Non-Abelian Weizsäcker-Williams field and a two-dimensional effective color charge density for a very large nucleus.

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We consider a very large ultra-relativistic nucleus. Assuming a simple model of the nucleus and weak coupling we find a classical solution for the gluon field of the nucleus and construct the two-dimensional color charge density for McLerran-Venugopalan model out of it. We prove that the density of states distribution, as a function of color charge density, is Gaussian, confirming the assumption made by McLerran and Venugopalan.

PACS number(s): 12.38.Bx, 24.85.+p

I. INTRODUCTION.

Consider a very large nucleus, probably larger than can be physically realized. The nucleons are distributed homogeneously inside the nucleus. Recently L. McLerran and R. Venugopalan proposed a program of computing the gluon distribution functions for such a nucleus at small \( x \) \([1,2]\).

One of the interesting problems in the McLerran-Venugopalan model for the small-\( x \) part of the gluon distribution of such a large nucleus \([1,2]\) is finding the classical solution for the gluon field treating the valence quarks of the nucleons in the nucleus as recoiless sources, which are delta functions along the light-cone when the nucleus is moving near the velocity of light. A convenient way to deal with the problem is by working in the light-cone gauge. The source is characterized by a two-dimensional color charge density \( \rho(\underline{x}) \), where \( \underline{x} \) is a vector in the transverse direction. The proposed model assumes that in order to find the average value of any observable having longitudinal coherence length long compared to the nucleus, one calculates this observable for a given \( \rho(\underline{x}) \), and then averages it over all \( \rho \) with the measure

\[
\int [d\rho] \exp \left( -\frac{1}{2\mu^2} \int d^2x \rho^2(\underline{x}) \right),
\]

where \( \mu^2 \) is the average charge density squared.

We consider a large nucleus consisting of “nucleons”, which for simplicity of description are chosen to be just quark-antiquark pairs (see Fig. 1). Valence quark and antiquark are treated as point particles free to move inside of the nucleon, but unable to get out.

![FIG. 1. Nucleus with “nucleons” being quark-antiquark pairs.](image)

We are interested in the gluon field of the ultrarelativistic nucleus viewed in the laboratory frame. We assume that the field in each individual nucleon is not large. This allows us to approximate the covariant gauge potential of each quark by a single gluon exchange. In a covariant gauge the classical field of a single ultrarelativistic particle is proportional to a delta-function in the \( x_- \) direction \([3]\). Since in our model of ultrarelativistic nucleus different quarks...
have different \( x_- \) coordinates in the laboratory frame, the fields of individual quarks don’t overlap, which allows us to superimpose them and justifies our single gluon exchange approximation. Then the total field of the nucleus in the covariant gauge is the sum of the quark fields. We make a gauge transformation which changes the total potential to the light-cone gauge. So, we get a solution to the classical equations of motion in light-cone gauge, where the field, \( A_\mu \), is directly related to the gluon distribution in the small-\( x_- \) region [1].

Following McLerran and Venugopalan the nucleus is considered to be very large, thus although the field of each individual nucleon is weak, the total field is strong at low momentum in the light-cone gauge due to the overlap of the fields of a huge number of nucleons. Still we can neglect the contributions of several nucleons, without changing the answer, i.e., we work in the leading power of the number of nucleons.

We may treat the source as classical only when we are at sufficiently small momenta that the individual quarks cannot be resolved. It was shown in [1] that this requires that \( k^2 \ll \mu^2 \), where \( k \) is the typical momentum scale. The weak coupling approximation is valid when \( k^2 \gg \Lambda^2_{QCD} \). Then the momentum range we consider is \( \Lambda^2_{QCD} \ll k^2 \ll \mu^2 \).

Now the task is to construct the two-dimensional charge density, giving the correct classical solution. This is done by just substituting the classical solution in the equations of motion. The density we find this way happens to satisfy the Gaussian distribution. We show this by calculating the correlation functions of the densities at different transverse points and proving that they are exactly what one would expect for the Gaussian distribution [11]. That is we justify the method for averaging the observables proposed by McLerran and Venugopalan.

In sect. 2 we calculate the solution of the classical equations of motion - the non-Abelian Weizs"acker-Williams field. In sect. 3 we construct the two-dimensional charge density. In sect. 4 we show that the charge density has a Gaussian distribution by calculating the correlation functions. In sect. 5 we confirm the techniques proposed in [1].

II. APPROXIMATE SOLUTION.

We start with some random distribution of nucleons in the nucleus and quarks and antiquarks in the nucleons. The nucleons, in the rest frame of the nucleus, are assumed to be spheres with equal radius, and the quarks and antiquarks are distributed randomly inside each sphere, with equal probability to be at any place inside the sphere, but with zero probability to get outside. The density in the rest frame is given by

\[
\rho(\vec{x}) = \sum_{a=1}^{8} T^a \rho^a(\vec{x})
\]

with

\[
\rho^a(\vec{x}) = g \sum_{i=1}^{N} (T^a_i) [\delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_i) - \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}'_i)],
\]

where \( \vec{x}_i \) is the coordinate of a quark in the \( i \)th nucleon (there are \( N \) nucleons in the nucleus), \( \vec{x}'_i \) is the coordinate of the antiquark, \( T^a \) are generators of \( SU(3) \) in color space, \( (T^a_i) \) are similar generators in the color space of each nucleon. The reason we separate them is because \( \rho^a \) comes from the current \( j^a_\mu = g T^a \gamma_\mu (T^a)_{\alpha\beta} q^\beta \), so the expression for \( \rho^a \) should include a \( T^a \) acting in each individual nucleon’s color space.

In the laboratory frame for the ultra-relativistic nucleus the density is

\[
\rho(\vec{x}, x_-) = \frac{g}{\sqrt{2}} \sum_{a=1}^{8} \sum_{i=1}^{N} T^a (T^a_i) \left[ \delta(x_- - x_{-i}) \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}_i) - \delta(x_- - x'_{-i}) \delta(\vec{x} - \vec{x}'_i) \right].
\]

Assuming that the coupling is weak and using the expression for the potential of a single particle in a covariant gauge [3, Appendix A] we approximate the field of the nucleus by superposition as

\[
A'_+ = -\frac{g}{2\pi} \sum_{a=1}^{8} \sum_{i=1}^{N} T^a (T^a_i) \left[ \delta(x_- - x_{-i}) \ln(|\vec{x} - \vec{x}_i|/\lambda) - \delta(x_- - x'_{-i}) \ln(|\vec{x} - \vec{x}'_i|/\lambda) \right], A'_- = 0, A'_0 = 0,
\]

where \( \lambda \) is some infrared cutoff. The prime at the field or the field strength denotes the covariant gauge. The field strength in the covariant gauge is then
\[ F_{\perp} = \frac{g}{2\pi} \sum_{a=1}^{8} \sum_{i=1}^{N} T^a(T_i^a) \left( \delta(x_- - x_{-i}) \frac{x - x'_i}{|x - x'_i|^2} - \delta(x_- - x'_{-i}) \frac{x - x_i}{|x - x_i|^2} \right). \]  

(6)

From here on the subscript \( \perp \) will mean that the object is a vector in the transverse space over this index.

We now do a gauge transformation to transform this field into the light-cone gauge. The potential in a new gauge is

\[ A_\mu = S A'_\mu S^{-1} - \frac{i}{g} (\partial_\mu S) S^{-1}. \]  

(7)

Requiring the new gauge to be the light-cone gauge, \( A_\perp = 0 \), we obtain

\[ S(x, x_-) = \text{P \exp}\left(-i g \int_{-\infty}^{x_-} dx'_- A'_\perp(x, x'_-)\right). \]  

(8)

Then the field in the light cone gauge is

\[ A(x, x_-) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_-} dx'_- F_{\perp} (x, x'_-) = \int_{-\infty}^{x_-} dx'_- S(x, x'_-) F_{\perp} (x, x'_-) S^{-1}(x, x_-), \]  

(9)

Only transverse components are non-zero. Substituting \( F_{\perp} (x, x'_-) \) from (8) we get

\[ A(x, x_-) = \frac{g}{2\pi} \sum_{a=1}^{8} \sum_{i=1}^{N} T^a T_i^a \left( S(x, x_-) T^a S^{-1}(x, x_-) \frac{x - x'_i}{|x - x'_i|^2} \theta(x_- - x_{-i}) \right. \]

\[ - S(x'_i, x'_{-i}) T^a S^{-1}(x'_i, x'_{-i}) \frac{x - x_i}{|x - x_i|^2} \theta(x_- - x'_{-i}) \right). \]  

(10)

This is our estimate of the solution of the classical equations of motion for a given configuration of quarks inside the nucleons and nucleons inside the nucleus. Formula (10) gives us the non-Abelian Weizsäcker-Williams field generated by the valence quarks.

### III. TWO-DIMENSIONAL COLOR CHARGE DENSITY.

The equation of motion is

\[ D_\mu F^{\mu\nu} = J^\nu. \]  

(11)

In the McLerran-Venugopalan model [1] the classical current \( J^\mu \) only has components in the + direction and is proportional to a delta function of \( x_- \):

\[ J^\mu(x) = \delta^{\mu+} \delta(x_-) \rho(x). \]  

(12)

This can be treated as a definition of the two-dimensional color density. Our goal now is to construct \( \rho(x) \). Integrating both sides of (11) over \( x_- \) and using (12) gives

\[ \rho(x) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx_- D_1 F_{+1} (x, x_-) \]

\[ = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx_- \{ \partial_x F_{+1} (x, x_-) - ig[A_i(x, x_-), F_{+1}(x, x_-)] \}, \]  

(13)

where \( i = 1, 2 \) (transverse direction). Using \( A(x, x_-) \) from (10), we can calculate \( F_{+\perp}(x, x_-) \). Substituting both in (13) we end up with the following expression for the density:

\[ \rho(x) = g \sum_{a=1}^{8} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (T^a_i) S(x, x_-) T^a S^{-1}(x, x_-) \delta(x - x'_i) \]

\[ - S(x'_i, x'_{-i}) T^a S^{-1}(x'_i, x'_{-i}) \delta(x - x'_i) \].  

(14)
The details of calculations are presented in Appendix B. We can see now that our expression for two-dimensional density is just a rotation of the three-dimensional density (in the laboratory frame) we started with:

\[ \rho(\mathbf{r}) = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx_- S(x_-, x_-) \sqrt{2} \rho(x_-) S^{-1}(x_-). \] (15)

In the expression for the light-cone potential we had an infrared cutoff \( \lambda \), so it may seem that this cutoff will appear in the \( S(x_-, x_-) \), and, consequently in \( \rho(x_-) \). However this is not the case, because, although the light-cone potential is cutoff dependent, \( S(x_-, x_-) \) is not. To see this let’s do an explicit calculation of \( S(x_-, x_-) \): substituting (3) into (8) and using the definition of the path-ordered exponential we obtain

\[ S(x_-, x_-) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \left( \theta(x'_i - x_{-i}) e^{\Sigma_i} e^{\Sigma'_i} + \theta(x_{-i} - x'_i) e^{\Sigma'_i} e^{\Sigma_i} \right), \] (16)

with

\[ \Sigma_i = \frac{ig^2}{2\pi} \sum_{a=1}^{g} T^{a}(T_i^{a}) \ln(|x_--x_{-i}|) \theta(x_{-i} - x_{-i}), \]
\[ \Sigma'_i = -\frac{ig^2}{2\pi} \sum_{a=1}^{g} T^{a}(T_i^{a}) \ln(|x_i-x_{-i}|) \theta(x_{-i} - x_{-i}). \] (17)

But the matrices we exponentiate (\( \Sigma_i \) and \( \Sigma'_i \)) commute (for the same \( i \)), so

\[ S(x_-, x_-) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} \exp \left[ \frac{ig^2}{2\pi} \sum_{a=1}^{g} T^{a}(T_i^{a}) \ln \left( \frac{|x_--x_{-i}|}{|x_i-x_{-i}|} \right) \theta(x_{-i} - x_{-i}) \right]. \] (18)

Here we neglected the contribution of the “last” nucleon, i.e. the nucleon (or several nucleons) whose quarks or antiquarks may overlap the point \( x_- \) at which we calculate \( S(x_-, x_-) \). These nucleons may potentially cause us some trouble, but the philosophy of the large nucleus approximation implies that the fields of individual nucleons are small, and we construct a strong field out of a large number of nucleons. The contribution of each individual nucleon is negligible, it’s their sum which matters. That means we can neglect these “last” nucleons.

Another way to say this is that we want to do a calculation keeping the leading powers of \( N \) only. Then dropping few nucleons will not change our result.

From (18) we see that \( S(x_-, x_-) \) is cutoff independent, and so is the density \( \rho(x_-) \).

**IV. CALCULATION OF CORRELATION FUNCTIONS.**

Now that we found the charge density, let’s show that it’s distribution is Gaussian by calculating the density correlation functions. First we note that the average density is zero, as expected: \( < \rho^a(x_+) > = 0 \), where \( < \ldots > \) denote the averaging over all possible positions of quarks and antiquarks in the nucleons, and nucleons in the nucleus, as well as averaging over all possible colors (keeping each nucleon color neutral).

For two densities correlation function we have:

\[ < \rho^a(x_+) \rho^b(y_+) > = g^2 \prod_{k=1}^{N} \int \frac{d^3r_k}{(4\pi)^3} \frac{d^3x_k d^3x'_k}{([4\pi^3 \alpha]^3)^2} \langle \alpha \bar{\beta} \rangle \rho^a(x_+) \rho^b(y_+) \langle \bar{\beta} \rangle, \] (19)

where \( R \) is the radius of the nucleus, \( a \) is the radius of the nucleons, \( r_k \) is the position of the center of the \( k \)th nucleon in the nucleus (in the rest frame), \( x_k \) and \( x'_k \) are positions of the quarks in the nucleons; \( \langle \alpha \bar{\beta} \rangle \ldots \langle \bar{\beta} \rangle \) implies an average over all color-neutral states of the nucleons.

Using (14) we obtain (since \( \rho^a(x_-) = 2Tr[T^a \rho(x_-)] \))

\[ < \rho^a(x_-) \rho^b(y_-) > = g^2 \prod_{k=1}^{N} \int \frac{d^3r_k}{(4\pi)^3} \frac{d^3x_k d^3x'_k}{([4\pi^3 \alpha]^3)^2} \langle \alpha \bar{\beta} \rangle \sum_{c,d=1}^{8} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} \langle T_{ci}^c \rangle \langle T_{dj}^d \rangle. \]
After dropping the “last” nucleon, there will be no \((T_i^c)\) matrices in \(S(x_i, x_{i-1})\) and \(S(x_i', x_{i-1}')\). It is convenient to label nucleons according to their coordinates along the \(x\)-axis. The greater the coordinate, the greater the number of the nucleon. Without any loss of generality we can assume that \(i \geq j\). Then if \(i > j\) the \((T_i^c)\) matrix in front will be the only matrix in the \(i\)th nucleon color space for the term corresponding to fixed \(i\) and \(j\) in our expression. So, when we do the color averaging it will give zero \([\text{Tr}(T_i^c) = 0]\). That means that \(i = j\). Then color averaging in the \(i\)th nucleon space gives \(\frac{1}{N_c}\text{Tr}([T_i^c]) = \frac{1}{2N_c} \delta^{d-i}\).

Each density is a difference of the quark and antiquark parts. In \((20)\) one can easily see that the product of quark (and antiquark) components gives a delta-function of \(x\) and \(y\), while the product of quark and antiquark components gives some smooth function. In most of the physical applications we’ll be looking at the scales much smaller than the nucleon’s radius \(a\) \([4]\). At these scales we can neglect this cross terms with respect to the delta-function terms:

\[
< \rho^a(x) \rho^b(y) > = \frac{g^2}{N_c a^2} \delta(x - y) \prod_{i=1}^{N} \int \frac{d^3 r_i}{(4/3)\pi R^3} \sum_{k=1}^{3} \sqrt{1 - \left(\frac{x - r_i}{a}\right)^2} \prod_{k=1}^{i-1} \int \frac{d^3 x_k d^3 x_k'}{(4/3)\pi a^3} \times (aR) \sum_{c=1}^{8} 4\text{Tr}[^a M_{(x_i, x_{i-1})}]\text{Tr}[^b N_{(x_i, x_{i-1})}] |\beta\bar{\beta}|. \tag{21}
\]

After dropping the “last” nucleon \(S(x_{i-1}) = S(x_{i-1}')\).

For two traceless \(3 \times 3\) matrices \(M\) and \(N\) the following formula is true:

\[
\sum_{a=1}^{8} \text{Tr}[^a M^a] = \frac{1}{2} \text{Tr}[MN]. \tag{22}
\]

Using this, and making some approximation when integrating over \(r_i\) \((a \ll R)\), we get

\[
< \rho^a(x) \rho^b(y) > = \frac{3g^2}{2N_c \pi R^2} \delta(x - y) \sqrt{1 - \frac{x^2}{R^2}}. \tag{23}
\]

Here, for the first time we made an assumption about the geometry of the nucleus and nucleons in it - when doing the average over the positions of quarks and nucleons we assumed that the nucleus and nucleons are spherical in the rest frame. For a cylindrical nucleus (in \(z\)-direction) one would get \(< \rho^a(x) \rho^b(y) > = \frac{3g^2}{2N_c \pi R^2} \delta(x - y)\).

By employing a similar technique of dropping the “last” nucleon in the \(S(x_i, x_{i-1})\) and keeping the leading powers of \(N\) only, we can show that the four-density correlation function is

\[
< \rho^a(x) \rho^b(y) \rho^c(z) \rho^d(w) > = < \rho^a(x) \rho^b(y) > < \rho^c(z) \rho^d(w) > + < \rho^a(x) \rho^c(z) > \times < \rho^b(y) \rho^d(w) > + < \rho^a(x) \rho^d(w) > < \rho^b(y) \rho^c(z) > \tag{24}
\]

and prove a similar formula for a correlation function with any even number of densities, i.e., that it can be represented as

\[
< \rho^{a_1}(x_1) \ldots \rho^{a_{2n}}(x_{2n}) > = < \rho^{a_1}(x_1) \rho^{a_2}(x_2) > \ldots < \rho^{a_{2n-1}}(x_{2n-1}) \rho^{a_{2n}}(x_{2n}) > + \text{permutations}, \tag{25}
\]

where \(x_1, \ldots, x_{2n}\) are just \(2n\) arbitrary points in the nucleus. Also we can show that a correlation function with an odd number of densities is zero to all orders in \(N\) (for details see Appendix C):

\[
< \rho^{a_1}(x_1) \ldots \rho^{a_{2n+1}}(x_{2n+1}) > = 0. \tag{26}
\]
V. CONCLUSIONS.

By calculating the two densities correlation function $\langle 23 \rangle$ and proving $\langle 25 \rangle$ and $\langle 29 \rangle$ we showed that for any $n$ points $\bar{z}^1 \ldots \bar{z}^n$:

$$< \rho^{a_1}(\bar{z}^1) \ldots \rho^{a_n}(\bar{z}^n) > = \frac{\int [d\rho] \rho^{a_1}(\bar{z}^1) \ldots \rho^{a_n}(\bar{z}^n) \exp \left( - \int d^2x \frac{\rho^2(x)}{2\mu^2(x)} \right)}{\int [d\rho] \exp \left( - \int d^2x \frac{\rho^2(x)}{2\mu^2(x)} \right)},$$

(27)

with

$$\mu^2(x) = \frac{3g^2 C_F}{2} \frac{N}{N_c \pi R^2} \sqrt{1 - \frac{x^2}{R^2}} = \frac{3g^2 C_F}{2} \frac{1}{N_c \pi a^2} N^{1/3} \sqrt{1 - \frac{x^2}{R^2}},$$

(28)

in our model. Note that our $\mu^2$ goes as $N^{1/3}$, as expected. The average on the left hand side is understood as $< \ldots > = \prod_{k=1}^N \int (\frac{d^4x_k}{(4\pi)^2}) [\frac{d^3x^i d^3x^j}{(4\pi)^2}]^2 (\alpha^\mu) \ldots (\beta^\mu)$. For a spherical nucleus $\mu^2$ is a function of $\bar{z}$.

The most general observable in our system can be represented as some functional of $\int K(x', \bar{z}) \rho(x) d^2x$, namely the value of this observable for a given $\rho(x)$ is

$$O_\rho = F \left( \int K(x', \bar{z}) \rho(x) d^2x \right),$$

(29)

where $F(f)$ is some functional and $K(x', \bar{z})$ is some kernel independent of $\rho(x)$. For instance, one can consider Wilson loop: $W = < \text{Tr} \text{P} \exp \left( -ig \int dx \cdot A \right) >$. It’s a functional of $A(x)$. The field $A(x)$ can be represented as $\int K(x', \bar{z}) \rho(x) d^2x$. Then, using the definition of a path-ordered integral, we can expand the Wilson loop in the powers of $A(x)$:

$$W = < \text{Tr} \prod_k [1 - igdx_k \cdot A(x_k)] > = < \text{Tr} \sum_n c_n A(x_1) \ldots A(x_n) >,$$

(30)

with some coefficients $c_n$. Writing $A(x)$ as $A(x) = \sum_{a=1}^8 T^a \int K^a(x, x') \rho(x') d^2x'$, we achieve

$$W = \sum_n c_n \sum_{a_1 \ldots a_n=1}^8 \text{Tr}[T^{a_1} \ldots T^{a_n}] \int d^2x_1 \ldots d^2x_n K^{a_1}(x_1, x_1') \ldots K^{a_n}(x_n, x_n') \times$$

$$\times < \rho(x_1') \ldots \rho(x_n') > .$$

(31)

Now we can use $\langle 27 \rangle$, getting

$$W = \frac{\int [d\rho] \exp \left( - \int d^2x \frac{\rho^2(x)}{2\mu^2(x)} \right) \text{Tr} \text{P} \exp \left( -ig \int dx \cdot A \right)}{\int [d\rho] \exp \left( - \int d^2x \frac{\rho^2(x)}{2\mu^2(x)} \right)}.$$

(32)

A similar treatment can be applied to any observable ( which can be represented as $\langle 28 \rangle$) to prove that

$$< O_\rho > = \frac{\int [d\rho] \exp \left( - \int d^2x \frac{\rho^2(x)}{2\mu^2(x)} \right) O_\rho}{\int [d\rho] \exp \left( - \int d^2x \frac{\rho^2(x)}{2\mu^2(x)} \right)}.$$

(33)

This confirms the assumption made by McLerran and Venugopalan in their model [1].

*I have recently learned (private communication from L. McLerran to A. Mueller) that similar conclusions have been reached by Professor L. McLerran and collaborators.*
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I want to thank my adviser Professor A.H. Mueller for his guidance and advice. Without his support this work would not be possible.

This research is sponsored in part by the US Department of Energy under grant DE-FG02 94ER 40819.

APPENDIX A:

From [3] the light-cone potential of a charge $e$ moving with a velocity $v$ is

$$A_+ = \sqrt{\frac{2e}{4\pi}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2x_+^2 + (1 - v^2)x_-^2}} A = A_- = 0.$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(A1)}

If we do a Fourier transform

$$A_\mu(k) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^2} \int dx_+dx_-d^2x e^{ik_+x_+ + ik_-x_- - ik \cdot x} A_\mu(x)$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(A2)}

and take the limit $v \to 1$, we get for the ultrarelativistic particle:

$$A_+(k) = \frac{e \delta(k_-)}{2\pi k^2}.$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(A3)}

If we go back to the coordinate space, by doing an inverse Fourier transform of (A3), we end up with

$$A_+(x) = -\frac{e}{2\pi} \delta(x_-) \ln(|x|\lambda),$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(A4)}

which is different from the $v \to 1$ limit of the original expression by a gauge transformation.

APPENDIX B:

Defining

$$f_i(x, x_-) = \frac{e}{2\pi} \sum_{a=1}^{8} (T^a_i S(x, x_-)) T^a S^{-1}(x, x_-)$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(B1)}

we can rewrite (10) as

$$A(x, x_-) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( f_i(x, x_-) \frac{x - x_-}{|x - x_-|^2} \theta(x_- - x_-) - f_i(x, x'_-i) \frac{x - x'_i}{|x - x'_i|^2} \theta(x_- - x'_{-i}) \right).$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(B2)}

Then the field strength is

$$F_{+1}(x, x_-) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_-} A(x, x_-) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( f_i(x, x_-) \frac{x - x_-}{|x - x_-|^2} \delta(x_- - x_-) - f_i(x, x'_-i) \frac{x - x'_i}{|x - x'_i|^2} \delta(x_- - x'_{-i}) \right).$$  \hspace{1cm} \text{(B3)}

Substituting (B2) and (B3) into (13) we get
\[ \rho(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ f_i(x, x_i) 2\pi \delta(x - x_i) - f_i(x, x'_i) 2\pi \delta(x - x'_i) \right] \]

\[ + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left( \nabla f_i(x, x_i) \frac{x - x_i}{|x - x_i|^2} - \nabla f_i(x, x'_i) \frac{x - x'_i}{|x - x'_i|^2} \right) \]

\[ - ig \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} \left( [f_i(x, x_i), f_j(x, x_j)] \frac{x - x_i}{|x - x_i|^2} \frac{x - x_j}{|x - x_j|^2} \theta(x - x_i) \right) \]

A straightforward calculation yields

\[ \nabla f_i(x, x_i) = \frac{ig^2}{(2\pi)^2} \sum_{a=1}^{8} \sum_{b=1}^{8} \sum_{j=1}^{N} (T^a_i)(T^b_j) \frac{x - x_i}{|x - x_i|^2} \theta(x - x_i) \]

\[ \times [S(x, x - j) T^b W(x, x - i, x - j) T^a S^{-1}(x, x - i) - S(x, x - i) T^a W(x, x, x - i)] \]

\[ \times T^b S^{-1}(x, x - j) - \frac{x - x'_i}{|x - x'_i|^2} \theta(x - x'_i) [S(x, x'_i) T^a W(x, x - i, x'_i) T^a S^{-1}(x, x'_i)] \]

\[ \times S^{-1}(x, x - i) - S(x, x - i) T^a W(x, x'_i, x - i) T^b S^{-1}(x, x'_i)] \]

and

\[ [f_i(x, x - i), f_j(x, x - j)] = \frac{g^2}{(2\pi)^2} \sum_{a=1}^{8} \sum_{b=1}^{8} (T^a_i)(T^b_j) [S(x, x - i) T^a W(x, x, x - i)] \]

\[ \times T^b S^{-1}(x, x - j) - S(x, x - j) T^b W(x, x - i, x - j) T^a S^{-1}(x, x - i)] \]

where

\[ W(x, x - i, x - j) = \text{P} \exp \left( -ig \int_{x - j}^{x - i} dx A'_+(x, x) \right). \] (B7)

Plugging this back into (B4) we end up with

\[ \rho(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ f_i(x, x - i) 2\pi \delta(x - x_i) - f_i(x, x'_i) 2\pi \delta(x - x'_i) \right], \]

which is equivalent to (14).

**APPENDIX C:**

Let’s prove that the three-densities correlation function is zero. Then the proof for an arbitrary correlation function of an odd number of densities will become obvious. Similar to (20) we write
\[
< \rho^a(x) \rho^b(y) \rho^c(z) > = g^3 N \prod_{l=1}^{N} \int \frac{d^3 r_l}{(4/3) \pi R_t^3} \frac{d^3 x_l d^3 x'_l}{[(4/3) \pi a_x^2]^2} (\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \sum_{a', b', c'=1}^{8} \sum_{i,j,k=1}^{N} (T^a_{i}) (T^b_{j}) (T^c_{k}) \\
\times \left( 2 \text{Tr}[T^a S(\bar{x}_i, x_{-i}) T^{a'} S^{-1}(\bar{x}_i, x_{-i})] \delta(x - x') - 2 \text{Tr}[T^a S(\bar{x}_i', x_{-i}') T^{a'} S^{-1}(\bar{x}_i', x_{-i}')] \delta(x - x') \right) \\
\times \left( 2 \text{Tr}[T^b S(\bar{x}_j, x_{-j}) T^{b'} S^{-1}(\bar{x}_j, x_{-j})] \delta(y - y') - 2 \text{Tr}[T^b S(\bar{x}_j', x_{-j}') T^{b'} S^{-1}(\bar{x}_j', x_{-j}')] \delta(y - y') \right) \\
\times \left( 2 \text{Tr}[T^c S(\bar{x}_k, x_{-k}) T^{c'} S^{-1}(\bar{x}_k, x_{-k})] \delta(z - z') - 2 \text{Tr}[T^c S(\bar{x}_k', x_{-k}') T^{c'} S^{-1}(\bar{x}_k', x_{-k}')] \delta(z - z') \right) |\beta\bar{\beta}|. \tag{C1} \]

After dropping the “last” nucleon and averaging over the colors of this nucleon, we get

\[
< \rho^a(x) \rho^b(y) \rho^c(z) > = 8 g^3 N \prod_{l=1}^{N} \int \frac{d^3 r_l}{(4/3) \pi R_t^3} \frac{d^3 x_l d^3 x'_l}{[(4/3) \pi a_x^2]^2} \\
\times (\alpha \bar{\alpha}) \sum_{a', b', c'=1}^{8} \sum_{i,j,k=1}^{N} \text{Tr}[(T^a_{i}) (T^{b}_{j}) (T^{c}_{k})] \text{Tr}[T^a S_x T^{a'} S_x^{-1}] \text{Tr}[T^b S_y T^{b'} S_y^{-1}] \text{Tr}[T^c S_z T^{c'} S_z^{-1}] |\beta\bar{\beta}| \\
\times [\delta(x - x_i) - \delta(x - x_i')] [\delta(y - y_i) - \delta(y - y_i')] [\delta(z - z_i) - \delta(z - z_i')], \tag{C2} \]

where \( S_x = S(\bar{x}, x_{-i}) = S(\bar{x}_i, x_{-i}) \) (after dropping the “last” nucleon) and independent of \( x_i \). The product of three brackets with delta-functions integrated over \( x_i \) and \( x_i' \) obviously gives zero. So, \( < \rho^a(x) \rho^b(y) \rho^c(z) > = 0 \), as advertised.

Similar techniques can be applied to an arbitrary odd number of densities to show that their correlation function is zero.

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