_{S,A}(Q) = \frac{f(Q) \pm f(-Q)}{2}. \quad (A10)$$

By introducing short-hand notations for the sum of prop-
agator and regulator, as well as the determinants

\[ L^Q_\psi = P^Q_\psi + R^Q_\psi \]

\[ \det Q_F = L^Q_\psi L^{-Q}_\psi + h^2 \rho \]

\[ L^Q_\psi = P^Q_\psi + R^Q_\psi + U' + \rho U'' \]  \hspace{1cm} (A11)

\[ \tilde{L}^Q_\psi = P^Q_\psi + R^Q_\psi \]

\[ \det Q_B = L^Q_\psi L^{-Q}_\psi - (\rho U'')^2. \]

we may write the regularised propagators as

\[ G^Q_\phi = A_\phi \overline{G}^Q_\phi = \frac{1}{\det Q_B} \begin{pmatrix} \hat{L}^{S,Q}_\phi + U' & -i \hat{L}^{A,Q}_\phi \\ i \hat{L}^{A,Q}_\phi & \hat{L}^{S,Q}_\phi + U' + 2 \rho U'' \end{pmatrix} \]

\[ G^Q_\psi = A_\psi \overline{G}^Q_\psi = \frac{1}{\det Q_F} \begin{pmatrix} (h^2 \rho)^{1/2} \varepsilon & L^{-Q}_\psi \mathbb{1} \\ -L^Q_\psi \mathbb{1} & -(h^2 \rho)^{1/2} \varepsilon \end{pmatrix} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A12)

We can also represent the boson propagator in the conjugate field basis \( \{ \phi, \phi^* \} \) where the corresponding matrix will be labeled by a hat.

For \( \phi = (\phi_1 + i \phi_2)/\sqrt{2} \) we have

\[ \begin{pmatrix} \phi \\ \phi^* \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \phi_1 \\ \phi_2 \end{pmatrix} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A13)

and thus arrive at

\[ \hat{G}^{-1}_\phi = U G^{-1}_\phi U^t \]  \hspace{1cm} (A14)

with the definitions

\[ U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & -i \end{pmatrix} , \quad U^t = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -i & i \end{pmatrix}. \]  \hspace{1cm} (A15)

Thus we obtain for the inverse boson propagator in the \( \{ \phi, \phi^* \} \)-basis

\[ \hat{G}^{-1}_\phi = \begin{pmatrix} \rho U'' & L^{-Q}_\phi \\ L^Q_\phi & \rho U'' \end{pmatrix} , \quad \hat{R}_\phi(Q) = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & R^{-Q}_\phi \\ R^Q_\phi & 0 \end{pmatrix} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A16)

and

\[ \hat{G}^Q_\phi = \frac{1}{\det Q_B} \begin{pmatrix} -\rho U'' & L^{-Q}_\phi \\ L^Q_\phi & -\rho U'' \end{pmatrix} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A17)

To generate higher n-point functions further functional derivatives have to be applied, once again paying attention to the correct ordering for fermionic derivatives.

Since we assume momentum and frequency independent vertices to close our set of equations, the complexity of the system of differential equations is drastically reduced

\[ \Gamma^{(n>2)}(Q_1, \ldots, Q_n) = \gamma^{(n)}_k \delta(Q_1, \ldots, Q_n). \]  \hspace{1cm} (A18)

2. Master equations

In order to solve the Wetterich equation in practice we need to convert it into a set of coupled differential equations of the correlation functions. We therefore start from a few Master equations, namely for the inverse fermion and boson propagators, the effective average potential and the Feshbach coupling.

In the next step these equation are projected appropriately to arrive at flow equations for the running couplings \( \{ g_k \} \).

For general regulators the flow equation of the effective average potential is then given by

\[ \hat{U}_k(p) = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q G^Q_\phi \tilde{R}^{-Q}_\phi - \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q G^Q_\psi \tilde{R}^{-Q}_\psi \]

\[ = \frac{1}{2} \int_Q \frac{1}{A_\phi} \frac{L^Q_\phi \tilde{R}^{-Q}_\phi + L^{-Q}_\phi \tilde{R}^{-Q}_\phi}{\det Q_B} \]

\[ - \frac{1}{2} \int_Q \frac{1}{A_\psi} \frac{L^Q_\psi \tilde{R}^{-Q}_\psi + L^{-Q}_\psi \tilde{R}^{-Q}_\psi}{\det Q_F} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A19)

Our flow equations can be divided into a bosonic and a fermionic contribution resulting from bosonic (B) and fermionic (F) diagrams, respectively.

\[ \hat{U}(p) = \hat{U}^{(B)} + \hat{U}^{(F)} \]  \hspace{1cm} (A20)

Including the additional term of the anomalous dimension we find the flow for the renormalised quantities, e.g.

\[ \hat{U}(\rho) = \hat{U}^{(B)} + \hat{U}^{(F)} + \eta_\phi \rho U'(\rho). \]  \hspace{1cm} (A21)
For the flow of the inverse boson propagator in the \{\phi_1, \phi_2\}-basis we find

\[
\begin{split}
\tilde{G}_\phi^{-1}(P) = & \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \tilde{G}_\phi(Q + P) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \\
& + \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q - P) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \\
& - \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \tau_3^{(4)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \\
& - \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q - P) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \tilde{R}_\phi(Q). 
\end{split}
\] (A22)

Likewise the flow of the inverse fermion propagator is obtained, taking the Grassmannian nature of fermions in account,

\[
\begin{split}
\tilde{G}_{\psi}^{-1}(P) = & \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\psi(Q) \tilde{G}_\psi(Q + P) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \\
& + \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q \tilde{G}_\psi(Q) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\psi(Q - P) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \tilde{R}_\phi(Q) \\
& - \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q \tilde{G}_\psi(Q) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \\
& - \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} \int_Q \tilde{G}_\psi(Q) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\psi(Q - P) \tau_3^{(3)} \tilde{G}_\phi(Q) \tilde{R}_\phi(Q). 
\end{split}
\] (A23)

3. Projection description for the running couplings

In this section we derive suitable projection descriptions for the flow equations of the running couplings \{\phi_k\} and expansion coefficients of the effective average potential \(U(\rho)\). We use a derivative expansion of the inverse fermion and boson propagators

\[
\begin{align*}
\tilde{P}_{\psi}(Q) &= Z_{\psi} q_2 - \mu + A_{\psi} q^2 - \mu \\
&= A_{\psi} (S_{\psi} q_0 + q^2 - \mu), \\
\tilde{P}_{\phi}(Q) &= Z_{\phi} q_0 + A_{\phi} q^2/2 \\
&= A_{\phi} (S_{\phi} q_0 + q^2/2).
\end{align*}
\] (A24)

Expanding the effective potential in a Taylor series we can easily project the flow equation (A19) onto the coefficients

\[
U_k(\rho) = m_{\phi}^2 (\rho - \rho_0) + \frac{\lambda_{\phi}}{2} (\rho - \rho_0)^2 + \sum_{n>2}^N \frac{u_n}{n!} (\rho - \rho_0)^n. 
\] (A25)

There are several candidates for projection descriptions for the running couplings which may at a first glance seem equal. However, as the Wetterich equation is an exact equation incorporating all orders of the effective average action, every projection neglects certain higher order couplings and thus results in different flows. We expect though that our truncation includes the most important effects and a precise projection would only yield negligible modifications. The distinction between different projection descriptions may also be used for an error estimate.

In the symmetric regime of the flow we have \(\tilde{m}_{\phi}^2 = U'(0)\) which makes place for the flow of \(\hat{\rho}_0 = -\tilde{U}'(\rho_0)/\lambda_{\phi}\) in the symmetry broken regime. For the flow of higher expansion coefficients one finds

\[
\hat{u}_n = \partial_t \left( \tilde{U}^{(n)}(\rho_0) \right) = \tilde{U}^{(n)}(\rho_0) + u_{n+1} \hat{\rho}_0. 
\] (A26)

We obtain the flow of the renormalised couplings

\[
m_{\phi}^2 = \frac{\bar{m}_{\phi}^2}{A_{\phi}}, \quad \rho_0 = A_{\phi} \hat{\rho}_0, \quad u_n = \frac{u_n}{A_{\phi}}. 
\] (A27)
by

\[ \hat{m}_\phi^2 = \eta \phi m_\phi^2 + \frac{m_\phi^2}{A_\phi}, \]
\[ \rho_0 = -\eta \phi \rho_0 + A_\phi \frac{\dot{\rho}_0}{\eta}, \]
\[ \dot{u}_n = \eta \phi u_n n + \frac{\eta u_n}{A_\phi}. \] (A28)

Since we restrict ourselves to purely fermionic and bosonic diagrams, we have no running of the couplings entering the fermionic propagator.

For the couplings associated with the boson propagator we obtain

\[ \hat{S}_\phi = -\partial_{\rho_0} \tilde{G}_{\phi_1,\phi_2}(P, \rho_0) \bigg|_{P=0, \rho_0}, \]
\[ \hat{A}_\phi = 2 \partial_{\rho_0} \tilde{G}_{\phi_1,\phi_2}(P, \rho_0) \bigg|_{P=0, \rho_0}, \] (A29)

and for the renormalised quantities with the anomalous dimension \( \eta_\phi = -\hat{A}_\phi / A_\phi \)

\[ \hat{S}_\phi = \eta_\phi S_\phi + \frac{\hat{S}_\phi}{A_\phi}. \] (A30)

In the flow equations for the running couplings we neglected a term proportional to \( \dot{\rho}_0 \) which would be generated if one took the RG-time derivative after performing the projections.

4. Flow equations using the optimised regulator

In this section we use the optimised regulator (9) for deriving the flow equations of the running couplings. These equations will be our main starting point in studying the BCS-BEC crossover in dimensions \( 2 \leq d \leq 3 \).

The advantage of the optimised regulator stems from the possibility of analytically performing the Matsubara summations due to a purely spatial cutoff \( q^2 = |q|^2 \).

The procedure may, however, further be simplified by interchanging the order of the derivative projection and the Matsubara summation. We therefore start again from the general form of the flow of the inverse propagators with the trace not being evaluated so that we can expand the inverse propagators \( G(Q \pm P) \) in powers of \( p_0 \) and \( p \) and perform the projections afterwards.

For the fermionic contributions we arrive at the general flow equations with the loop integration still unevaluated

\[ \dot{S}_\phi^{(F)} = -2 h^2 S_\phi \int_Q \frac{\tilde{R}_\phi(q^2)}{A_\phi} \left( \frac{1}{\det_2^2} - \frac{2 h^2 \rho}{\det_3^3} \right), \]
\[ \eta_\phi^{(F)} = \frac{8 h^2}{d} \int_Q \frac{\tilde{R}_\phi(q^2)}{A_\phi} \frac{q^2 R_\phi^{(2)}}{\det_3^3}. \] (A31)

The expansion for the bosonic contributions results in the flow equations

\[ \dot{S}_\phi^{(B)} = -4 S_\phi \rho U'' \int_Q \frac{\tilde{R}_\phi(q^2)}{A_\phi} \left( \frac{U'' + \rho U^{(3)}}{\det_2^2(Q)} + \frac{2 \rho U'' \left( U'' + \rho U^{(3)} \right) - \left( 2 U'' + \rho U^{(3)} \right) L_\phi^S(Q) \right)}{\det_3^3(Q)}, \]
\[ \eta_\phi^{(B)} = 4 \rho \left( U'' \right)^2 \int_Q \frac{\tilde{R}_\phi(q^2)}{A_\phi} \left( \frac{1 + 2 R_\phi^{(1)} + 4 q^2 x^2 R_\phi^{(2)}}{\det_2^2(Q)} - \frac{2 q^2 x^2 \left( 1 + 2 R_\phi^{(1)} \right)^2 L_\phi^S(Q)}{\det_3^3(Q)} \right). \] (A32)

After performing the Matsubara sums and the momentum integrations the overall flow equations in our truncation can be cast into the form

\[ \dot{U}^{(F)}(\rho) = -\frac{16 v_d}{d} k^{d+2} \ell_F^{(1,1)}, \]
\[ \dot{U}^{(B)}(\rho) = \frac{8 v_d 2^{d/2}}{d} k^{d+2} \ell_B^{(1,1)}. \] (A33)

The fermionic contributions to the boson propagator are found to be

\[ \dot{S}_\phi^{(F)} = -\frac{16 h^2 v_d}{d} k^{d-4} \left( \ell_F^{(0,2)} - 2 w_3 \ell_F^{(0,3)} \right), \]
\[ \eta_\phi^{(F)} = \frac{16 h^2 v_d}{d} k^{d-4} \ell_F^{(0,2)}. \] (A34)
while the bosonic contributions are given by
\[
S^{(B)}_\phi = - \frac{32 S_{\phi}}{d} \rho U'' v_d 2^{d/2} k^{d-4} \left[ (U'' + \rho U^{(3)}) \ell_B^{(0,2)} + 2 (\rho U'')^2 (U'' + \rho U^{(3)}) k^{-4} \ell_B^{(0,3)} - 2 \rho U'' (2 U'' + \rho U^{(3)}) k^{-2} \ell_B^{(1,3)} \right],
\]
\[
\eta^{(B)}_\phi = 8 \rho (U'')^2 \frac{v_d 2^{d/2}}{d} k^{d-4} \ell_B^{(0,2)}.
\]

Here we used the definitions for fermionic contributions
\[
\ell_{F,(n,m)}^{(n,m)} (\hat{T}, w_3) = \begin{cases} 
\ell_2 (\hat{\mu}) \mathcal{F}_n (\sqrt{1+w_3}) & n \text{ even} \\
\ell_1 (\hat{\mu}) \mathcal{F}_n (\sqrt{1+w_3}) & n \text{ odd}
\end{cases}
\]
(A35)

where we made use of \( w_3 = h^2 \rho / k^4 \), as well as \( w_1 = U' / k^2 \) and \( w_2 = \rho U'' / k^2 \). For bosonic diagrams we defined
\[
\ell_{B,(n,m)}^{(n,m)} (\hat{T}, w, 3) = \begin{cases} 
\ell_3 (\hat{\mu}) \mathcal{F}_n (\sqrt{1+w_3}) & n \text{ even} \\
\ell_1 (\hat{\mu}) \mathcal{F}_n (\sqrt{1+w_3}) & n \text{ odd}
\end{cases}
\]
(A36)

\[
\ell_{B,2}^{(n,m)} (\hat{T}, w_1, w_2) = \frac{1}{S_{2m}^{\phi}} \left( 1 - \eta_{\phi} \frac{n}{d+2} \right) (1 + w_1 + w_2)^n \mathcal{B}_n \left( \sqrt{(1+w_1)(1+w_1+2w_2)}/S_{\phi} \right)
\]
(A37)

and
\[
\ell_{B,2}^{(0,m)} (\hat{T}, w_1, w_2) = \frac{1}{S_{2m}^{\phi}} \mathcal{B}_n \left( \sqrt{(1+w_1)(1+w_1+2w_2)}/S_{\phi} \right) = \ell_{B}^{(0,m)} |_{\eta_{\phi}=0}.
\]
(A38)

\( \mathcal{F}_n (z) \) and \( \mathcal{B}_n (z) \) label the fermionic and bosonic Matsubara sums of order \( m \), respectively. The functions \( \ell_i \) are defined as
\[
\ell_1 (x) = \theta (x + 1) (x + 1)^{d/2} - \theta (x - 1) (x - 1)^{d/2},
\]
\[
\ell_2 (x) = \ell_3 (x) - 2 \theta (x) x^{d/2}
\]
(A40)

and the \( d \)-dimensional volume integral is given by \( v^{-1}_d = 2^{d+1} \pi^{d/2} \Gamma (d/2) \).

In order to obtain the flow of the density \( n = n_k \to 0 \) we may split the chemical potential into a reference part \( \mu_0 \) and an offset \( \delta \mu \) such that \( \mu = \mu_0 + \delta \mu \). We then expand our effective potential (21) with respect to the offset chemical potential \( \delta \mu \) according to
\[
U_k (\rho) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{U_n}{n!} (\rho - \rho_0)^n - n_k \delta \mu + \alpha_k (\rho - \rho_0) \delta \mu
\]
(A41)

and
\[
\dot{n}_k = - \frac{\partial U}{\partial \delta \mu}.
\]
(A42)

According to our master equation for the effective average potential (A19) we now expand \( L^{S,Q}_\phi \) and \( \det Q^{\phi} \) in terms of \( \delta \mu \) while the fermionic cutoff still regularises around the Fermi surface, i.e. the reference chemical potential \( \mu_0 \).

5. Flow equations for finite volume

When confining our system by means of a compactification of one spatial dimension in a dimensional crossover from \( 3d \) to \( 2d \) with a confinement length scale \( L \). By adopting periodic boundary conditions we restrict our system to a torus in one spatial direction
\[
\psi (L) = \psi (0)
\]
(A43)

such that we obtain a ‘spatial Matsubara sum’ over discrete momenta \( k_n = 2\pi n/L \) with \( n \in \mathbb{Z} \). Accompanying this quantisation of energy levels the bosonic and fermionic regulators defined are modified accordingly.
For the optimised regulator they become

\[ R_{\phi,k}(q^2) = \left( k^2 - \frac{q^2 + k_n^2}{2} \right) \theta \left( k^2 - \frac{q^2 + \tilde{k}_n^2}{2} \right), \]

\[ R_{\psi,k}(q^2) = k^2 \left[ \text{sgn} \left( z + \tilde{k}_n^2 \right) - \left( z + \tilde{k}_n^2 \right) \right] \times \theta \left( 1 - |z + \tilde{k}_n^2| \right), \]

(A44)

where we again used \( z = (q^2 - \mu)/k^2 \) and \( \tilde{k}_n = k_n/k \). Hence the \( d \)-dimensional spatial integration splits up into a sum over the discrete momenta \( k_n \) and a momentum integral in \( d-1 \) dimensions

\[ \int \frac{d^d q}{(2 \pi)^d} = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k_n} \int \frac{d^{d-1} q}{(2 \pi)^{d-1}}. \]  

(A45)

Due to the inclusion of the discrete momenta in the regulator the evaluation of the spatial boils down to counting the modes within the potential well. For periodic boundary conditions we hereby encounter the following type of sums

\[ \sum_{n=-N}^{N} \alpha = \alpha (1 + 2 N) \quad (\alpha \in \mathbb{R}), \]

\[ \sum_{n=1}^{N} n^2 = \frac{1}{6} N (1 + N) (1 + 2 N), \]

(A46)

As a result of the periodic boundary conditions the regulator function restricts the Matsubara-type summation in the transversal direction to \( |k_n| = |2\pi n/L| < \sqrt{2} k \) or equivalently \( |n| < \tilde{L}/\sqrt{2}\pi \).

For bosonic contributions we define

\[ N^{(B)} = \left\lfloor \frac{\tilde{L}}{\sqrt{2}\pi} \right\rfloor \]  

(A48)

with \( \lfloor x \rfloor \) being the largest integer smaller than \( x \). In three dimensions we find

\[ C_L = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{k_n} \left( 1 - \frac{k_n^2}{2 k^2} \right)^{d/2} \left( 1 - \frac{\eta_{\phi}}{d+2} \left( 1 - \frac{k_n^2}{2 k^2} \right) \right) \theta \left( k^2 - \frac{k_n^2}{2} \right) \]

\[ = \frac{k}{L} \left( 1 + 2 N^{(B)} \right) \left[ 1 - \frac{\eta_{\phi}}{4} \left( 1 - \frac{\eta_{\phi}}{2} \right) \left( \frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^2 N^{(B)} (1 + N^{(B)}) \right. \]

\[ - \frac{\eta_{\phi}}{60} \left( \frac{2\pi}{L} \right)^4 N^{(B)} \left( 1 + N^{(B)} \right) \left( -1 + 3 N^{(B)} + 3 \left( N^{(B)} \right)^2 \right). \]

(A49)

Thus all bosonic flow equations still hold with the replacements

\[ \left( 1 - \frac{\eta_{\phi}}{d+2} \right) \rightarrow C_L, \quad d \rightarrow d - 1. \]

(A50)

The fermionic momentum integrals can be generalised by the transformation \( z \rightarrow \tilde{z} = (q^2 + k_n^2 - \mu)/k^2 \). All results can then be transferred by the transformation \( \mu \rightarrow \tilde{\mu} = \mu - k_n^2 \). For periodic boundary conditions it can be easily shown in \( d = 3 \) dimensions
\[
\frac{1}{L} \sum_{k_n} \theta (\hat{\mu} + 1) (\hat{\mu} + 1)^{(d-1)/2} = \frac{1}{L} \left[ (\hat{\mu} + 1) \left( 1 + 2 N_1^{(F)} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{2 \pi}{L} \right)^2 N_1^{(F)} \left( 1 + N_1^{(F)} \right) \left( 1 + 2 N_1^{(F)} \right) \right] \theta (\hat{\mu} + 1),
\]
\[
\frac{1}{L} \sum_{k_n} \theta (\hat{\mu} - 1) (\hat{\mu} - 1)^{(d-1)/2} = \frac{1}{L} \left[ (\hat{\mu} - 1) \left( 1 + 2 N_2^{(F)} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{2 \pi}{L} \right)^2 N_2^{(F)} \left( 1 + N_2^{(F)} \right) \left( 1 + 2 N_2^{(F)} \right) \right] \theta (\hat{\mu} - 1),
\]
\[
\frac{1}{L} \sum_{k_n} \theta (\hat{\mu}) (\hat{\mu})^{(d-1)/2} = \frac{1}{L} \left[ \hat{\mu} \left( 1 + 2 N_3^{(F)} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{2 \pi}{L} \right)^2 N_3^{(F)} \left( 1 + N_3^{(F)} \right) \left( 1 + 2 N_3^{(F)} \right) \right] \theta (\hat{\mu}).
\]

(A51)

Here we defined
\[
N_1^{(F)} = \left[ \frac{\hat{L} (\hat{\mu} + 1)^{1/2}}{2 \pi} \right],
\]
\[
N_2^{(F)} = \left[ \frac{\hat{L} (\hat{\mu} - 1)^{1/2}}{2 \pi} \right],
\]
\[
N_3^{(F)} = \left[ \frac{\hat{L} \hat{\mu}^{1/2}}{2 \pi} \right].
\]

Hence for the spatial threshold function with explicit Matsubara summation we obtain for periodic boundary conditions in \( d = 3 \)

\[
\frac{1}{L} \sum_{k_n} \ell_a (\hat{\mu}) = \frac{k}{L} \left\{ \left[ (\hat{\mu} + 1) \left( 1 + 2 N_1^{(F)} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{2 \pi}{L} \right)^2 N_1^{(F)} \left( 1 + N_1^{(F)} \right) \left( 1 + 2 N_1^{(F)} \right) \right] \right.
\]
\[
(-1)^a \left[ (\hat{\mu} + 1) \rightarrow (\hat{\mu} - 1) & (N_1^{(F)} \rightarrow N_2^{(F)}) \right]
\]
\[
- (1 + (-1)^a) \left[ \hat{\mu} \left( 1 + 2 N_3^{(F)} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{2 \pi}{L} \right)^2 N_3^{(F)} \left( 1 + N_3^{(F)} \right) \left( 1 + 2 N_3^{(F)} \right) \right] \right\}
\]

(A53)

for \( a = 1, 2 \) and in addition

\[
\frac{1}{L} \sum_{k_n} \ell_3 (\hat{\mu}) = \frac{k}{L} \left\{ \left[ (\hat{\mu} + 1) \left( 1 + 2 N_1^{(F)} \right) - \frac{1}{3} \left( \frac{2 \pi}{L} \right)^2 N_1^{(F)} \left( 1 + N_1^{(F)} \right) \left( 1 + 2 N_1^{(F)} \right) \right] \right.
\]
\[
+ \left[ (\hat{\mu} + 1) \rightarrow (\hat{\mu} - 1) & (N_1^{(F)} \rightarrow N_2^{(F)}) \right] \right\}
\]

(A54)

Thus all fermionic flow equations can be transferred to the case of finite volume with periodic boundary conditions with the replacement

\[
\ell_i \rightarrow \ell_{i,L} = \frac{k}{L} \sum_{k_n} \ell_i, \quad d \rightarrow d - 1.
\]

(A55)

Appendix B: Numerical procedure

The set of coupled differential equations for the projected flow equations from A are numerically evaluated for both zero and finite temperature. However, it is a useful feature of the functional renormalisation group that for large scales \( k^2 \gg T \) the finite temperature flow can
be approximated by the zero temperature system [47]. For a practical computation we choose $k_{\text{switch},T} = 10\pi T$, \( k \equiv 100/L \), which significantly decreases the runtime of the computation. The agreement of the results with and without splitting the flow in zero and finite temperature, as well as unconfined and confined flow equations was checked numerically.

Likewise, the Fermi gas confined to a trap can be regarded as an unconfined system for large scales $k \gg L^{-1}$. Here we choose $k_{\text{switch},T} = 100/L$, which significantly decreases the runtime of the computation. The agreement of the results with and without splitting the flow in zero and finite temperature, as well as unconfined and confined flow equations was checked numerically.

### Appendix C: $\mu$-dependence

In this appendix we discuss the potential $\mu$-dependences of initial conditions as well as an iterative safe way of how to extract related observables such as the density and higher $\mu$-derivatives of the free energy. A similar procedure can be found in [84].

It is well-known that thermal fluctuations decay exponentially with the infrared cut-off scale,

$$ f(k/T,R)e^{-c(R)k/T}, \quad (C1) $$

where $f(k/T,R)$ rises not more than polynomially or even decays, depending on the (canonical) dimension of the observable under consideration, see [85]. The form of the prefactor as well as the coefficient $c(R)$ depend on the shape of the regulator. In particular, for non-analytic cut-offs (in frequency) such as the sharp cut-off and the optimal cut-off we have $c(R) = 0$ and the thermal behaviour at large cut-off scales relates to the dimension of the observable. Note that (C1) can be shown to hold to any order of a given approximation scheme and hence is a formal, exact property of thermal fluctuations. It is intimately linked to the fact that thermal sums can be represented as contour integrals and the infrared cut-off scale serves as a mass parameter which shifts poles to momenta $p^2 \propto \chi k^2$. This also hints at the fact that it is not present for non-analytic regulators, where the Matsubara sum cannot be represented as a contour integral, and a naive dimensional analysis prevails.

In contradistinction, the chemical potential $\mu$ as well as other external tuning parameters only lead to a polynomial decay or rise in the dimensionless ratio

$$ \hat{k} = \frac{k}{\mu}, \quad \hat{\mu} = \frac{k}{\sqrt{\mu}}, \quad (C2) $$

for the relativistic case and non-relativistic case respectively. In most cases this behaviour is related to the (canonical) dimension of the observable at hand. For example, the free energy or effective action has a vanishing canonical dimension. However, it relates to (negative) pressure times space-time volume $V$ and hence has a scaling dimension $d_p = d + 1$ in the relativistic case and scaling dimension $d_p = d + 1$ in the non-relativistic case.

The above arguments entail that the flow of the thermal pressure,

$$ \partial_t p(T,\mu) := \left( \frac{\partial_t \Gamma_k[\phi_{\text{EoS}};k,T,\mu]}{V_T} - \frac{\partial_t \Gamma_k[\phi_{\text{EoS}};k,0,\mu]}{V_0} \right), \quad (C3) $$

in general decays exponentially for large cut-off scales,

$$ \partial_t p(T,\mu) \approx e^{-c(R)k/T}, \quad (C4) $$

while the free energy density, $f$, normalised in the vacuum,

$$ \partial_t f(T,\mu) := \left( \frac{\partial_t \Gamma_k[\phi_{\text{EoS}};k,T,\mu]}{V_T} - \frac{\partial_t \Gamma_k[\phi_{\text{EoS}};k,0,0]}{V_0} \right), \quad (C5) $$

has polynomial growth with $k$,

$$ \partial_t f(T,\mu) \rightarrow c_{d_j} - 2k^{d_j} \hat{k}^{-2} + c_{d_j} - 4k^{d_j} \hat{k}^{-4} + k^{d_j} O(\hat{k}^{-6}), \quad (C6) $$

Here, vanishing exponents (in the relativistic case) include logarithms.

#### 1. Initial conditions

Evidently, the initial conditions for observables or couplings $\lambda_i$ with scaling dimension $d_{\lambda_i} \geq 2$ are $\mu$-dependent. In turn, for sufficiently large cut-off scales $\hat{k} \gg 1$ the initial conditions for couplings with scaling dimension $d_{\lambda_i} < 2$ do not change when changing the chemical potential.

First we concentrate on the effective action, the flow of which is the master equation in our approach,

$$ \partial_t \Gamma_k[\phi] = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr} G_{k,\varphi} \partial_t R_{k,\varphi} - \text{Tr} G_{k,\psi} \partial_t R_{k,\psi}, \quad (C7) $$

where the field $\varphi$ stands for bosonic fields while $\psi$ stands for fermionic ones. Every observable and coupling can be derived directly from (C7) and its solution. Indeed, if different definitions of observables such as the density exist, the one directly using the flow (C7) has the smallest systematic uncertainty.

For our investigation we write the effective action as

$$ \Gamma_k = \Gamma_k[\phi;\tilde{g}], \quad \tilde{g} = (m_\psi, m_\varphi, Z_\psi, Z_\varphi, h, \lambda_\varphi, \lambda_\psi, \ldots), \quad (C8) $$

where $\tilde{g}$ encodes all couplings (expansion coefficients) of the effective action, ordered in decaying mass dimension. We conclude that in $d = 4$ dimensions the only couplings that potentially require $\mu$-dependent initial conditions
are the mass parameters (including \(\mu\) itself). However, the flow of the dimer mass reads asymptotically
\[
\partial_t m_r^2 \sim k \frac{h^2}{k} (1 + \mu/k^2)^{3/2} \quad (C9)
\]
and hence its \(\mu\)-derivative tends towards zero, and the only coupling to be taken care of is the fermionic mass (and chemical potential).

2. Density

As already mentioned above, the equation for the density with the smallest systematic error is its flow. For the non-relativistic case it reads
\[
\partial_t n = \frac{1}{\text{Vol}} \frac{d}{d\mu} \partial^t \Gamma_k \to c_{n,3} k^3 + c_{n,1} \mu k + O(\hat{k}^{-1}) , \quad (C10)
\]
and a similar equation holds for the relativistic case. The flow of the susceptibility reads
\[
\partial_t \partial^2 \mu n = \frac{1}{\text{Vol}} \frac{d^2}{d\mu^2} \partial^t \Gamma_k \to c_{n,1} k + O(\hat{k}^{-1}) , \quad (C11)
\]
while the flow of the second \(\mu\)-derivative of the density tends towards zero for large cut-off scales,
\[
\partial_t \partial^2 \mu^2 n = \frac{\partial^2 \partial^t \Gamma_k}{\text{Vol}} \to O(\hat{k}^{-1}) , \quad (C12)
\]
We conclude that we can represent the density, and the susceptibility at vanishing cut-off, \(k = 0\), by
\[
n(\mu) = \int_0^\mu d\mu' \partial^t \mu n(\mu') , \quad \text{with} \quad n(0) = 0 , \quad (C13)
\]
and
\[
\partial^t \mu n(\mu) = \int_0^\mu d\mu' \partial^t \mu^2 n(\mu') , \quad \text{with} \quad \partial^t \mu n(0) = 0 , \quad (C14)
\]
It is left to determine \(\partial^2 \mu n_k(\mu)\). To that end we rewrite the flow of the density as
\[
\partial_t n_k = \frac{d\partial^t \Gamma_k}{d\mu} = \partial^t \mu \partial_t \Gamma_k + \frac{d g_i}{d\mu} \partial_t g_i \partial_t \Gamma_k . \quad (C15)
\]
Both terms follow analytically from the master equation, (C7), and each partial \(\mu\)-derivatives and \(d g_i/d\mu \partial_t g_i\)-derivative lowers the effective \(k\)-dimension by two. The coefficients \(g_i^{(1)} = d g_i/d\mu\) with
\[
g_i^{(n)} = \frac{d^n g_i}{d\mu^n} \quad (C16)
\]
follow from their flow
\[
\partial_t g_i^{(1)} = \frac{d}{d\mu} \partial_t g_i = \partial^t \mu \partial_t g_i + g_i^{(1)} \partial_t g_i \partial_t \Gamma_k . \quad (C17)
\]
Eq. (C17) is a coupled differential equation for \(g_i^{(1)}\),
\[
\partial_t g_i^{(1)} = \tilde{A}_1 + B_1 \cdot g_i \quad (C18)
\]
with coefficients
\[
A_{1,i} = \partial^t \mu \partial_t g_i , \quad B_{1,ij} = \partial^t \mu \partial_t g_i . \quad (C19)
\]
The coefficients \(A_{1,i}\) and \(B_{1,ij}\) can be read-off from the flow (C7), and hence (C18) is a so-called derived flow: it does not feed back into the flow of the effective action. Naturally, this can be iteratively extended to the higher derivatives w.r.t. \(\mu\). For \(g_i^{(2)}\) it reads
\[
\partial_t g_i^{(2)} = \frac{d}{d\mu} \left( A_{1,i} + B_{1,ij} g_j^{(1)} \right) \quad (C20)
\]
\[
= \partial^t \mu A_{1,i} + g_j^{(1)} \left( B_{1,ij} + B_{1,ij} g_j^{(2)} \right) . \quad (C21)
\]
Again this can be conveniently rewritten in terms of a system of linear differential equations
\[
\partial_t \tilde{g}^{(2)} = \tilde{A}_2 + \tilde{B} \cdot \tilde{g}^{(2)} , \quad (C22)
\]
with
\[
A_{2,i} = \left( \partial^t \mu + g_m^{(1)} \partial_m \right) A_{1,i} + g_j^{(1)} \left( \partial^t \mu + g_m^{(1)} \partial_m \right) B_{1,ij} . \quad (C23)
\]
More explicitly we have
\[
A_{2,i} = \partial^2 \mu \partial_t g_i + 2 y_j^{(1)} \partial g_j \partial_t g_i + g_j^{(1)} \partial_m g_m \partial_g \partial_t g_i , \quad B_{2,ij} = \partial^t \mu \partial_t g_i . \quad (C24)
\]
This already allows us to put down the general structure. At a given order \(g_i^{(n)}\) the matrix \(B_n\) is simply \(B_1\). The vector \(A_n\) depends on \(\tilde{g}, \tilde{g}^{(1)}, \ldots, \tilde{g}^{(n-1)}\). Hence it can be determined iteratively with
\[
A_{n,i} = \left( \partial^t \mu + \sum_{m=1}^{n-1} g_j^{(m)} \partial g_j^{(m-1)} \right) A_{n-1,i} + g_j^{(n-1)} \left( \partial^t \mu + g_m^{(1)} \partial_m \right) B_{ij} \quad (C25)
\]
with \(g_i^{(0)} = g_i\) and
\[
\left( \partial^t \mu + g_m^{(1)} \partial_m \right) B_{ij} = \partial \partial g_i \partial g_j + g_m^{(1)} \partial g_j \partial g_i . \quad (C26)
\]
For \(n = 3\) this explicitly yields
\[
A_{3,i} = \left[ \partial^t \mu + 3 g_j^{(1)} \partial g_j + g_j^{(1)} g_m^{(1)} \partial_g \partial g_i \right] \partial_t g_i + g_j^{(1)} g_m^{(1)} \partial_g \partial g_i \partial_g \partial g_i + g_j^{(1)} g_m^{(1)} \partial_g \partial_g \partial g_i \partial_t g_i . \quad (C27)
\]
Note that there are various forms for the coefficients $A_n$ and $B_n$. The above forms have the advantage that all derivatives w.r.t. $\mu$ and $g_i^{(n)}$ can be performed analytically. Finally we write down the flow for higher $\mu$-derivatives of $\Gamma_k$

$$\partial^{(n-1)} \mu \hat{n}(\mu) = \frac{d^n}{d\mu^n} \left[ \partial_\mu + \sum_{m=1}^{n} \left( g_j^{(m)} \partial_{\hat{g}_j}^{(m-1)} \right) \right] C_{n-1}, \quad (C27)$$

with

$$C_0 = \partial_\mu \Gamma_k. \quad (C28)$$

For $n = 2$ this explicitly yields

$$\partial_\mu \partial_\mu n_k = \frac{d^2}{d\mu^2} \partial_\mu \Gamma_k = \left[ \partial^2_\mu \hat{g} + 2 g_i^{(1)} \partial_{g_i} \partial_\mu + g_j^{(1)} g_i^{(1)} \partial_{g_i} \partial_{g_j} \partial_\mu + g_m^{(1)} g_j^{(1)} \partial_{g_j} \partial_{g_m} \partial_\mu + 3 g_i^{(2)} \partial_{g_i} \partial_{g_i} \partial_\mu \right] \partial_\mu \Gamma_k, \quad (C29)$$

while the second $\mu$-derivative of the flow for the density is found to be

$$\partial_\mu \partial_\mu n_k = \frac{d^3}{d\mu^3} \partial_\mu \Gamma_k = \left[ \partial^3_\mu \hat{g} + 3 g_i^{(1)} \partial_{g_i} \partial^2_\mu + 3 g_i^{(1)} g_j^{(1)} \partial_{g_i} \partial_{g_j} \partial_\mu + g_m^{(1)} g_j^{(1)} \partial_{g_j} \partial_{g_m} \partial_\mu + 3 g_i^{(2)} \partial_{g_i} \partial_{g_i} \partial_\mu + 3 g_i^{(3)} \partial_{g_i} \partial_{g_i} \partial_\mu \right] \partial_\mu \Gamma_k. \quad (C30)$$

Moreover, we have

$$\partial_\mu^2 n_{k=0}(\mu) = \int_0^\Lambda \frac{dk}{k} \partial_\mu^2 \hat{n}_k(\mu) \quad (C31)$$

for a UV vanishing flow $\partial_\mu^2 \hat{n}_{k \rightarrow \infty} \rightarrow 0$.

Hence, overall the density at vanishing cutoff $k = 0$ is obtained by integrating twice over the chemical potential

$$n(\mu) = \int_0^\mu d\mu' \left[ \int_0^{\mu'} d\mu'' \partial_\mu'' n(\mu'') + \partial_\mu n(0) \right] + n(0), \quad (C30)$$

where $n(0)$ and $\partial_\mu n(0)$ are vanishing.
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