

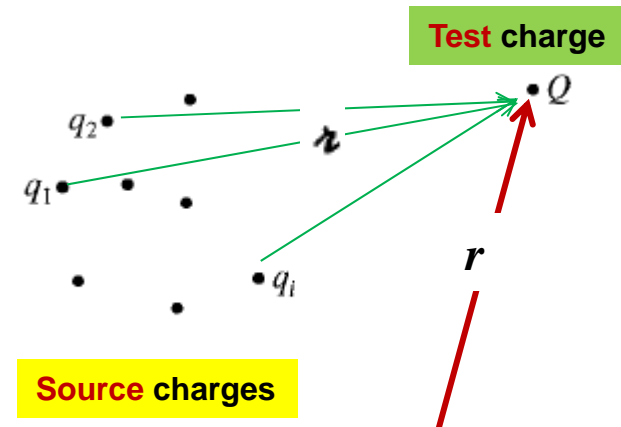
Chapter 2. Electrostatics

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2.1 The Electric Field

The electromagnetic theory hopes to solve is this:

- **What force** do the **source charges** (q_1, q_2, \dots) exert on the **test charge** (Q)?
- In general, **both the source charges and the test charge are in motion.**



- To begin with, **consider the special case of ELECTROSTATICS**
- **All the source charges are STATIONARY**
 - **The test charge may be MOVING.**

The solution to this problem is facilitated by the **principle of superposition**

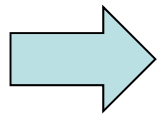
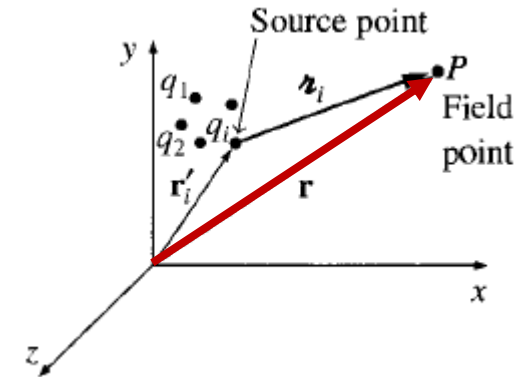
- The interaction between any two charges is **completely unaffected by the others.**
- To determine the force on Q , we can first compute the force F_1 , due to q_1 alone (ignoring all the others); then we compute the force F_2 , due to q_2 alone; and so on.
- Finally, we take the **vector sum** of all these individual forces: $F = F_1 + F_2 + F_3 + \dots$

2.1.3 The Electric Field

If we have *several* point charges q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n , at distances r_1, r_2, \dots, r_n from Q , the total force on Q is evidently

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{F} &= \mathbf{F}_1 + \mathbf{F}_2 + \dots = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{q_1 Q}{r_1^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}_1 + \frac{q_2 Q}{r_2^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}_2 + \dots \right) \\ &= \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{q_1 \hat{\mathbf{r}}_1}{r_1^2} + \frac{q_2 \hat{\mathbf{r}}_2}{r_2^2} + \frac{q_3 \hat{\mathbf{r}}_3}{r_3^2} + \dots \right)\end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{F} = QE$$



$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) \equiv \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{q_i}{r_i^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}_i$$

The experimental law of Coulomb (1785)

$$dq = \lambda dl' \longrightarrow \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_P \frac{\lambda(\mathbf{r}')}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} dl'$$

$$dq = \sigma da' \longrightarrow \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_S \frac{\sigma(\mathbf{r}')}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} da'$$

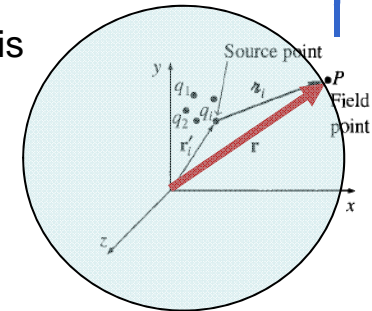
$$dq = \rho d\tau' \longrightarrow \mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_V \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} d\tau'$$

Flux and Gauss's Law

In the case of a **point charge** q at the origin, the flux of \mathbf{E} through a sphere of radius r is

$$\Phi_E \equiv \oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{q}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} \right) \cdot (r^2 \sin\theta d\theta d\phi \hat{\mathbf{r}}) = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} q$$

→ The flux through any surface enclosing the charge is q/ϵ_0 .



Now suppose a **bunch of charges** scattered about.

→ According to the **principle of superposition**, the total field is the (vector) sum of all the individual fields:

$$\mathbf{E} = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{E}_i$$

$$\Phi_E \equiv \oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\oint \mathbf{E}_i \cdot d\mathbf{a} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon_0} q_i \right) \Rightarrow \oint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} Q_{\text{enc}}$$

Gauss's Law

By applying the divergence theorem:

$$\oint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \int_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) d\tau$$

$$Q_{\text{enc}} = \int_V \rho d\tau$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_V (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) d\tau = \int_V \left(\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \right) d\tau \Rightarrow \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho$$

**Gauss's law
in differential form**

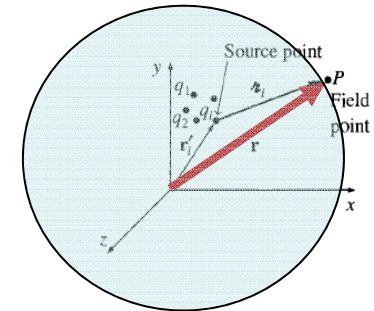
2.2.2 The Divergence of E

Let's calculate the **divergence of E directly from the Coulomb's Law** of

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_V \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} d\tau' \longrightarrow \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} \quad (\text{divergence in terms of } \mathbf{r})$$

Since the \mathbf{r} -dependence is contained in $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{\mathbf{r}}}{r^2} \right) \rho(\mathbf{r}') d\tau' \\ &\quad \downarrow \nabla \cdot \left(\frac{\hat{\mathbf{r}}}{r^2} \right) = 4\pi \delta^3(\mathbf{r}) \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} &= \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int 4\pi \delta^3(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') \rho(\mathbf{r}') d\tau' = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \rho(\mathbf{r}). \end{aligned}$$



$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho(r)}{\epsilon_0} \quad \Rightarrow \text{This is Gauss's law in differential form}$$

2.2.4 The Curl of E

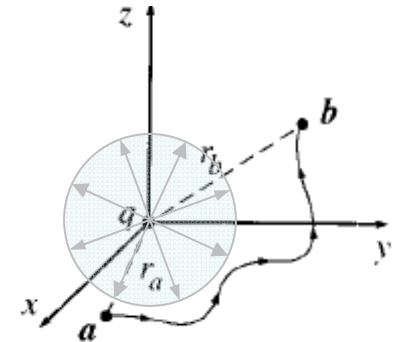
Consider the electric field from a point charge q at the origin: $\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$

Now let's **calculate the line Integral** of this field from some point \mathbf{a} to some other point \mathbf{b} :

$$\int_a^b \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

In spherical coordinates, $d\mathbf{l} = dr \hat{\mathbf{r}} + r d\theta \hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} + r \sin\theta d\phi \hat{\boldsymbol{\phi}}$

$$\mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} dr \longrightarrow \int_a^b \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_a^b \frac{q}{r^2} dr = \frac{-1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r} \Big|_{r_a}^{r_b} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{q}{r_a} - \frac{q}{r_b} \right)$$



The integral around a **closed** path is evidently zero (for then $r_a = r_b$):

$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \rightarrow \text{Applying Stokes' theorem, } \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0$$

If we have many charges, the principle of superposition states that the total field is a vector sum of their individual fields: $\mathbf{E} = \mathbf{E}_1 + \mathbf{E}_2 + \dots$,

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = \nabla \times (\mathbf{E}_1 + \mathbf{E}_2 + \dots) = (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}_1) + (\nabla \times \mathbf{E}_2) + \dots = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0 \rightarrow \text{For any static charge distribution whatever}$$

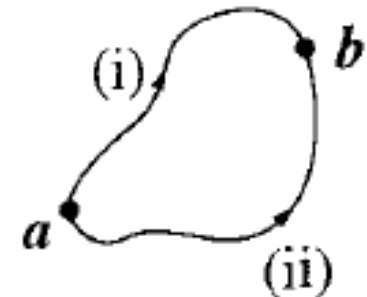
2.3 Electric Potential

We're going to reduce a vector problem (finding \mathbf{E} from $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0$) down to a much simpler scalar problem.

$\nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0 \Rightarrow \oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \rightarrow$ the line integral of \mathbf{E} from point a to point b is the same for all paths (**independent of path**)

\Rightarrow Because the line integral of \mathbf{E} is independent of path, we can define a function called the **Electric Potential**:

$$V(\mathbf{r}) \equiv - \int_{\mathcal{O}}^{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} : \mathcal{O} \text{ is some standard reference point}$$



\rightarrow The **potential difference** between two points a and b is

$$V(\mathbf{b}) - V(\mathbf{a}) = - \int_{\mathcal{O}}^{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} + \int_{\mathcal{O}}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = - \int_{\mathcal{O}}^{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} - \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathcal{O}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = - \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

\rightarrow The fundamental theorem for gradients states that $V(\mathbf{b}) - V(\mathbf{a}) = \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} (\nabla V) \cdot d\mathbf{l}$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} (\nabla V) \cdot d\mathbf{l} = - \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \Rightarrow \boxed{\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V}$$

\rightarrow The electric field is the gradient of scalar potential

2.3.3 Poisson's Equation and Laplace's Equation

→ What do the fundamental equations for \mathbf{E} look like, in terms of V ?

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad \xrightarrow[\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \nabla \cdot (-\nabla V) = -\nabla^2 V]{\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V} \quad \begin{aligned} \nabla^2 V &= -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} && : \text{Poisson's equation} \\ \nabla^2 V &= 0 && : \text{Laplace's equation} \end{aligned}$$

→ Gauss's law on \mathbf{E} can be converted to Poisson's equation on V

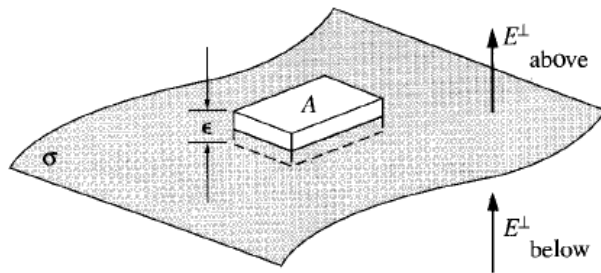
→ It takes **only one differential equation (Poisson's)** to determine V ,
because V is a scalar;
(for \mathbf{E} we needed two, the divergence and the curl.)

For a volume, surface, or line charge →

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{r} d\tau' \quad \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\sigma(\mathbf{r}')}{r} da' \quad \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\lambda(\mathbf{r}')}{r} dl'$$

Electrostatic Boundary Conditions

Notice that *the electric field always undergoes a discontinuity* when you cross a surface charge σ .



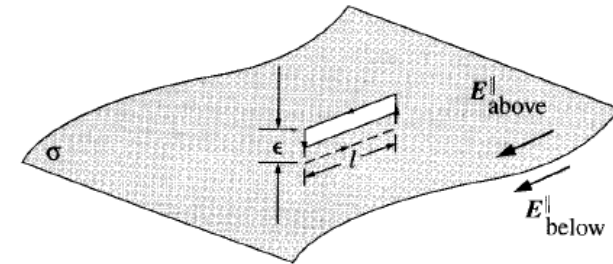
$$\oint_S \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} Q_{\text{enc}} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \sigma A$$

As the thickness ϵ goes to zero,

$$E_{\text{above}}^{\perp} - E_{\text{below}}^{\perp} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \sigma$$

→ The normal component of \mathbf{E} is discontinuous by σ/ϵ_0 at any boundary.

→ If $\sigma = 0$, \mathbf{E} is continuous: $E_{\text{above}}^{\perp} = E_{\text{below}}^{\perp}$



$$\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \longrightarrow E_{\text{above}}^{\parallel} = E_{\text{below}}^{\parallel}$$

→ The parallel (tangential) component of \mathbf{E} is always continuous.

→ The boundary conditions on \mathbf{E} into a single formula:

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{above}} - \mathbf{E}_{\text{below}} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \hat{\mathbf{n}}$$

→ The potential, meanwhile, is continuous across any boundary:

$$V_{\text{above}} - V_{\text{below}} = - \int_a^b \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} \xrightarrow{\text{as the path length shrinks to zero}} V_{\text{above}} = V_{\text{below}}$$

2.3.5 Summary; Relations of $E - \rho - V$

From just two experimental observations:

- (1) *the principle of superposition* - a broad general rule
- (2) *Coulomb's law* - the fundamental law of electrostatics.

➡ $E - \rho - V$

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{r} d\tau'$$

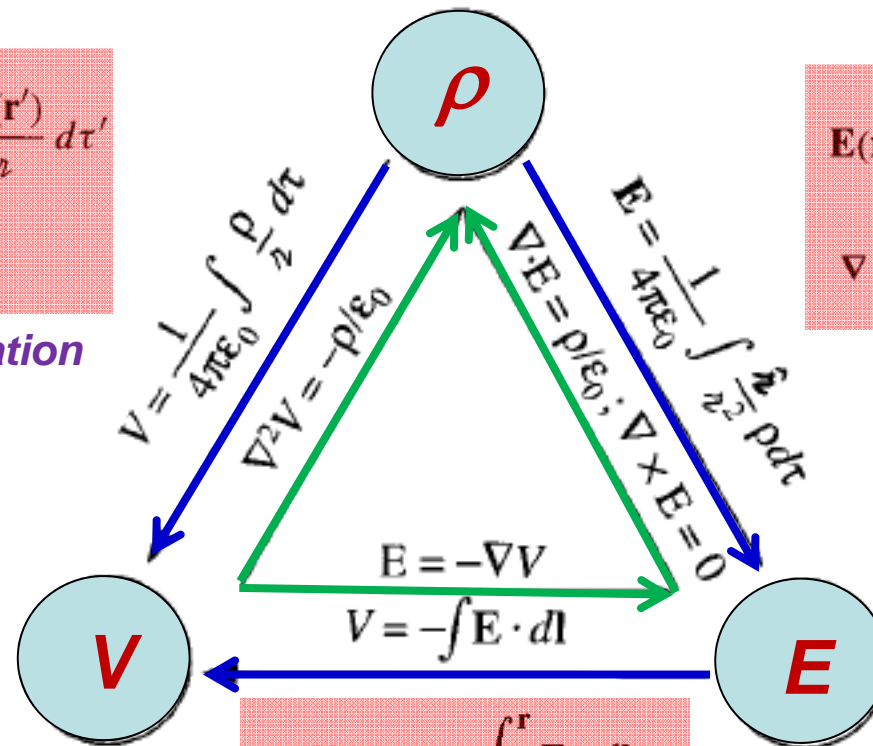
$$\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

Poisson's equation

$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}')}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} d\tau'$$

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0$$

Gauss Law



$$V(\mathbf{r}) = -\int_0^{\mathbf{r}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}$$

$$\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V$$

Gradient theorem

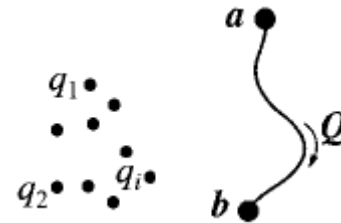
2.4 Work and Energy in Electrostatics

2.4.1 The Work Done to Move a Charge

To move a test charge Q from point a to point b , *how much work* will you have to do?

$$W = \int_a^b \mathbf{F} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = -Q \int_a^b \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = Q[V(b) - V(a)]$$

$\mathbf{F} = -QE$ (in opposite to electric force)



$$V(b) - V(a) = \frac{W}{Q}$$

→ The *potential difference between points a and b* is equal to the work per unit charge required to carry a particle from a to b.

If you want to bring the charge Q in from far away and stick it at point r ,

$$V(a) = V(\infty) = 0 \longrightarrow \boxed{W = QV(r)}$$

→ *Potential is potential energy per unit charge (just as the field is the force per unit charge).*

2.4.3 The Energy of a Continuous Charge Distribution

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n q_i V(\mathbf{r}_i) \longrightarrow \boxed{W = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho V d\tau} \quad \int \lambda V dl \quad \int \sigma V da$$

There is a lovely way to rewrite this result in terms of E .

$$\begin{aligned} \rho &= \epsilon_0 \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}, \quad \text{so} \quad W = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E}) V d\tau = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \left[- \int \mathbf{E} \cdot (\nabla V) d\tau + \oint V \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} \right] \quad (\text{Integration by parts}) \\ &= \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \left(\int_V E^2 d\tau + \oint_S V \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} \right) \longleftarrow \nabla V = -\mathbf{E} \end{aligned}$$

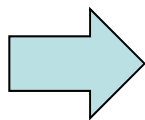
Note that the energy W can be defined, whatever volume you use (as long as it encloses all the charge),

→ but the contribution from the **volume integral of E^2 goes up**,

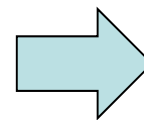
→ that of the **surface integral of VE goes down** since $E \sim 1/r^2$, $V \sim 1/r$, while $da \sim r^2$.

→ **For all space (r goes infinite), the surface integral goes to zero!**

Energy of Continuous Charge Distribution



$$\boxed{W = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho V d\tau}$$

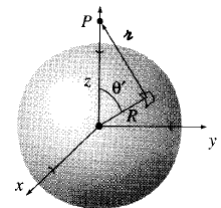


$$\boxed{W = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int_{\text{all space}} E^2 d\tau}$$

Example 2.8 Find the energy of a uniformly charged spherical shell of total charge q and radius R .

Solution 1: $W = \frac{1}{2} \int \sigma V da \xrightarrow{V = (1/4\pi\epsilon_0)q/R} W = \frac{1}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{R} \int \sigma da = \frac{1}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q^2}{R}$

Solution 2: Inside the sphere $\mathbf{E} = 0$; outside, $\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$ $W = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2} \int_{\text{outside}} E^2 d\tau = \frac{\epsilon_0}{2(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2} \int_{\text{outside}} \left(\frac{q^2}{r^4} \right) (r^2 \sin\theta dr d\theta d\phi) = \frac{1}{8\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q^2}{R}$

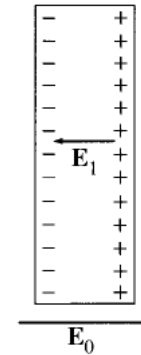


2.5 Conductors

2.4.1 Basic Properties

(i) $E = 0$ inside a conductor \rightarrow Why?

Put a conductor into an external electric field E_0 .
Induced charges produce a field of their own, E_1 .
 E_1 tends to cancel E_0 . That's the crucial point.
The whole process is *practically instantaneous*.
Outside the conductor the field is *not zero*.



(ii) $\rho = 0$ inside a conductor

$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \rho/\epsilon_0 \rightarrow \rho = 0$ because $\mathbf{E} = 0$.

- \rightarrow There is still charge around,
- \rightarrow The *net charge density* in the interior *is zero*.

(iii) Any net charge resides on the surface

(iv) A conductor is an equipotential

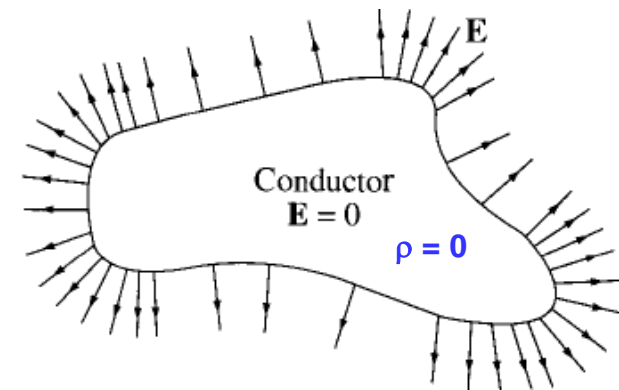
For if **a** and **b** are any two points **within** (or at the surface of) a given conductor

$$V(\mathbf{b}) - V(\mathbf{a}) = - \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \quad (\text{Since } \mathbf{E} = 0) \quad \Rightarrow \quad V(\mathbf{a}) = V(\mathbf{b})$$

(v) E is perpendicular to the surface, just outside a conductor

Otherwise, charge will immediately flow around the surface until it kills off the tangential component.

$$V(\mathbf{b}) - V(\mathbf{a}) = - \int_{\mathbf{a}}^{\mathbf{b}} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = 0 \quad (\mathbf{a} \text{ and } \mathbf{b} \text{ are outside the surface} \rightarrow \mathbf{E} \text{ normal to the surface})$$

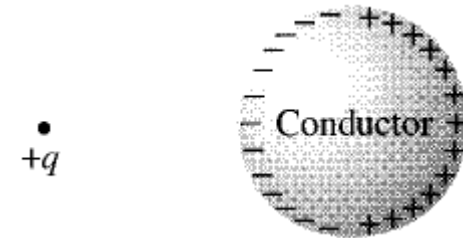


2.5.2 Induced Charges

If you hold a charge $+q$ near an uncharged conductor, the two will attract one another.

→ the **negative induced charge is closer to q** ,

→ There is a net force of attraction

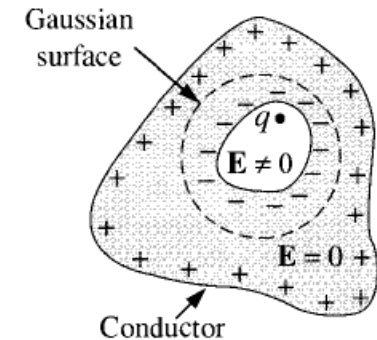


If there is some *cavity* in the conductor, within that cavity there is some charge,

→ the field *in the cavity* will *not* be zero.

→ No external fields penetrate the conductor; they are canceled at the outer surface by the **induced charge**.

→ $q_{\text{induced}} = -q$ since $\oint \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{a} = 0$ for $\mathbf{E} = 0$ on a Gaussian surface.

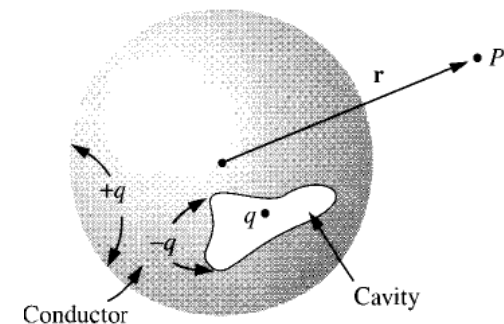


→ $q_{\text{induced}} = +q$ **on the outside, uniformly distributed**

Example 2.9 What is the field outside the sphere?

The answer is, $\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$

regardless the shape of the cavity the placement of the charge.



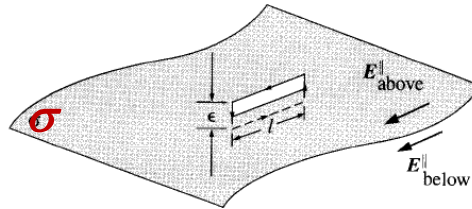
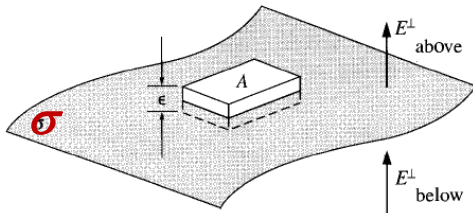
2.5.3 Surface Charge and the Force on a Conductor

Remember that the boundary condition for E at any interface in general was

$$E_{\text{above}}^{\perp} - E_{\text{below}}^{\perp} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \sigma$$

$$\mathbf{E}_{\text{above}}^{\parallel} = \mathbf{E}_{\text{below}}^{\parallel}$$

$$\longrightarrow \mathbf{E}_{\text{above}} - \mathbf{E}_{\text{below}} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \hat{\mathbf{n}}$$

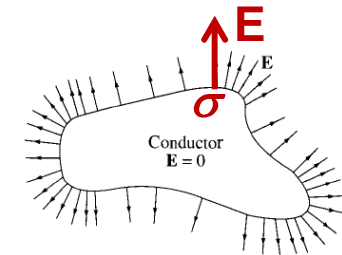


In the particular case of a conductor,

The field inside a conductor is zero, $\mathbf{E}_{\text{below}} = 0$

\longrightarrow The **field immediately *outside*** is

$$\boxed{\mathbf{E} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \hat{\mathbf{n}}} \quad (\Rightarrow \text{Always normal to the surface})$$



In terms of potential, $\mathbf{E} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0} \hat{\mathbf{n}} \longrightarrow$

$$\boxed{\sigma = -\epsilon_0 \frac{\partial V}{\partial n}}$$

\Rightarrow Surface charge on a conductor can be determined from E or V .

2.5.4 Capacitors

Consider two conductors with $+Q$ and $-Q$ total charges.

Since V is constant over a conductor,
we can speak unambiguously of the potential difference between them:

$$V = V_+ - V_- = - \int_{(-)}^{(+)} \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l}.$$

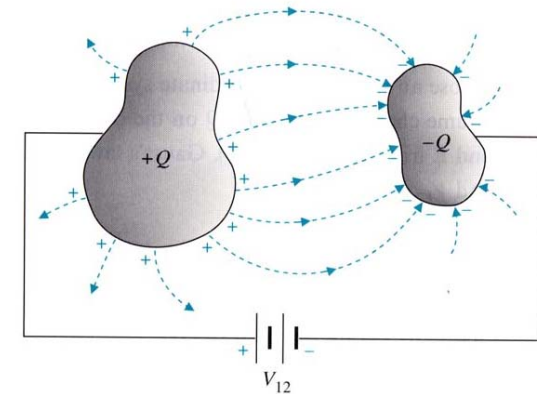
Since E is given by Coulomb's law: $\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}} d\tau$

→ Doubling Q does double ρ everywhere

→ **Therefore, E is proportional to Q , so also is V**

$$V \propto Q \quad \Rightarrow \quad C \equiv \frac{Q}{V} : \text{Capacitance} \quad (\text{In SI units } C \text{ is measured in farads (F)})$$

→ A farad is a coulomb-per-volt.



To "charge up" a capacitor,

→ the work you must do to transport

the next piece of charge, dq , on a positive plate q is $dW = \left(\frac{q}{C}\right) dq$

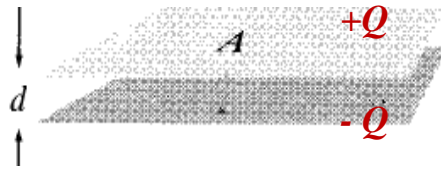
The total work necessary, then, to go from $q = 0$ to $q = Q$, is

$$W = \int_0^Q \left(\frac{q}{C}\right) dq = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C} \xrightarrow{Q = CV} W = \frac{1}{2} CV^2 \quad : \text{Energy stored in } C$$

Capacitance

$$C \equiv \frac{Q}{V}$$

Example 2.10 Parallel-plate capacitor

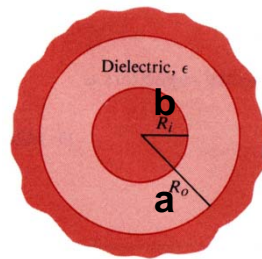


$$\sigma = Q/A$$

$$\mathbf{E} = (1/\epsilon_0) Q/A$$

$$V = \mathbf{E} \cdot d = \frac{Q}{A\epsilon_0} d \longrightarrow C = \frac{A\epsilon_0}{d}$$

Example 2.11 Two concentric spherical metal shells

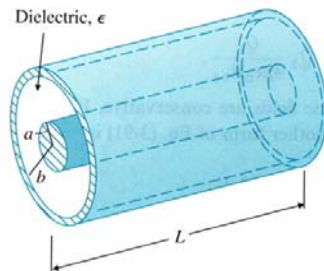


$$\mathbf{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Q}{r^2} \hat{\mathbf{r}}$$

$$V = - \int_b^a \mathbf{E} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = - \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int_b^a \frac{1}{r^2} dr = \frac{Q}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{1}{a} - \frac{1}{b} \right)$$

$$\longrightarrow C = \frac{Q}{V} = 4\pi\epsilon_0 \frac{ab}{(b-a)}$$

Problem 2.39 Two coaxial metal cylindrical tubes



$$\rho_l = \frac{Q}{L} \rightarrow E = \frac{Q}{2\pi\epsilon r L} \hat{\mathbf{r}} \rightarrow V = - \int_{r=b}^{r=a} \left(\frac{Q}{2\pi\epsilon r L} \hat{\mathbf{r}} \right) \cdot (\hat{\mathbf{r}} dr) = \frac{Q}{2\pi\epsilon L} \ln \left(\frac{b}{a} \right)$$

$$\rightarrow C = \frac{Q}{V_{ab}} = \frac{2\pi\epsilon L}{\ln \left(\frac{b}{a} \right)}$$