

# Dispersion for the Schrödinger Equation

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- ① What is dispersion?
- ② Introduction to Fourier transform
- ③ Method I: Representation formula
- ④ Method II : Oscillatory integral

Warning: Almost every proof is not mathematically valid!!

## 1.1. Optics

A simplest wave in  $d$ -dimensional space can be written in the form

$$\psi(t, \vec{x}) = A \sin(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t).$$

There are several terminologies.

- Amplitude  $A$
- Angular frequency  $\omega = 2\pi f$
- Wave number  $\vec{k}$  : **vector** with direction of light propagation and size  $2\pi/\lambda$

This is a solution of “wave equation”

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \psi(t, \vec{x}) = v^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \vec{x}^2} \psi(t, \vec{x}),$$

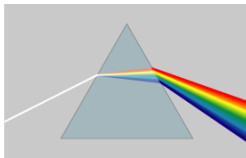
which describes waves of **constant velocity**  $v = \omega/|\vec{k}|$ .

## 1.1. Optics

The ***index of refraction*** is defined as

$$n := \frac{c}{v_p} = \frac{c}{\omega/|\vec{k}|}.$$

Here  $\omega$  and  $\vec{k}$  are measured in a transparent material.



***Dispersion*** is the phenomenon of optics that

***the index of refraction depends on wavelength.***

In other words, we have

$$\frac{\omega}{|\vec{k}|} \neq \text{const with respect to } \vec{k},$$

which means the relation between  $\omega$  and  $\vec{k}$  is not like the solutions of the wave equation.

## 1.2. Dispersion relation

### Definition (Dispersion relation)

Dispersion relation is a function  $\omega = \omega(\vec{k})$  which describes the relation between angular frequency  $\omega \in \mathbb{R}$  and the wave number vector  $\vec{k} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

Many physics can be described by language of waves and dispersion relations.

### Example.

Cauchy's formula: dispersion relation of light in transparent materials.

ordinary wave:  $\omega = v|\vec{k}|$

advection:  $\omega = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{k}$

heat distribution:  $\omega = i\alpha|\vec{k}|^2$

quantum mechanics:  $\hbar\omega = \frac{|\hbar\vec{k}|^2}{2m}$

## 1.2. Dispersion relation

With a dispersion relation, we can think about two different velocities:

$$v_p := \frac{\omega}{|\vec{k}|}, \quad \vec{v}_g := \nabla_{\vec{k}} \omega.$$

The former is called ***phase velocity*** and the latter is called ***group velocity***.

## 1.3. Quantization

Then, we will see how each dispersion relation generates a governing equation, by **quantization**.

Definition (My own definition of “wave”)

A **wave** is an element of the vector space of functions with basis containing functions of the form:

$$\psi_{\omega, \vec{k}}(t, \vec{x}) = e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)}, \quad \omega \in \mathbb{R}, \vec{k} \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$

By taking imaginary part, we can see familiar expression for waves:  $\sin(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t)$ .

With a specific dispersion relation  $\omega = \omega(\vec{k})$ , we can restrict the space of “waves” in such a way that the basis only contains

$$\psi_{\omega(\vec{k}), \vec{k}}(t, \vec{x}) = e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega(\vec{k})t)}, \quad \vec{k} \in \mathbb{R}^d.$$



## 1.3. Quantization

Let

$$\psi(t, \vec{x}) = \sum A(\vec{k}) e^{i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega(\vec{k})t)}$$

be a wave satisfying a dispersion relation  $\omega = \omega(\vec{k})$ . Then,

$$\omega \psi(t, \vec{x}) = i \partial_t \psi(t, \vec{x}), \quad \vec{k} \psi(t, \vec{x}) = -i \nabla_{\vec{x}} \psi(t, \vec{x}).$$

By changing the classical quantities to differential operators

$$\omega \mapsto i \partial_t,$$

$$\vec{k} \mapsto -i \nabla_{\vec{x}},$$

$$|\vec{k}|^2 \mapsto (-i \nabla_{\vec{x}}) \cdot (-i \nabla_{\vec{x}}) =: -\Delta_{\vec{x}},$$

we get a partial differential equation from the dispersion relation, whose solutions are waves satisfying the dispersion relation. Let me give an example.

## 1.3. Quantization

**Example.** (Schrödinger equation)

The energy conservation can be written in

$$E = \frac{|\vec{p}|^2}{2m} + V.$$

According to de Broglie's relation

$$E = \hbar\omega, \quad \vec{p} = \hbar\vec{k},$$

we get a dispersion relation

$$\hbar\omega = \frac{|\hbar\vec{k}|^2}{2m} + V$$

If  $\psi(t, \vec{x})$  is a wave function satisfying the above dispersion relation, then  $\psi$  should be a solution of

$$i\hbar\partial_t\psi(t, \vec{x}) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta_{\vec{x}}\psi(t, \vec{x}) + V(t, \vec{x})\psi(t, \vec{x}).$$

This is the famous Schrödinger equation.

## 1.4. Dispersive equation

The term “dispersive” in PDE is little different from optics.

We say a PDE is “dispersive” if the solutions of different wavelengths propagate at different group velocities so that the support of the solution spreads out in space as time flows; the dispersion relation is not linear.

### Example.

wave eqn:	$\omega = v \vec{k} $	$\partial_t^2 - v^2 \Delta_{\vec{x}} = 0$	dispersive for $d > 1$
advection eqn:	$\omega = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{k}$	$\partial_t + \vec{v} \cdot \nabla_{\vec{x}} = 0$	not dispersive
heat eqn:	$\omega = i\alpha \vec{k} ^2$	$\partial_t + \alpha \Delta_{\vec{x}} = 0$	dispersive
Schrödinger's eqn:	$\hbar\omega = \frac{ \hbar\vec{k} ^2}{2m}$	$i\hbar\partial_t + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta_{\vec{x}} = 0$	dispersive

There are several ways to capture the property, and the most elementary one is to find ***dispersive estimate***.

## 1.4. Dispersive equation

The objective of this seminar is to prove:

### Theorem (Dispersive estimate of Schrödinger operator)

Let  $u: \mathbb{R}^{1+d} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be the “nice” solution of the initial value problem

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t u(t, x) + \Delta u(t, x) = 0, & t > 0, x \in \mathbb{R}^d \\ u(0, x) = u_0(x), & t = 0, x \in \mathbb{R}^d. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Then, there is a constant  $C_d$  depending on  $d$  such that for  $t > 0$

$$\sup_x |u(t, x)| \leq C_d \cdot t^{-\frac{d}{2}} \int |u_0(x)| dx.$$

Note that this estimate implies a decay of the solution:

$$\sup_x |u(t, x)| \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as} \quad t \rightarrow \infty.$$

## 1.4. Dispersive equation

The following is well-known.

### Lemma (Probability conservation)

Let  $u$  be “nice” solution of (1). Then, for all  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\int |u(t, x)|^2 dx = \int |u_0(x)|^2 dx.$$

The following theorem illustrates the mechanism of how the dispersive estimate proves the dispersiveness:

### Corollary

Let  $S(t) := \mu(\{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : u(t, x) \neq 0\})$  be the area of domain where  $u$  does not vanish. Then,

$$S(t) \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{as} \quad t \rightarrow \infty.$$

Proof. Since

$$\int |u_0(x)|^2 dx = \int |u(t, x)|^2 dx \leq S(t) \times \sup_x |u(t, x)|^2,$$

we get

$$S(t) \geq \frac{\int |u_0(x)|^2 dx}{\sup_x |u(t, x)|^2} \rightarrow \infty.$$

## 2.1. Fourier transform

We will say a function is *nice* if the function satisfies all conditions needed in the proofs.

### Definition (Fourier transform)

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a “nice” function. The **Fourier transform** of  $f$  is

$$\widehat{f}(\xi) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \int f(x) e^{-ix \cdot \xi} dx.$$

We will use another vector variable  $\xi$  for the wave number instead of  $k = p/\hbar$ .

The constant is not important, so do not be pedantic. In Fourier analysis, we can show that  $\pi = \frac{1}{2}$ .

## 2.1. Fourier transform

We will not prove the following:

### Theorem (Fourier inversion formula)

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a “nice” function. Then,

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \int \widehat{f}(\xi) e^{ix \cdot \xi} d\xi.$$

Fourier transform is a kind of basis change from  $x$  to  $\xi$ , while the inverse Fourier transform is from  $\xi$  to  $x$ .

It is a central problem in Fourier analysis to find some conditions allowing the inversion theorem to hold.

In most of applications including our problem, the inversion is always possible.

## 2.2. Supplementary definitions

### Definition (Dirac's delta function)

The Dirac  $\delta$  function is a map from the space of nice functions to a real number defined by

$$\delta[f] = f(0).$$

In other words,  $\delta$  is the evaluation at 0.

The following notation is frequently used:

$$\delta[f] = \langle \delta, f \rangle = \int \delta(x) f(x) dx.$$

In this sense, it is convenient to consider  $\delta(x)$  as a “function” of  $x$  such that

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} \infty & , x = 0 \\ 0 & , x \neq 0 \end{cases}, \quad \int \delta(x) dx = 1$$

since these conditions give

$$\int \delta(x) f(x) dx = \int \delta(x) f(0) dx = f(0) \int \delta(x) dx = f(0)$$

although it is not a function mathematically, but a “generalized” function.



## 2.2. Supplementary definitions

There is a very good binary operation in studying Fourier analysis, the convolution.

### Definition (Convolution)

Let  $f, g: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be “nice” functions. The **convolution** is a binary operation defined by

$$f * g(x) := \int f(x - y)g(y) dy.$$

We can show  $f * g = g * f$  by change of variable.

The following theorem is not rigorous, but believe me:

### Theorem

*The  $\delta$  function is the identity element with respect to convolution.*

Pseudo-Proof.

$$\delta * f(x) = \int f(x - y)\delta(y) dy = f(x - 0) = f(x).$$



## 2.3. Properties

We will give three useful properties of Fourier transform.

### Proposition (1)

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be a “nice” function. Then,

$$\widehat{xf}(\xi) = i\nabla_{\xi}\widehat{f}(\xi), \quad \widehat{\nabla_x f}(\xi) = i\xi\widehat{f}(\xi).$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\widehat{xf}(\xi) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \int f(x)[xe^{-ix\cdot\xi}] dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \int f(x)[i\nabla_{\xi}e^{-ix\cdot\xi}] dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} i\nabla_{\xi} \int f(x)e^{-ix\cdot\xi} dx \\ &= i\nabla_{\xi}\widehat{f}(\xi)\end{aligned}$$

The other is same. □

## 2.3. Properties

### Proposition (2)

Let  $f, g: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be “nice” functions. Then,

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \widehat{f * g} = \widehat{f} \widehat{g}, \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \widehat{fg} = \widehat{f} * \widehat{g}.$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \widehat{f * g}(\xi) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \int \left[ \int f(x-y)g(y) dy \right] e^{-ix \cdot \xi} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \int g(y) \left[ \int f(x-y) e^{-ix \cdot \xi} dx \right] dy \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \int g(y) \left[ \int f(x) e^{-i(x+y) \cdot \xi} dx \right] dy \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \left[ \int f(x) e^{-ix \cdot \xi} dx \right] \left[ \int g(y) e^{-iy \cdot \xi} dy \right] \\ &= \sqrt{2\pi}^d \widehat{f}(\xi) \widehat{g}(\xi). \end{aligned}$$

The other is from the inversion. □

## 2.3. Properties

### Proposition (3)

Let  $f, g: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  be “nice” functions.

$$\nabla_x(f * g) = (\nabla_x f) * g = f * (\nabla_x g).$$

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla_x(f * g)(x) &= \nabla_x \int f(x - y)g(y) dy \\ &= \int [\nabla_x f(x - y)]g(y) dy \\ &= (\nabla_x f) * g(x).\end{aligned}$$

The second equality is due to the commutativity. □

## 3.1. Fundamental solution

Consider our initial value problem:

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t u(t, x) + \Delta u(t, x) = 0, & t > 0 \\ u(0, x) = u_0(x), & t = 0. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

We are going to assume the existence and uniqueness of solutions.

### Definition

The ***fundamental solution*** of this problem is the solution of

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t K(t, x) + \Delta K(t, x) = 0, & t > 0 \\ K(0, x) = \delta(x), & t = 0, \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

in which the initial data  $u_0$  is changed into  $\delta$ .

## 3.1. Fundamental solution

The purpose of finding  $K$  is the convolution  $K(t, x) *_x u_0(x)$  with respect to  $x$  is the desired solution:

### Theorem

*Let  $K$  be the fundamental solution; the solution of (2). Then, the convolution  $K(t, x) *_x u_0(x)$  in  $x$ -space is the solution of (1).*

Proof.

$$\begin{aligned}[i\partial_t + \Delta](K * u_0) &= ([i\partial_t + \Delta]K) * u_0 = 0 * u_0 = 0, \\ (K * u_0)(0, x) &= K(0, x) * u_0(x) = \delta(x) * u_0(x) = u_0(x).\end{aligned}$$

□

In physics, the kernel  $K$  is called **propagator** since its convolution with the initial solution is same with the solution at specific time  $t$ .

## 3.2. Computation of fundamental solution (1)

The basic idea is Fourier transform. By taking Fourier transform for (2)

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t K(t, x) + \Delta K(t, x) = 0, & t > 0 \\ K(0, x) = \delta(x), & t = 0, \end{cases}$$

we have

$$\begin{cases} i\partial_t \hat{K} - |\xi|^2 \hat{K} = 0, & t > 0 \\ \hat{K}(0, \xi) = \hat{\delta}(\xi), & t = 0. \end{cases}$$

It is an ODE, so we can find the solution

$$\hat{K}(t, \xi) = C(\xi) e^{-it|\xi|^2},$$

where

$$C(\xi) = \hat{K}(0, \xi) = \hat{\delta}(\xi) \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d}.$$

Therefore,

$$\boxed{\hat{K}(t, \xi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} e^{-it|\xi|^2}.$$

Note that this is the complex Gaussian, a very special function!

## 3.2. Computation of fundamental solution (1)

With

$$\widehat{K}(t, \xi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} e^{-it|\xi|^2},$$

differentiating before taking inverse transform,

$$\nabla_\xi \widehat{K} = -2it\xi \widehat{K}.$$

By the inversion formula, we get the ODE

$$xK = -2it\nabla_x K,$$

and its solution

$$K(t, x) = C(t) e^{i \frac{|x|^2}{4t}}.$$

Here,

$$C(t) = K(t, 0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} \int \widehat{K}(t, \xi) e^{i\vec{0} \cdot \xi} d\xi = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int e^{-it|\xi|^2} d\xi.$$



## 3.2. Computation of fundamental solution (2)

Since

$$\begin{aligned} C(t) &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int e^{-it|\xi|^2} d\xi \\ &= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int \cdots \int e^{-it(\xi_1^2 + \cdots + \xi_d^2)} d\xi_1 \cdots d\xi_d \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-it\xi^2} d\xi \right)^d, \end{aligned}$$

we obtain

$$C(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi it}^d}$$

by the following theorem:

### Theorem

If we let  $\sqrt{i} = e^{\frac{1}{4}\pi i}$ , then the complex Gaussian is

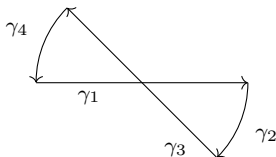
$$\int_{\mathbb{R}} e^{-it\xi^2} d\xi = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{it}}.$$

## 3.2. Computation of fundamental solution (2)

Proof. By Cauchy's integral theorem,

$$0 = \int_{\gamma} e^{-itz^2} dz = I_1 + I_2 + I_3 + I_4,$$

where  $I_i := \int_{\gamma_i} e^{-itz^2} dz$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ .



Then, the problem is to show

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} I_1 = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{it}}.$$

## 3.2. Computation of fundamental solution (3) - estimate of $I_3$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} I_3 &= \int_{\gamma_3} e^{-itz^2} dz \\ &= \int_{\gamma_3} e^{-it(re^{\frac{3}{4}\pi i})^2} d(re^{\frac{3}{4}\pi i}) \\ &= e^{\frac{3}{4}\pi i} \int_{-R}^R e^{-tr^2} dr, \end{aligned}$$

we have a limit

$$\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} I_3 = e^{\frac{3}{4}\pi i} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{t}} = -\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{it}}.$$

## 3.2. Computation of fundamental solution (3) - estimate of $I_2$ and $I_4$

By change of variable, we have

$$I_2 = \int_{\gamma_2} e^{-it(Re^{i\theta})^2} d(Re^{i\theta}) = \int_0^{-\frac{1}{4}\pi} e^{-itR^2 e^{i2\theta}} Rie^{i\theta} d\theta$$

and

$$|I_2| \leq \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} Re^{-tR^2 \sin 2\theta} d\theta.$$

We can do for  $|I_4|$  similarly, so

$$|I_2| + |I_4| \leq 2 \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{4}} Re^{-tR^2 \sin 2\theta} d\theta = \int_0^{\frac{\pi}{2}} Re^{-tR^2 \sin \theta} d\theta.$$

## 3.2. Computation of fundamental solution (3) - estimate of $I_2$ and $I_4$

If we take  $\delta = \frac{2}{\pi} R^{-\frac{3}{2}}$  so that  $\sin \delta \geq R^{-\frac{3}{2}}$ , then

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\delta R e^{-tR^2 \sin \theta} d\theta &\leq \int_0^\delta R d\theta = \frac{2}{\pi} \frac{1}{\sqrt{R}} \rightarrow 0, \\ \int_\delta^{\frac{\pi}{2}} R e^{-tR^2 \sin \theta} d\theta &= \int_\delta^{\frac{\pi}{2}} R e^{-tR^2 \sin \delta} d\theta \leq \frac{\pi}{2} R e^{-t\sqrt{R}} \rightarrow 0 \end{aligned}$$

as  $R \rightarrow \infty$ ;  $\lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} |I_2| + |I_4| = 0$ .

Consequently,

$$\int e^{-it\xi^2} d\xi = \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} I_1 = - \lim_{R \rightarrow \infty} I_3 = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{it}},$$

□

### 3.3. Representation formula

Therefore, we showed

#### Theorem

*The fundamental solution of (1) is*

$$K(t, x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi it}} e^{i \frac{|x|^2}{4t}},$$

where  $\sqrt{i} = e^{\frac{1}{4}\pi i}$ .

### 3.3. Representation formula

#### Theorem

Let  $u$  be the solution of (1). Then,

$$u(t, x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi it}} \int u_0(y) e^{i \frac{|x-y|^2}{4t}} dy.$$

This kind of explicit formula of the solution is called **representation formula**.

#### Corollary

$$\sup_x |u(t, x)| \leq (4\pi t)^{-\frac{d}{2}} \int |u_0(x)| dx.$$

## 4.1. Oscillatory integral

This method is applicable for more generalized cases, such as the Airy equation or the fractional Schrödinger equation.

Note that

$$u(t, x) = K(t, x) * u_0(x).$$

By Hölder's inequality,

$$\|u\|_{L_x^\infty} \leq \|K(t, -)\|_{L_x^\infty} \|u_0\|_{L^1}.$$

We have seen that

$$\hat{K}(t, \xi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}^d} e^{-it|\xi|^2}.$$

Fourier transforming,

$$K(t, x) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \int e^{i(x \cdot \xi - t|\xi|^2)} d\xi.$$

We can find this by Fourier transform of complex Gaussian, but we will use another approach.



## 4.1. Oscillatory integral

Define **phase** and **amplitude** by

$$\phi(t, x, \xi) := x \cdot \xi - t|\xi|^2, \quad a(\xi) := \frac{1}{(2\pi)^d} \chi(\xi),$$

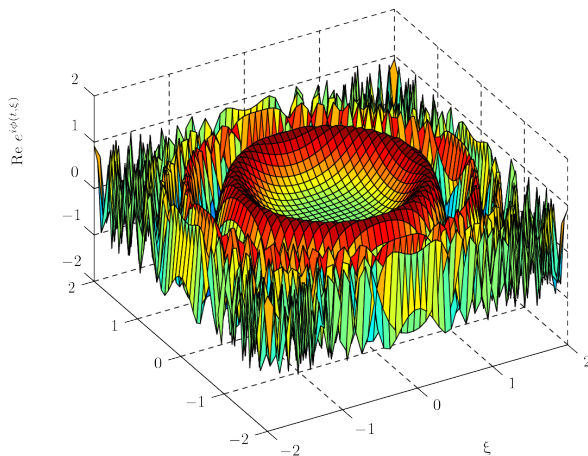
so that the limit ( $\chi \rightarrow 1$ ) of the following integral is the fundamental solution:

$$I(t, x) := \int a(\xi) e^{i\phi} d\xi.$$

An integral of this form is called **oscillatory integral**.

We are going to obtain a pointwise estimate of this!  $\Rightarrow$  Fix  $x$ .

## 4.2. Principle of non-stationary phase



Where  $\nabla_{\xi}\phi$  is big, the integral  $\int a(\xi)e^{i\phi} d\xi$  will be cancelled by oscillation.

## 4.2. Principle of non-stationary phase

### Definition

Let  $\phi$  be the phase function defined previously. A **stationary point** is a point  $\xi^o(t, x)$  at which  $\nabla_{\xi}\phi$  vanishes.

For the Schrödinger equation, we have  $\xi^o = \frac{x}{2t}$ . The strategy is to divide the integral  $I$  as

$$I = I_{stat} + I_{nonstat}$$

We can control each integral by

- $I_{stat}$  : base  $\times$  height.
- $I_{nonstat}$  : cancellation by fast oscillation.

The wider the region of stationary phase, the bigger  $I_{stat}$  is.

The smaller the region of stationary phase, the bigger  $I_{nonstat}$  is.

We should find the balance: in fact  $t^{-\frac{1}{2}}$  is the boundary of the regions:

$$I_{stat} \simeq (t^{-\frac{1}{2}})^d \times 1 = t^{-\frac{d}{2}}.$$

### 4.3. Heuristic method: Linearization of the phase

There is a nice heuristic method for finding the boundary (, which we already know it is  $t^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ ).

Let  $\xi' = \xi - \xi^o$  be a new variable in the Fourier space. Intuitively, the region of stationary phase is determined as

$$\{\xi' : |\phi(\xi) - \phi(\xi^o)| \lesssim 2\pi\}.$$

Since

$$\begin{aligned} 2\pi &\gtrsim |\phi(\xi) - \phi(\xi^o)| \\ &\simeq |\text{Hess}_{\xi^o}(\xi', \xi')| \\ &\simeq t|\xi'|^2, \end{aligned}$$

the region of stationary phase is  $|\xi'| \lesssim t^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ .

## 4.4. Repeated integration by parts

So, the rest is to show  $|I_{nonstat}| \lesssim t^{-\frac{d}{2}}$ , where

$$I_{nonstat} = \int \chi_{|\xi| > t^{-\frac{1}{2}}}(\xi) a(\xi) e^{i\phi} d\xi.$$

By the Taylor expansion

$$\nabla_{\xi} \phi = \frac{1}{2} \text{Hess}_{\xi^o}(\xi') + O(|\xi|^2) = t\xi' + O(|\xi|^2),$$