

# Numerical Methods II

## (Pseudo)Spectral Methods for PDEs

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<sup>1</sup>MATH-GA.2020-001 / CSCI-GA.2421-001, Spring 2023

Jan 31, 2023

# Outline

- 1 Convolutions using FFT
- 2 Spectral Differentiation
- 3 Solving PDEs using FFTs
- 4 Chebyshev Series via FFTs
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# Convolutions using FFT

# Filtering using FFTs

- Because FFT is a very fast, almost linear algorithm, it is used often to accomplish tasks in data processing, e.g., **noise filtering** (see example in previous lecture), computing **(auto)correlation** functions, etc.
- Denote the (continuous or discrete) Fourier transform with

$$\hat{\mathbf{f}} = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{f}) \text{ and } \mathbf{f} = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\hat{\mathbf{f}}).$$

- Plain FFT is used in signal processing for **digital filtering** (**low-pass**, **high-pass**, or **band-pass filters**)
- How to do it: Multiply the spectrum by a filter  $\hat{S}(k)$  discretized as  $\hat{\mathbf{s}} = \{\hat{S}(k)\}_k$ :

$$\mathbf{f}_{\text{filtered}} = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\hat{\mathbf{s}} \square \hat{\mathbf{f}}) = \mathbf{f} \circledast \mathbf{s},$$

where  $\square$  denotes element-wise product, and  $\circledast$  denotes convolution.

# Convolution

- For continuous function, an important type of operation found in practice is **convolution** (smoothing) of a (periodic) function  $f(x)$  with a (periodic) **kernel**  $K(x)$ :

$$(K \circledast f)(x) = \int_0^{2\pi} f(y)K(x-y)dy.$$

- It is not hard to prove the **convolution theorem**:

$$\mathcal{F}(K \circledast f) = \mathcal{F}(K) \square \mathcal{F}(f).$$

- Importantly, this remains true for **discrete convolutions**:

$$(\mathbf{K} \circledast \mathbf{f})_j = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j'=0}^{N-1} f_{j'} K_{j-j'} \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{K} \circledast \mathbf{f}) = \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{K}) \square \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{f}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{K} \circledast \mathbf{f} = \mathcal{F}^{-1}(\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{K}) \square \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{f}))$$

# Proof of Discrete Convolution Theorem

Assume that the normalization used is a factor of  $N^{-1}$  in the forward and no factor in the inverse DFT:

$$f_j = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \hat{f}_k \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j k}{N}\right), \text{ and } \hat{f}_k = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=0}^{N-1} f_j \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i j k}{N}\right)$$

$$[\mathcal{F}^{-1}(\mathcal{F}(\mathbf{K}) \square \mathcal{F}(\mathbf{f}))]_k = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \hat{f}_k \hat{K}_k \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j k}{N}\right) =$$

$$\begin{aligned} N^{-2} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \left( \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} f_l \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i l k}{N}\right) \right) \left( \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} K_m \exp\left(-\frac{2\pi i m k}{N}\right) \right) \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i j k}{N}\right) \\ = N^{-2} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} f_l \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} K_m \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \exp\left[\frac{2\pi i (j - l - m) k}{N}\right] \end{aligned}$$

contd.

Recall the key discrete orthogonality property

$$\forall \Delta k \in \mathbb{Z} : \quad N^{-1} \sum_j \exp \left[ i \frac{2\pi}{N} j \Delta k \right] = \delta_{\Delta k} \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\begin{aligned} N^{-2} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} f_l \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} K_m \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \exp \left[ \frac{2\pi i (j-l-m) k}{N} \right] &= N^{-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} f_l \sum_{m=0}^{N-1} K_m \delta_{j-l-m} \\ &= N^{-1} \sum_{l=0}^{N-1} f_l K_{j-l} = (\mathbf{K} \circledast \mathbf{f})_j \end{aligned}$$

Computing convolutions requires 2 forward FFTs, one element-wise product, and one inverse FFT, for a total cost  $N \log N$  instead of  $N^2$ . We can use this to solve **periodic integro-differential equations** involving convolutions, for example (recall that trapezoidal rule for the convolution is spectrally accurate for analytic functions)!

# Spectral Differentiation



# Spectral Derivative

- Consider approximating the derivative of a periodic function  $f(x)$ , computed at a set of  $N$  equally-spaced nodes,  $\mathbf{f}$ .
- We can differentiate the spectral approximation: **Spectral derivative**

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(x) &\approx \phi'(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \phi(x) = \frac{d}{dx} \left( \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \hat{f}_k e^{ikx} \right) = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} \hat{f}_k \frac{d}{dx} e^{ikx} \\
 &= \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (ik \hat{f}_k) e^{ikx} = \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} (\widehat{\phi'})_k e^{ikx} \Rightarrow
 \end{aligned}$$

$$(\widehat{\phi'})_k = ik \hat{f}_k \Rightarrow \phi' = \mathcal{F}^{-1} (ik \square \hat{\mathbf{f}})$$

- Differentiation, like convolution, becomes multiplication in Fourier space.**

Indeed  $-\int f(y) \delta'(x-y) dy = \int f'(y) \delta(x-y) dy = f'(x)$ .

# Unmatched mode

- Recall that for even  $N$  there is one unmatched mode, the one with the highest frequency and amplitude  $\hat{f}_{N/2}$ .
- We need to choose what we want to do with that mode; see notes by S. G. Johnson (MIT) linked on webpage for details:

$$\phi(x) = \hat{f}_0 + \sum_{0 < k < N/2} \left( \hat{f}_k e^{ikx} + \hat{f}_{N-k} e^{-ikx} \right) + \hat{f}_{N/2} \cos\left(\frac{Nx}{2}\right).$$

This is the unique “**minimal oscillation**” trigonometric interpolant.

- Differentiating this we get

$$\widehat{(\phi')}_k = \hat{f}_k \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } k = N/2 \\ ik & \text{if } k < N/2 \\ i(k - N) & \text{if } k > N/2 \end{cases}.$$

- Real valued interpolation samples result in **real-valued**  $\phi(x)$  for all  $x$ .

# FFT-based differentiation

```
% From Nick Trefethen's Spectral Methods book
% Differentiation of  $\exp(\sin(x))$  on  $(0, 2\pi]$ :
N = 8; % Even number!
h = 2*pi/N; x = h*(1:N)';
v = exp(sin(x)); vprime = cos(x).*v;
v_hat = fft(v);
ik = 1i*[0:N/2-1 0 -N/2+1:-1]'; % Zero special mode
w_hat = ik .* v_hat;
w = real(ifft(w_hat));
error = norm(w-vprime, inf)
```

# Differentiation matrices

- Writing  $g = f'$  we can denote this in matrix notation  $\hat{\mathbf{g}} = \hat{\mathbf{D}}_1 \hat{\mathbf{f}}$ , where  $\hat{\mathbf{D}}_1$  is a **diagonal differentiation matrix** with  $ik$  on its diagonal (why does it have to be a matrix?).
- Observe that  $\hat{\mathbf{D}}_1^* = -\hat{\mathbf{D}}_1$  (anti-Hermitian).
- In **real space**  $\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{D}\mathbf{f}$  and in **Fourier space**  $\hat{\mathbf{g}} = \hat{\mathbf{D}}\hat{\mathbf{f}}$ , related by

$$\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{F}^{-1} \hat{\mathbf{D}} \mathbf{F} = \mathbf{F}^* \hat{\mathbf{D}} \mathbf{F},$$

where  $\mathbf{F}$  is the unitary DFT matrix.

Observe this is a similarity transformation!

- Here  $\mathbf{F}\mathbf{f}$  and  $\mathbf{F}^*\hat{\mathbf{f}}$  are computed using the (forward/inverse) FFT in nearly linear time.

# Second derivative

- Differentiating the interpolant twice we get

$$(\widehat{\phi''})_k = \hat{f}_k \begin{cases} -k^2 & \text{if } k < N/2 \\ -(k-N)^2 & \text{if } k \geq N/2 \end{cases}.$$

- Similarly, if  $g = f''$  then  $\hat{\mathbf{g}} = \hat{\mathbf{D}}_2 \hat{\mathbf{f}}$ , where  $\hat{\mathbf{D}}_2$  has  $-k^2$  on its diagonal,  $\hat{\mathbf{D}}_2^* = \hat{\mathbf{D}}_2$  (Hermitian, same for  $\mathbf{D}_2$ ).
- Double differentiating is different from differentiating twice in sequence, i.e.,  $\mathbf{D}_2 \neq \mathbf{D}_1^2$ .
- Why is  $\mathbf{D}_2$  “better” than  $\mathbf{D}_1^2$ ? They have the same spectral accuracy.
- $\mathbf{D}_1^2$  has a nontrivial null space of  $\mathbf{1}$  and  $\mathbf{F}^{-1} \mathbf{e}_{N/2}$ , while  $\mathbf{D}_2$  has only  $\mathbf{1}$ .
- So  $\mathbf{D}_2$  is closer to the **continuum Laplacian operator** in periodic domains (having only constant functions in its null space). This is important when solving elliptic/parabolic PDEs.

# Discrete Matrices vs Continuum Operators

- The lesson learned from  $\mathbf{D}_2 \neq \mathbf{D}_1^2$  is quite general: **Continuum identities don't always translate to discrete identities.**
- Many properties that seem obvious in continuum, may not work for discretizations:
  - Chain and product rules e.g.,  $(cu)' = c'u + cu'$ .
  - Integration by parts (including boundary terms).
  - Operators commute, e.g.,  $\partial_x (\partial_y f) = \partial_y (\partial_x f)$ .
  - Null spaces, eigenvalue spectrum properties (e.g., positive definiteness, symmetry, etc.).
- **Mimetic discretizations** try to mimic some of the properties of continuum operators.

# Sturm-Liouville Problems

- As an example, consider the periodic Sturm-Liouville (SL) operator appearing in many boundary-value problems (BVPs):

$$\mathcal{L} = -\frac{d}{dx}c(x)\frac{d}{dx}, \quad c(x) > 0.$$

- From PDE class we know that this is a **symmetric positive semidefinite (SPsD) differential operator** with only constant functions in its null space; proving this uses integration by parts.
- When discretized, this will become a matrix **L**. We want this matrix to be SPsD with only **e** in its null space.
- It is a bad idea to use the chain rule and discretize:

$$-\mathcal{L}f = \frac{d}{dx}c(x)\frac{d}{dx}f(x) = c'f' + cf''$$

$$-\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f} = (\mathbf{D}_1\mathbf{c}) \oslash (\mathbf{D}_1\mathbf{f}) + c \oslash (\mathbf{D}_2\mathbf{f}) \quad (\text{BAD!})$$

since this is not an SPsD **L**.

# Pseudospectral SL operator

- Another possibility is the **pseudospectral algorithm** that does not use the chain rule:

$$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f} = -\mathbf{D}_1 (\mathbf{c} \oslash \mathbf{D}_1 \mathbf{f}).$$

$$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f} = -\mathcal{F}^{-1} (ik \oslash \mathcal{F} (\mathbf{c} \oslash (\mathcal{F}^{-1} (ik \oslash (\mathcal{F}\mathbf{f}))))).$$

- In words: Go to Fourier space using the FFT, multiply coefficients by  $ik$ , go back to real space with iFFT, multiply by  $c(x)$  in real-space, then go back to Fourier space (FFT) and multiply coefficients by  $-ik$ , and then go back to real space again (iFFT).
- Why does this work? In matrix notation

$$\mathbf{L} = -\left(\mathbf{F}^* \widehat{\mathbf{D}}_1 \mathbf{F}\right) \mathbf{C} \left(\mathbf{F}^* \widehat{\mathbf{D}}_1 \mathbf{F}\right) = \mathbf{D}_1 \mathbf{C} \mathbf{D}_1^*,$$

where  $\mathbf{C}$  is a diagonal matrix with  $\mathbf{c} > 0$  on its diagonal.

- This is obviously SPsD since  $\mathbf{C}$  is SPD (why?).



# Pseudospectral SL algorithm

For even  $N$  the pseudo-spectral  $\mathbf{L}$  has a nontrivial null space just like  $\mathbf{D}_1^2$  does (think  $c = 1$ ), but this can be fixed (see article by Johnson):

- ① Compute  $\mathbf{f}'$  using FFT/iFFT but save the coefficient  $\hat{f}_{N/2}$  (two FFTs).
- ② Compute  $\mathbf{g} = \mathbf{c} \square \mathbf{f}'$  in real space (pseudospectral part).
- ③ Compute  $\hat{\mathbf{g}}$  using FFT.
- ④ Compute  $\widehat{(\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f})}$  in Fourier space as:

$$\widehat{(\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f})}_k = \begin{cases} \hat{c}_0 \left(\frac{N}{2}\right)^2 \hat{f}_{N/2} & \text{if } k = N/2 \\ -ik \hat{g}_k & \text{if } k < N/2 \\ -i(k - N) \hat{g}_k & \text{if } k > N/2 \end{cases}.$$

- ⑤ Compute  $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{f}$  in real space using an iFFT.

# Solving PDEs using FFTs

# KdV equation

- Consider as an example the periodic Korteweg – de Vries equation on  $[0, 2\pi)$ ,

$$\partial_t \phi = -\partial_{xxx} \phi + 6\phi (\partial_x \phi),$$

which models waves in a channel and has **soliton** solutions.

- First note that  $\phi \phi_x = \partial_x (\phi^2/2)$  and this is the right form to use because **KdV is a conservation law** and  $\phi^2/2$  is a flux.
- Not all forms of PDEs equivalent on paper are equivalent numerically!** We prefer

$$\partial_t \phi = -\partial_{xxx} \phi + 3\partial_x (\phi^2).$$

- The idea is to use a Fourier series representation,

$$\phi(x, t) = \sum_k \hat{\phi}_k(t) e^{ikx}.$$

# Spectral spatial discretization

- If we go to Fourier space we get a **system of coupled (nonlinear) ODEs**:

$$\frac{d\hat{\phi}_k}{dt} = ik^3 \hat{\phi}_k + 3ik(\widehat{\phi^2})_k \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{d\hat{\phi}}{dt} = ik^3 \hat{\phi} + 3ik \mathcal{F} \left( \left( \mathcal{F}^{-1} \hat{\phi} \right)^2 \right).$$

- Note that the unmatched mode  $N/2$  should be set to zero for the third derivative (all odd derivatives in fact).
- This is a **pseudo-spectral spatial discretization** and will be spectrally accurate for analytic solutions.
- In order to actually compute solutions we need methods to solve systems of ODEs (coming up soon)!

# Nonlinear PDEs

- Observe that if the nonlinear term was not there, we could write the solution right away:

$$\hat{\phi}_k(t) = \hat{\phi}_k(0) \exp(ik^3 t) \text{ for all } k.$$

- This is called an **exponential temporal integrator** and can be used to build accurate integrators for the nonlinear KdV equation.
- If the equation were linear, then  $\hat{\phi}_k(t) = 0$  if  $\hat{\phi}_k(0) = 0$ : **linear PDEs do not generate new Fourier components**.
- But this is not true for nonlinear equations: in general, the solution will have nonzero components for all  $k$  for sufficiently long times, and **aliasing** becomes a problem.
- An extreme example is Burger's equation, which **develops singularities** (shocks), leading to the Gibbs phenomenon and **loss of spectral accuracy**.

# Aliasing

- As an example, consider the product (or square)

$$w(x) = u(x)v(x) \Rightarrow$$

$$w(x) = \left( \sum_{k''=-n}^n \hat{u}_{k''} e^{ik''x} \right) \left( \sum_{k=-n}^n \hat{u}_{k'} e^{ik'x} \right) = \sum_{k=-2n}^{2n} \hat{w}_k e^{ikx}$$

- So we doubled the number of Fourier modes, and handling this would require growing our FFT grid along the way!
- What we want to compute is the truncated Fourier series

$$w(x) \approx \tilde{w}(x) = \sum_{k=-n}^n \hat{w}_k e^{ikx}.$$

- If we do this naively using FFTs on a grid of  $N = 2n + 1$  points, however, we will alias the modes  $|k| > n$  with those with  $|k| < n$  and this will introduce aliasing error.

# Anti-aliasing via oversampling

- But there is an easy fix using **oversampling**. Take  $u = v$  for simplicity and even  $N$ :

- 1 Evaluate  $u(x)$  on a grid of  $N$  points, take the FFT to compute  $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$ .
- 2 Padd the FFT to size  $M = 2N$ , avoiding fftshift (see fftinterp):

$$(\hat{\mathbf{u}})_{\text{padded}} = [\hat{\mathbf{u}}(1 : N/2) \quad \text{zeros}(1, M - N) \quad \hat{\mathbf{u}}(N/2 + 1 : \text{end})].$$

*Note: It can be shown that  $M = 3N/2$  also gives the same result.*

- 3 Compute an oversampled  $u_{\text{os}}(x)$  on a grid of size  $2N$  by taking the iFFT of  $(\hat{\mathbf{u}})_{\text{padded}}$ .
- 4 Compute  $\mathbf{u}_{\text{os}}^2$  in real space, and take the FFT to compute  $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ .
- 5 Truncate to  $N$  Fourier coefficients by returning  $[\hat{\mathbf{w}}(1 : N/2) \quad \hat{\mathbf{w}}(M - N/2 + 1 : \text{end})]$ .

# Chebyshev Series via FFTs



# Chebyshev Polynomials

- If we are solving PDEs on a bounded interval, say  $[-1, 1]$  for simplicity, we need other orthogonal polynomials, not trig ones.
- Recall from Numerical Methods I the Chebyshev polynomials:

$$T_n(x \in [-1, 1]) = \cos(n\theta) \quad \text{where } x = \cos(\theta \in [0, 2\pi]).$$

$$T_0(x) = 1, \quad T_1(x) = x, \quad T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1, \quad T_3(x) = 4x^3 - 3x, \dots$$

- These are orthogonal with respect to the weighted inner/dot product:

$$\int_{-1}^1 T_m(x) T_n(x) \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} = \begin{cases} \pi & m = n = 0 \\ \pi/2 & m = n > 0 \\ 0 & m \neq n \end{cases}.$$

# Chebyshev Interpolants

- We can represent functions using these polynomials as basis functions,

$$f(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \check{f}_n T_n(x) \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\check{f}_{n>0} = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 f(x) T_n(x) \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}.$$

- We discretize the function pointwise at  $N+1$  **Chebyshev nodes**

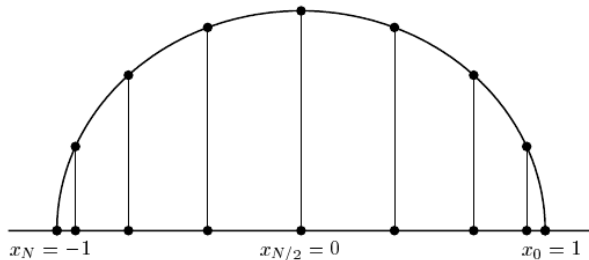
$$\theta_j = j\pi/N, \quad j = 0 \dots N$$

$$x_j = \cos \theta_j$$

- This gives us the **Chebyshev interpolant** (approximation):

$$\phi(x) = \sum_{n=0}^N \check{f}_n T_n(x).$$

# Chebyshev Nodes



*Fig. 5.1. Chebyshev points are the projections onto the  $x$ -axis of equally spaced points on the unit circle. Note that they are numbered from right to left.*

# Chebyshev via Fourier

- Changing variables from  $x$  to  $\theta$  we get

$$\begin{aligned}\check{f}_{n>0} &= \frac{2}{\pi} \int_{-1}^1 f(x) T_n(x) \frac{dx}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\cos \theta) \cos(n\theta) d\theta \\ &= \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(\cos \theta) \left( \frac{\exp(in\theta) + \exp(-in\theta)}{2} \right) d\theta.\end{aligned}$$

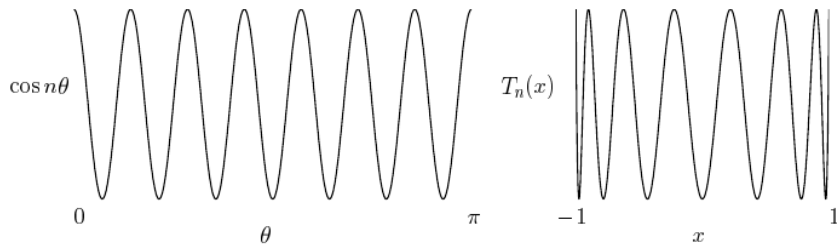
- So if we consider instead of  $f(x)$  the function

$$g(\theta) = f(\cos \theta)$$

then we can go from **Fourier coefficients** of  $g$  to **Chebyshev** for  $f$ :

$$\check{f}_{n>0} = \hat{g}_{-n} + \hat{g}_n$$

# Chebyshev-Fourier transformation



*Fig. 8.2. The Chebyshev polynomial  $T_n$  can be interpreted as a sine wave “wrapped around a cylinder and viewed from the side”.*

# Chebyshev via FFT

- This means that we can do **FFTs in equispaced points on  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$**  instead of Chebyshev on non-equispaced nodes.
- Note that we want to extend this to  $\theta \in [0, 2\pi]$  to be periodic and not  $\theta \in [0, \pi]$ , so we **double the number of points** and do the FFTs on vectors of length  $2N$ .
- If  $f(x)$  can be extended analytically just outside of  $[-1, 1]$ , then we get **spectral accuracy**.
- Intuition: **Chebyshev polynomials are sine waves “wrapped around a cylinder and viewed from the side”**.
- One can **approximate derivatives using the FFT**; all that is needed is change of variables from  $x$  to  $\theta$  using the chain rule.
- The chain of variables adds factors of the form  $(1 - x^2)^{-p/2}$  (where  $p$  is an integer) when converting from Fourier coefficients derivatives of  $g$  to derivatives of  $f$ .

## Conclusions

# Function Norms

- Consider a one-dimensional interval  $I = [a, b]$ . Standard norms for functions similar to the usual vector norms:
  - **Maximum norm:**  $\|f(x)\|_{\infty} = \max_{x \in I} |f(x)|$
  - **$L_1$  norm:**  $\|f(x)\|_1 = \int_a^b |f(x)| dx$
  - **Euclidian  $L_2$  norm:**  $\|f(x)\|_2 = \left[ \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx \right]^{1/2}$
- **Different function norms are not equivalent!**
- An **inner or scalar product** (equivalent of dot product for vectors):

$$(f, g) = \int_a^b f(x)g^*(x)dx$$

- Formally, function spaces are **infinite-dimensional linear spaces**. Numerically we always **truncate and use a finite basis**.



# Discrete Function Norms

- Consider a set of  $m$  **nodes**  $x_i = a + ih$  with a constant grid spacing  $h = (b - a)/m$ , and evaluate the function at those nodes **pointwise**

$$\mathbf{f} = \{f(x_0), f(x_1), \dots, f(x_m)\}.$$

- We define the discrete “function norms” and “dot products”, with periodic BCs:

$$\|f(x)\|_2 \approx \left[ h \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} |f(x_i)|^2 \right]^{1/2} = \sqrt{h} \|\mathbf{f}\|_2,$$

$$\|f(x)\|_1 \approx h \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} |f(x_i)| = h \|\mathbf{f}\|_1,$$

$$\|f(x)\|_\infty \approx \max_i |f(x_i)| = \|\mathbf{f}\|_\infty$$

$$(f, g) \approx \mathbf{f} \cdot \mathbf{g} = h \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} f(x_i) g^*(x_i).$$

- More generally, discretize the integrals consistently, and account for

# Conclusions/Summary

- **Convolution** in real space becomes **multiplication** in Fourier space, and vice versa.
- **Spectrally-accurate derivatives**  $f^{(\nu)}$  of analytic functions  $f$  can be done by multiplication by  $(ik)^\nu$  in Fourier space, zeroing out the unmatched mode for even  $N$  and odd  $\nu$ .
- Not all forms of operators and PDEs equal on paper are equal numerically. **Choose the form that preserves the important properties of the continuum PDE**: conservation laws, self-Hermitian operators, completeness (this is where understanding PDEs is crucial beyond superficial: functional analysis).
- Nonlinear PDEs can be **discretized spectrally in space to a system of coupled nonlinear ODEs**. Non-periodic domains can be handled by using orthogonal polynomials but boundary conditions need to be thought about some more!