# Hypersurfaces with parallel Laguerre form in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ 

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#### Abstract

For a given ( $n-1$ )-dimensional hypersurface $x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$, consider the Laguerre form $\boldsymbol{\Phi}$, the Laguerre tensor $\mathbf{L}$ and the Laguerre second fundamental form $\mathbf{B}$ of the immersion $x$. In this article, we address the case when the Laguerre form of $x$ is parallel, i.e., $\nabla \Phi \equiv 0$. We prove that $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ is equivalent to $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$, provided that either $\mathbf{L}+\lambda \mathbf{B}+\mu g=0$ for some smooth function $\lambda$ and $\mu$, or $x$ has constant Laguerre eigenvalues, or $x$ has constant para-Laguerre eigenvalues, where $\nabla$ is the Levi-Civita connection of the Laguerre metric $g$.


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Key words: Laguerre form; Laguerre metric; Laguerre second fundamental form; Laguerre tensor; para-Laguerre tensor.

## 1 Introduction

The Laguerre geometry of surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ was studied by Blaschke [1], and by other authors (see Musso and Nicolodi [8], [9]). In the Laguerre geometry of submanifolds in Euclidean space $\mathbb{R}^{n}$, Li and Wang [4] investigated the invariants of the hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ under the Laguerre transformation group. We recall that the Laguerre transformations are the Lie sphere transformations which take oriented hyperplanes in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ to oriented hyperplanes and preserve the tangential distance.

Let $U \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be the unit tangent bundle over $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. An oriented sphere in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ centered at $p$ with radius $r$ can be regarded as the oriented sphere $\{(x, \xi) \mid x-p=r \xi\}$ in $U \mathbb{R}^{n}$, where $x$ is the position vector and $\xi$ the unit normal vector of the sphere. An oriented hyperplane in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with a constant unit normal vector $\xi$ and a constant real number $c$ can be regarded as the oriented hyperplane $\{(x, \xi) \mid x \cdot \xi=c\}$ in $U \mathbb{R}^{n}$. A diffeomorphism $\phi: U \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow U \mathbb{R}^{n}$ which takes oriented spheres to oriented spheres, oriented hyperplanes to oriented hyperplanes, preserving the tangential distance of any two spheres, is called a Laguerre transformation. All the Laguerre transformations in $U \mathbb{R}^{n}$ form a group of dimension $(n+1)(n+2) / 2$, called the Laguerre transformation group.

[^0]An oriented hypersurface $x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ can be identified as the submanifold $(x, \xi)$ : $M \rightarrow U \mathbb{R}^{n}$, where $\xi$ is the unit normal of $x$. Two hypersurfaces $x, x^{*}: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ are called Laguerre equivalent, if there is a Laguerre transformation $\phi: U \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow U \mathbb{R}^{n}$ so that $\left(x^{*}, \xi^{*}\right)=\phi \circ(x, \xi)$ (see [4]). Li and Wang [4] gave a complete Laguerre invariant system of hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and proved that two umbilical free oriented hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with non-zero principal curvatures are Laguerre equivalent if and only if they have the same Laguerre metric $g$ and Laguerre second fundamental form B.

From Li and Wang [4], we know that the Laguerre metric $g$ of the immersion $x$ can be defined by $g=\langle d Y, d Y\rangle$. Let $\left\{E_{1}, E_{2}, \ldots, E_{n-1}\right\}$ be an orthonormal basis for $g$ with dual basis $\left\{\omega_{1}, \omega_{2}, \ldots, \omega_{n-1}\right\}$. The Laguerre form $\boldsymbol{\Phi}$, Laguerre tensor $\mathbf{L}$ and the Laguerre second fundamental form $\mathbf{B}$ of the immersion $x$ are defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{\Phi}=\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} C_{i} \omega_{i}, \quad \mathbf{L}=\sum_{i, j=1}^{n-1} L_{i j} \omega_{i} \otimes \omega_{j}, \quad \mathbf{B}=\sum_{i, j=1}^{n-1} B_{i j} \omega_{i} \otimes \omega_{j}, \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

respectively, where $C_{i}, L_{i j}$ and $B_{i j}$ are defined by

$$
\begin{align*}
C_{i} & =-\rho^{-2}\left\{\tilde{E}_{i}(r)-\tilde{E}_{i}(\log \rho)\left(r_{i}-r\right)\right\}  \tag{1.2}\\
L_{i j} & =\rho^{-2}\left\{\operatorname{Hess}_{i j}(\log \rho)-\tilde{E}_{i}(\log \rho) \tilde{E}_{j}(\log \rho)+\frac{1}{2}\left(|\nabla \log \rho|^{2}-1\right) \delta_{i j}\right\}  \tag{1.3}\\
B_{i j} & =\rho^{-1}\left(r_{i}-r\right) \delta_{i j} \tag{1.4}
\end{align*}
$$

where $g=\sum_{i}\left(r_{i}-r\right)^{2} I I I=\rho^{2} I I I, r_{i}$ and $r$ are the curvature radii and mean curvature radius of $x$, respectively. We define a symmetric $(0,2)$ tensor

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbf{D}=\mathbf{L}+\lambda \mathbf{B} \tag{1.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

which is called the para-Laguerre tensor of $x$, where $\lambda$ is a constant. We notice that $g, \boldsymbol{\Phi}, \mathbf{L}, \mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{D}$ are Laguerre invariants (see [4]).

We call an eigenvalue of the Laguerre second fundamental form a Laguerre principal curvature, an eigenvalue of the Laguerre tensor a Laguerre eigenvalue, an eigenvalue of the para-Laguerre tensor a para-Laguerre eigenvalue of $x$. An umbilic free hypersurface $x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ with non-zero principal curvatures and vanishing Laguerre form $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ is called a Laguerre isoparametric hypersurface if the Laguerre principal curvatures of $x$ are constants. A hypersurface with a vanishing Laguerre form is called a Laguerre isotropic hypersurface, if the Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are equal. We should notice that the Laguerre form $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ plays an important role in the definitions of Laguerre isoparametric hypersurfaces and Laguerre isotropic hypersurfaces. In the study of Laguerre isoparametric hypersurfaces and Laguerre isotropic hypersurfaces, there have been many recent studies ( see [3, 6, 10-12]). In [3] and [6], Li et al. obtained the complete classifications of all oriented Laguerre surfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{3}$ and all oriented Laguerre isoparametric hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{4}$. In [10]-[12], we firstly obtained the classification of Laguerre isoparametric hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ with three distinct Laguerre principal curvatures, one of which is simple and then we obtained the complete classifications of all oriented Laguerre isoparametric hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{5}$ and $\mathbb{R}^{6}$. In [5], Li, H. Li and Wang obtained the classification of all the Laguerre isotropic hypersurfaces.

If $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi}=\sum_{i, j} C_{i, j} \omega_{i} \otimes \omega_{j} \equiv 0$, we call $x$ has parallel Laguerre form, where $\nabla$ is the Levi-Civita connection of the Laguerre metric $g$. We notice that if $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ then $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$, conversely, if $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ then $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ not necessarily holds. Thus, we see that the condition $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ is weaker than $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$. Then the next question follows: in what conditions may we have $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ if and only if $\Phi \equiv 0$ ?

In this article, we try to give some answers to the above question. We notice that Fang [2] and Zhong et al. [13] recently proved independently that if the Laguerre principal curvatures of $x$ are constants, then $\nabla \Phi \equiv 0$ if and only if $\Phi \equiv 0$. Since we know that the Laguerre eigenvalues and the para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are also the important Laguerre invariants, we prove the following results:

Theorem 1.1. Let $x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an umbilic free hypersurface with non-zero principal curvatures. If $\mathbf{L}+\lambda \mathbf{B}+\mu g=0$ for some smooth function $\lambda$ and $\mu$, then $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ if and only if $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$.
Theorem 1.2. Let $x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an umbilic free hypersurface with non-zero principal curvatures. If the Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are constants, then $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ if and only if $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$.

Theorem 1.3. Let $x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an umbilic free hypersurface with non-zero principal curvatures. If the para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are constants, then $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{\Phi} \equiv 0$.

Thus, from Theorem 1.2, Theorem 1.3 and Theorem 1.1 of [2] or [13], we easily see that

Theorem 1.4. Let $x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an umbilic free hypersurface with non-zero principal curvatures. If the Laguerre principal curvatures, or the Laguerre eigenvalues, or the para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are constants, then $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ if and only if $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$.
Remark 1.1. If $\lambda \equiv 0$, then $\mathbf{L}+\mu g=0$ and $x$ is a Laguerre isotropic hypersurface, we see that Theorem 1.1 reduce to (2) of Theorem 1.1 of Zhong et al. [13]. From Theorem 1.1, we see that if we replace $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ by the weaker condition $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ in the definition of Laguerre isotropic hypersurfaces, then Theorem 1.1 of $\mathrm{Li}, \mathrm{H} . \mathrm{Li}$ and Wang [5] also holds.
Remark 1.2. From Theorem 1.2 and Theorem 1.3, we see that if we replace $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ by the weaker condition $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$ in Theorem 1.2 of [5] and Theorem 1.4 of [9], then Theorem 1.2 of [5] and Theorem 1.4 of [9] also hold.

## 2 Fundamental formulas of Laguerre Geometry

We recall the fundamental formulas on Laguerre geometry of hypersurfaces in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Let $x: M \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ be an $(n-1)$-dimensional umbilical free hypersurface with vanishing Laguerre form in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$. Let $\left\{E_{1}, \ldots, E_{n-1}\right\}$ denote a local orthonormal frame for Laguerre metric $g=\langle d Y, d Y\rangle$ with dual frame $\left\{\omega_{1}, \ldots, \omega_{n-1}\right\}$. Putting $Y_{i}=E_{i}(Y)$, we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& N=\frac{1}{n-1} \Delta Y+\frac{1}{2(n-1)^{2}}\langle\Delta Y, \Delta Y\rangle Y,  \tag{2.1}\\
& \langle Y, Y\rangle=\langle N, N\rangle=0, \quad\langle Y, N\rangle=-1, \tag{2.2}
\end{align*}
$$

and the following orthogonal decomposition:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathbb{R}_{2}^{n+3}=\operatorname{Span}\{Y, N\} \oplus \operatorname{Span}\left\{Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n-1}\right\} \oplus \mathbb{V} \tag{2.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\left\{Y, N, Y_{1}, \ldots, Y_{n-1}, \eta, \wp\right\}$ forms a moving frame in $\mathbb{R}_{2}^{n+3}$ and $\mathbb{V}=\{\eta, \wp\}$ is called the Laguerre normal bundle of $x$. We use the following range of indices throughout this paper: $1 \leq i, j, k, l, m \leq n-1$.

The structure equations of $x$ with respect to the Laguerre metric $g$ can be written as

$$
\begin{align*}
& d Y=\sum_{i} \omega_{i} Y_{i},  \tag{2.4}\\
& d N=\sum_{i} \psi_{i} Y_{i}+\varphi \eta,  \tag{2.5}\\
& d Y_{i}=\psi_{i} Y+\omega_{i} N+\sum_{j} \omega_{i j} Y_{j}+\omega_{i n} \eta,  \tag{2.6}\\
& d \wp=-\varphi Y+\sum_{i} \omega_{i n} Y_{i}, \tag{2.7}
\end{align*}
$$

where $\left\{\psi_{i}, \omega_{i j}, \omega_{i n}, \varphi\right\}$ are 1-forms on $x$ with

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega_{i j}+\omega_{j i}=0, \quad d \omega_{i}=\sum_{j} \omega_{j} \wedge \omega_{j i} \tag{2.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

and
(2.9) $\quad \psi_{i}=\sum_{j} L_{i j} \omega_{j}, \quad L_{i j}=L_{j i}, \quad \omega_{i n}=\sum_{j} B_{i j} \omega_{j}, \quad B_{i j}=B_{j i}, \quad \varphi=\sum_{i} C_{i} \omega_{i}$.

We define the covariant derivative of $C_{i}, L_{i j}, B_{i j}$ by

$$
\begin{align*}
& \sum_{j} C_{i, j} \omega_{j}=d C_{i}+\sum_{j} C_{j} \omega_{j i},  \tag{2.10}\\
& \sum_{k} L_{i j, k} \omega_{k}=d L_{i j}+\sum_{k} L_{i k} \omega_{k j}+\sum_{k} L_{k j} \omega_{k i},  \tag{2.11}\\
& \sum_{k} B_{i j, k} \omega_{k}=d B_{i j}+\sum_{k} B_{i k} \omega_{k j}+\sum_{k} B_{k j} \omega_{k i}, \tag{2.12}
\end{align*}
$$

and using [4], we infer

$$
\begin{align*}
& d \omega_{i j}=\sum_{k} \omega_{i k} \wedge \omega_{k j}-\frac{1}{2} \sum_{k, l} R_{i j k l} \omega_{k} \wedge \omega_{l}, \quad R_{i j k l}=-R_{j i k l}  \tag{2.13}\\
& \sum_{i} B_{i i}=0, \quad \sum_{i, j} B_{i j}^{2}=1, \quad \sum_{i} B_{i j, i}=(n-2) C_{j}, \quad \operatorname{tr} \mathbf{L}=-\frac{R}{2(n-2)}
\end{align*}
$$

$$
\begin{align*}
& L_{i j, k}=L_{i k, j}  \tag{2.15}\\
& C_{i, j}-C_{j, i}=\sum_{k}\left(B_{i k} L_{k j}-B_{j k} L_{k i}\right)  \tag{2.16}\\
& B_{i j, k}-B_{i k, j}=C_{j} \delta_{i k}-C_{k} \delta_{i j}  \tag{2.17}\\
& R_{i j k l}=L_{j k} \delta_{i l}+L_{i l} \delta_{j k}-L_{i k} \delta_{j l}-L_{j l} \delta_{i k} \tag{2.18}
\end{align*}
$$

where $R_{i j k l}$ and $R$ denote the Laguerre curvature tensor and the Laguerre scalar curvature with respect to the Laguerre metric $g$ on $x$.

Denote by $\mathbf{D}=\sum_{i, j} D_{i j} \omega_{i} \otimes \omega_{j}$ the ( 0,2 ) para-Laguerre tensor,

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{i j}=L_{i j}+\lambda B_{i j}, \quad 1 \leq i, j \leq n, \tag{2.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\lambda$ is a constant. The covariant derivative of $D_{i j}$ is defined by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k} D_{i j, k} \omega_{k}=d D_{i j}+\sum_{k} D_{i k} \omega_{k j}+\sum_{k} D_{k j} \omega_{k i} . \tag{2.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Defining the second covariant derivative of $B_{i j}$ and $C_{i}$ by

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{l} B_{i j, k l} \omega_{l} & =d B_{i j, k}+\sum_{l} B_{l j, k} \omega_{l i}+\sum_{l} B_{i l, k} \omega_{l j}+\sum_{l} B_{i j, l} \omega_{l k}  \tag{2.21}\\
\sum_{k} C_{i j, k} \omega_{k} & =d C_{i, j}+\sum_{k} C_{i, k} \omega_{k j}+\sum_{k} C_{k, j} \omega_{k i} \tag{2.22}
\end{align*}
$$

we have the Ricci identity

$$
\begin{align*}
& B_{i j, k l}-B_{i j, l k}=\sum_{m} B_{m j} R_{m i k l}+\sum_{m} B_{i m} R_{m j k l}  \tag{2.23}\\
& C_{i j, k}-C_{i k, j}=\sum_{m} C_{m} R_{m i j k} \tag{2.24}
\end{align*}
$$

## 3 Proofs of Theorems

From (2.17) and (2.23), we see that

$$
\begin{align*}
B_{i j, k k}= & \left(B_{i k, j}+C_{j} \delta_{i k}-C_{k} \delta_{i j}\right)_{, k}=B_{i k, j k}+C_{j, k} \delta_{i k}-C_{k, k} \delta_{i j}  \tag{3.1}\\
= & B_{k k, i j}+\sum_{m} B_{m k} R_{m i j k}+\sum_{m} B_{i m} R_{m k j k} \\
& +C_{i, j} \delta_{k k}+C_{j, k} \delta_{i k}-C_{k, j} \delta_{k i}-C_{k, k} \delta_{i j} .
\end{align*}
$$

From (2.14), (2.18) and (3.1), we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{i, j, k} & B_{i j} B_{i j, k k}=\sum_{i, j, k, l} B_{i j} B_{l k} R_{l i j k}+\sum_{i, j, k, l} B_{i j} B_{i l} R_{l k j k}+n \sum_{i, j} B_{i j} C_{j, i}  \tag{3.2}\\
= & \sum_{i, j, k, l} B_{i j} B_{l k}\left(L_{i j} \delta_{l k}+L_{l k} \delta_{i j}-L_{l j} \delta_{i k}-L_{i k} \delta_{l j}\right) \\
& \quad+\sum_{i, j, k, l} B_{i j} B_{i l}\left(L_{k j} \delta_{l k}+L_{l k} \delta_{k j}-L_{l j} \delta_{k k}-L_{k k} \delta_{l j}\right)+n \sum_{i, j} B_{i j} C_{j, i} \\
= & -(n-1) \operatorname{tr}\left(L B^{2}\right)-\operatorname{tr} L+n \operatorname{tr}(B \nabla \Phi)
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, from (2.14) and (3.2), we have

$$
\begin{align*}
0 & =\frac{1}{2} \Delta\left(\sum_{i, j} B_{i j}^{2}\right)=\sum_{i, j, k} B_{i j, k}^{2}+\sum_{i, j, k} B_{i j} B_{i j, k k}  \tag{3.3}\\
& =\sum_{i, j, k} B_{i j, k}^{2}-(n-1) \operatorname{tr}\left(L B^{2}\right)-\operatorname{tr} L+n \operatorname{tr}(B \nabla \Phi)
\end{align*}
$$

Proof of Theorem 1.1. If $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$, it is obvious that $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$. On the contrary, if $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$, that is, $C_{i, j}=0$, for all $i, j$, from (2.16), we may choose the local orthonormal basis $E_{1}, E_{2}, \ldots, E_{n-1}$ to diagonalize the matrix $\left(B_{i j}\right)$ and $\left(L_{i j}\right)$, that is

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{i j}=B_{i} \delta_{i j}, \quad L_{i j}=L_{i} \delta_{i j} \tag{3.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $\mathbf{L}+\lambda \mathbf{B}+\mu g=0$, we have $L_{i}=-\mu-\lambda B_{i}$. From (2.18) and (2.24), we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=\sum_{l} C_{l} R_{l i j k}=C_{j}\left(L_{j}+L_{i}\right) \delta_{i k}-C_{k}\left(L_{k}+L_{i}\right) \delta_{i j} \tag{3.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

Putting $i=k \neq j$ in (3.5), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{j}\left(L_{j}+L_{k}\right)=0, \quad k \neq j . \tag{3.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

If there exists one point $p$ on $M$, so that $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, without loss of generality, we may assume $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$, thus from (3.6), we see that $L_{1}+L_{k}=0$ at $p$, where $k \neq 1$. Since $L_{i}=-\mu-\lambda B_{i}$, we have $-\mu-\lambda B_{1}-\mu-\lambda B_{k}=0$ at $p$, where $k \neq 1$. Thus, at point $p$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lambda B_{k}=-\left(2 \mu+\lambda B_{1}\right), \quad k \neq 1 \tag{3.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

If $\lambda=0$ at $p$, we see that $\mu=0$ at $p$. Thus $L_{i}=0$ at $p$ for all $i$, which implies that $\operatorname{tr} L=0$ at $p$ and also $\operatorname{tr}\left(L B^{2}\right)=0$ at $p$. From (3.3), we see that $B_{i j, k}=0$ at $p$ for all $i, j, k$. From (2.14), we have $C_{1}=\sum_{i} B_{i 1 i}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction.

If $\lambda \neq 0$ at $p$, from (3.7), we see that $B_{2}=B_{3}=\cdots=B_{n-1}$ at $p$. By (2.14), we know that

$$
B_{1}+(n-2) B_{2}=0, \quad B_{1}^{2}+(n-2) B_{2}^{2}=1, \quad \text { at } p
$$

Therefore,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{1}=\mp \sqrt{\frac{n-2}{n-1}}, \quad B_{2}= \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{(n-1)(n-2)}}, \quad \text { at } p \tag{3.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.12) and (3.8), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k} B_{i j, k} \omega_{k}=\left(B_{i}-B_{j}\right) \omega_{i j}, \quad \text { at } p \tag{3.9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, at point $p$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
B_{i j, k}=0, \text { for } 2 \leq i, j \leq n-1, \quad 1 \leq k \leq n-1 \tag{3.10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Putting $i \neq j, i=k$ and $2 \leq i, j, k \leq n-1$ in (2.17), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{j}=0, \quad \text { for } 2 \leq j \leq n-1 \tag{3.11}
\end{equation*}
$$

On the other hand, from (2.10) and (3.11), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=\sum_{k} C_{j, k} \omega_{k}=d C_{j}+\sum_{k} C_{k} \omega_{k j}=C_{1} \omega_{1 j}, \quad \text { for } 2 \leq j \leq n-1 \tag{3.12}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since it is assumed $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$, we have $\omega_{1 j}=0$ at $p, 2 \leq j \leq n-1$. By (3.9), we see that $B_{1 j, k}=0$ at $p$ for $2 \leq j \leq n-1$ and all $k$. Thus $B_{12,2}=0$ at $p$ and $B_{21,2}=0$ at $p$. From (3.10), we have $B_{22,1}=0$ at $p$. Putting $i=j=2$ and $k=1$ in (2.17), we have $C_{1}=B_{21,2}-B_{22,1}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction. Thus, it must have $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.1.

Proof of Theorem 1.2. If $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$, it is obvious that $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$. On the contrary, if $\nabla \Phi \equiv 0$, that is, $C_{i, j}=0$, for all $i, j$, from (2.16), we may choose the local orthonormal basis $E_{1}, E_{2}, \ldots, E_{n-1}$ to diagonalize the matrix $\left(B_{i j}\right)$ and $\left(L_{i j}\right)$, that is, (3.4) holds.
(1) If the Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are equal, from Theorem 1.1 (see Remark 1.1), we know that Theorem 1.2 is true.
(2) If the Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are not equal, from (2.18) and (3.4), we know that

$$
\begin{equation*}
R_{i j k l}=0, \quad \text { if three of }\{i, j, k, l\} \text { are either the same or distinct. } \tag{3.13}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2.24) and (3.13), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{i} R_{i j i j}=\sum_{k} C_{k} R_{k j i j}=0, \quad i \neq j \tag{3.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

If there exists one point $p$ on $M$, so that $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, without loss of generality, we may assume $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$, thus from (3.14) and (2.18), we see that $0=R_{1 k 1 k}=-L_{1}-L_{k}$ at $p$, where $k \neq 1$, that is, $L_{k}=-L_{1},(k \neq 1)$ at $p$. Since the Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are constants and not equal, we know that at all points of $x$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{k}=-L_{1} \neq 0, \quad k \neq 1 \tag{3.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $L_{i j, k}=L_{i k, j}$ and $L_{k}=-L_{1}=$ constant, from (2.11), we easily see that $L_{i j, k}=0$ for all $i, j, k$. From (2.11) again, we have $\left(L_{1}-L_{j}\right) \omega_{1 j}=0$ for $j \neq 1$, thus

$$
\begin{equation*}
\omega_{1 j}=0, \quad j \neq 1 \tag{3.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

Taking exterior differential of (2.6) and by (2.4)-(2.7), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
d \psi_{i}-\sum_{j} \psi_{j} \wedge \omega_{j i}+\omega_{i n} \wedge \varphi=0 \tag{3.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since it is assumed $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$, we must have $C_{2}=C_{3}=\cdots=C_{n-1}=0$ at $p$. In fact, if there is $i_{0}\left(2 \leq i_{0} \leq n-1\right)$ such that $C_{i_{0}} \neq 0$ at $p$, from (3.14) and (2.18), we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -L_{1}-L_{k}=0, \quad k \neq 1, \quad k \neq i_{0} \\
& -L_{i_{0}}-L_{k}=0, \quad k \neq i_{0}, \quad k \neq 1 \\
& -L_{1}-L_{i_{0}}=0, \quad i_{0} \neq 1
\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, we have $L_{1}=L_{i_{0}}=L_{k}=0, k \neq 1, k \neq i_{0}$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, from (2.9), we have $\varphi=C_{1} \omega_{1}$ at $p$. By (3.17), (2.8), (2.9), (3.15) and (3.16), we see
that for $i \neq 1$

$$
\begin{align*}
-\omega_{i n} \wedge \varphi & =L_{i} d \omega_{i}-\sum_{j} L_{j} \omega_{j} \wedge \omega_{j i}  \tag{3.18}\\
& =-L_{1} d \omega_{i}-L_{1} \omega_{1} \wedge \omega_{1 i}-\sum_{j=2}^{n-1} L_{j} \omega_{j} \wedge \omega_{j i} \\
& =-L_{1} d \omega_{i}+L_{1} \omega_{1} \wedge \omega_{1 i}+L_{1} \sum_{j=2}^{n-1} \omega_{j} \wedge \omega_{j i} \\
& =-L_{1}\left(d \omega_{i}-\sum_{j} \omega_{j} \wedge \omega_{j i}\right)=0
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, from (2.9) and (3.18), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
-B_{i} C_{1} \omega_{i} \wedge \omega_{1}=0, \quad \text { at } p, \quad i \neq 1 \tag{3.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$ and $i \neq 1$, from (3.19), we have $B_{i}=0$ at $p, i \neq 1$. From (2.14), we see that $B_{1}=0$ at $p$, this contradicts with $\sum_{i} B_{i}^{2}=1$. Thus, it must have $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.2.

Proof of Theorem 1.3. If $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$, it is obvious that $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$. On the contrary, if $\nabla \boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$, that is, $C_{i, j}=0$, for all $i, j$, from (2.16) and (2.19), we can choose the local orthonormal basis $E_{1}, E_{2}, \ldots, E_{n-1}$ to diagonalize the matrix $\left(B_{i j}\right),\left(L_{i j}\right)$ and $\left(D_{i j}\right)$.
(1) If the para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are equal, from Theorem 1.1, we know that Theorem 1.3 is true.
(2) If the para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ are not equal, since $\mathbf{D}=\mathbf{L}+\lambda \mathbf{B}$, if $\lambda=0$, from Theorem 1.2, we know that Theorem 1.3 is true. If $\lambda \neq 0$, in order to prove $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$, we may consider the following four independent cases (i), (ii), (iii) and (iv).
(i) If $n \geq 3$ and $x$ has two distinct para-Laguerre eigenvalues, we also consider the following two cases: $n=3$ and $n \geq 4$.

If $n=3$, from the Ricci identity (2.24), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k} C_{k} R_{k 212}=0, \quad \sum_{k} C_{k} R_{k 121}=0 \tag{3.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, we have from (3.13) and (3.20) that

$$
C_{1} R_{1212}=0, \quad C_{2} R_{1212}=0
$$

If there exists one point $p$ on $M$, so that $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, without loss of generality, we may assume $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$, thus $R_{1212}=0$ at $p$. From (2.18), we have $\operatorname{tr} L=L_{1}+L_{2}=0$ at $p$. Thus, from (2.14), we have $D_{1}+D_{2}=L_{1}+L_{2}+\lambda\left(B_{1}+B_{2}\right)=0$ at $p$, that is $D_{1}=-D_{2}$ at $p$. Thus, $0=D_{1}^{2}-D_{2}^{2}=L_{1}^{2}-L_{2}^{2}+2 \lambda L_{1}\left(B_{1}+B_{2}\right)+\lambda^{2}\left(B_{1}^{2}-B_{2}^{2}\right)=\lambda^{2}\left(B_{1}^{2}-B_{2}^{2}\right)$ at $p$. Since $\lambda \neq 0$, we have $B_{1}^{2}=B_{2}^{2}$ at $p$. Thus, $\operatorname{tr}\left(L B^{2}\right)=L_{1} B_{1}^{2}+L_{2} B_{2}^{2}=B_{1}^{2} \operatorname{tr} L=0$ at $p$. From (3.3), we see that $B_{i j, k}=0$ at $p$ for all $i, j, k$. From (2.14), we have $C_{1}=\sum_{i} B_{i 1, i}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction.

If $n \geq 4$, let $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ be the two distinct para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ with multiplicities $m_{1}$ and $n-1-m_{1}$, respectively. We agree on the following ranges of indices

$$
1 \leq a, b \leq m_{1}, \quad m_{1}+1 \leq \alpha, \beta \leq n-1 .
$$

From (2.15), (2.17) and (2.19), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{i j, k}-D_{i k, j}=\lambda C_{j} \delta_{i k}-\lambda C_{k} \delta_{i j} \tag{3.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

Since $D_{1}$ and $D_{2}$ are constants, from (2.20), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{a b, i}=D_{\alpha \beta, i}=0, \quad \sum_{k} D_{a \alpha, k} \omega_{k}=\left(D_{1}-D_{2}\right) \omega_{a \alpha} . \tag{3.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.21) and (3.22), we also have

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{\alpha a, b}=D_{a \alpha, b}=\lambda C_{\alpha} \delta_{a b}, \quad D_{a \alpha, \beta}=D_{\alpha a, \beta}=\lambda C_{a} \delta_{\alpha \beta} \tag{3.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2.14) and (2.19), we also have

$$
\begin{align*}
\sum_{i} D_{i j, i} & =\sum_{i}\left(L_{i j, i}+\lambda B_{i j, i}\right)=\sum_{i}\left(L_{i i, j}+\lambda B_{i j, i}\right)  \tag{3.24}\\
& =\left(\sum_{i} L_{i i}\right)_{, j}+\lambda \sum_{i} B_{i j, i} \\
& =\left(\sum_{i} D_{i i}\right)_{, j}+\lambda \sum_{i} B_{i j, i}=(n-2) \lambda C_{j}
\end{align*}
$$

By (3.22), (3.23) and (3.24), we get

$$
\begin{align*}
(n-2) \lambda C_{a} & =\sum_{i} D_{i a, i}=\sum_{\alpha} D_{\alpha a, \alpha}=\left(n-1-m_{1}\right) \lambda C_{a},  \tag{3.25}\\
(n-2) \lambda C_{\alpha} & =\sum_{i} D_{i \alpha, i}=\sum_{a} D_{a \alpha, a}=m_{1} \lambda C_{\alpha} . \tag{3.26}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, we see that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(m_{1}-1\right) \lambda C_{a}=0, \quad\left(m_{1}-n+2\right) \lambda C_{\alpha}=0 \tag{3.27}
\end{equation*}
$$

If there exists one point $p$ on $M$, so that $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, then there must be some $i$ such that $C_{i} \neq 0$ at $p, 1 \leq i \leq n-1$.

If $1 \leq i \leq m_{1}$, from (3.27) and $\lambda \neq 0$, we see that $m_{1}=1$, thus, $C_{\alpha}=0$. We get that $\Phi=C_{1} \omega_{1}$ and $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$. On the other hand, from (2.10) and $C_{\alpha}=0$, $2 \leq \alpha \leq n-1$, we have

$$
0=\sum_{j} C_{\alpha, j} \omega_{j}=d C_{\alpha}+\sum_{j} C_{j} \omega_{j \alpha}=C_{1} \omega_{1 \alpha}
$$

Hence $\omega_{1 \alpha}=0$ at $p$. By (3.22) and (3.23), we see that, at this point $p$,

$$
\begin{aligned}
0 & =\left(D_{1}-D_{2}\right) \omega_{1 \alpha}=\sum_{k} D_{1 \alpha, k} \omega_{k} \\
& =D_{1 \alpha, 1} \omega_{1}+\sum_{\beta} D_{1 \alpha, \beta} \omega_{\beta}=\lambda C_{\alpha} \omega_{1}+\sum_{\beta} \lambda C_{1} \delta_{\alpha \beta} \omega_{\beta}=\lambda C_{1} \omega_{\alpha}
\end{aligned}
$$

thus, $\lambda C_{1}=0$, which is a contradiction. Therefore, we conclude that in case $(i)$, it must have $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$.
(ii) If $n \geq 4$ and $x$ has $n-1$ distinct constant para-Laguerre eigenvalues, let $D_{i}$ be the $n-1$ distinct para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$, where $1 \leq i \leq n-1$. From (2.20), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{i i, k}=0, \quad \sum_{k} D_{i j, k} \omega_{k}=\left(D_{i}-D_{j}\right) \omega_{i j}, \quad i \neq j \tag{3.28}
\end{equation*}
$$

Putting $k=i \neq j$ in (3.21) and from (3.28), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{i j, i}=\lambda C_{j}, \quad i \neq j \tag{3.29}
\end{equation*}
$$

By (2.24) and (3.13), we obtain

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{i} R_{i j i j}=\sum_{k} C_{k} R_{k j i j}=0, \quad i \neq j \tag{3.30}
\end{equation*}
$$

If there exists one point $p$ on $M$, so that $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, without loss of generality, we may assume $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$, thus from (3.30), we see that $R_{1212}=R_{1313}=\cdots=$ $R_{1 n-11 n-1}=0$ at $p$.

If $C_{2}=\cdots=C_{n-1}=0$ at $p$, from (2.10), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=\sum_{j} C_{i, j} \omega_{j}=d C_{i}+C_{1} \omega_{1 i}, \text { at } p \tag{3.31}
\end{equation*}
$$

Putting $i=2, \ldots, n-1$ in (3.31), we have $C_{1} \omega_{12}=C_{1} \omega_{13}=\cdots=C_{1} \omega_{1 n-1}=0$ at $p$. Thus, we see that $\omega_{12}=\omega_{13}=\cdots=\omega_{1 n-1}=0$ at $p$. By (3.28), we have $D_{12, k}=D_{13, k}=\cdots=D_{1 n-1, k}=0$ at $p$. Thus, from (3.29) and $D_{12}=D_{21}$, we have $\lambda C_{1}=D_{21,2}=D_{12,2}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction. This contradiction implies that there exists at least one $i, 2 \leq i \leq n-1$, so that $C_{i} \neq 0$, without loss of generality, we may assume $C_{2} \neq 0$ at $p$. Since $C_{1} \neq 0, C_{2} \neq 0$ at $p$, from (3.30) and (2.18), we get, at point $p$, that

$$
\begin{align*}
& 0=R_{1212}=-L_{1}-L_{2}=0  \tag{3.32}\\
& 0=R_{1 j 1 j}=-L_{1}-L_{j}=0, \quad 3 \leq j \leq n-1  \tag{3.33}\\
& 0=R_{2 j 2 j}=-L_{2}-L_{j}=0, \quad 3 \leq j \leq n-1 \tag{3.34}
\end{align*}
$$

From (3.32)-(3.34), we see that $L_{1}=L_{2}=L_{j}=0$ at $p$, where $3 \leq j \leq n-1$. Thus $\operatorname{tr} L=0$ at $p$ and also $\operatorname{tr}\left(L B^{2}\right)=\sum_{i} L_{i} B_{i}^{2}=0$ at $p$. From (3.3), we see that $B_{i j, k}=0$ at $p$ for all $i, j, k$. From (2.14), we have $(n-2) C_{1}=\sum_{i} B_{i 1, i}=0$, therefore $C_{1}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction. Thus, we conclude that in case (ii), it must have $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$.
(iii) If $n \geq 5$ and $x$ has three distinct constant para-Laguerre eigenvalues, let $D_{1}, D_{2}$ and $D_{3}$ be the three distinct constant para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ with multiplicities $m_{1}, m_{2}$ and $m_{3}$, respectively. We agree on the following ranges of indices

$$
1 \leq a, b \leq m_{1}, \quad m_{1}+1 \leq s, t \leq m_{1}+m_{2}, \quad m_{1}+m_{2}+1 \leq \alpha, \beta \leq n-1
$$

From (2.20), we have

$$
\begin{gather*}
D_{i i, j}=D_{a b, j}=D_{s t, j}=D_{\alpha \beta, j}=0  \tag{3.35}\\
\sum_{k} D_{i j, k} \omega_{k}=\left(D_{i}-D_{j}\right) \omega_{i j}, \quad i \neq j \tag{3.36}
\end{gather*}
$$

From (3.21) and (3.35), we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& D_{i j, j}=D_{j i, j}=\lambda C_{i}, \quad i \neq j  \tag{3.37}\\
& 0=D_{a a, b}-D_{a b, a}=\lambda C_{a} \delta_{a b}-\lambda C_{b} \delta_{a a}=-\lambda C_{b}, \quad a \neq b  \tag{3.38}\\
& 0=D_{s s, t}-D_{s t, s}=\lambda C_{s} \delta_{s t}-\lambda C_{t} \delta_{s s}=-\lambda C_{t}, \quad s \neq t  \tag{3.39}\\
& 0=D_{\alpha \alpha, \beta}-D_{\alpha \beta, \alpha}=\lambda C_{\alpha} \delta_{\alpha \beta}-\lambda C_{\beta} \delta_{\alpha \alpha}=-\lambda C_{\beta}, \quad \alpha \neq \beta \tag{3.40}
\end{align*}
$$

If there exists one point $p$ on $M$, so that $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, we shall prove that $m_{1}=$ $m_{2}=1$ and $m_{3}=n-2$. In fact, if $2 \leq m_{1} \leq m_{2} \leq m_{3}$, from (3.38)-(3.40) and $\lambda \neq 0$, we see that $C_{i}=0$ for all $i$ and therefore $\boldsymbol{\Phi}=0$, which is a contradiction.

If $m_{1}=1$ and $2 \leq m_{2} \leq m_{3}$, then $C_{s}=C_{\alpha}=0$ for all $s, \alpha$ and therefore $\boldsymbol{\Phi}=C_{1} \omega_{1}$. Since it is assumed $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, we get $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$. On the other hand, from (2.10) and $C_{s}=C_{\alpha}=0$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=\sum_{j} C_{i, j} \omega_{j}=d C_{i}+C_{1} \omega_{1 i} \tag{3.41}
\end{equation*}
$$

Putting $i=s$ and $i=\alpha$ in (3.41), we have $C_{1} \omega_{1 s}=C_{1} \omega_{1 \alpha}=0$, which implies that $\omega_{1 s}=\omega_{1 \alpha}=0$ at $p$. From (3.36), we see that $D_{1 s, s}=D_{1 \alpha, \alpha}=0$ at $p$. Thus, by (3.37) and $\lambda \neq 0$, we get $C_{1}=0$ at $p$, which also is a contradiction. Thus, we conclude that if $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, then $m_{1}=m_{2}=1$ and $m_{3}=n-2$. Therefore, $3 \leq \alpha \leq n-1$, from (3.40), we have $C_{\alpha}=0$. Since it is assumed $\Phi \neq 0$ at point $p$, without loss of generality, we may assume $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$. If $C_{2}=0$ at $p$, from (2.10) and $C_{\alpha}=0$, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=\sum_{j} C_{i, j} \omega_{j}=d C_{i}+C_{1} \omega_{1 i}, \text { at } p \tag{3.42}
\end{equation*}
$$

By a similar method as above, we see that $\omega_{12}=\omega_{1 \alpha}=0$ and $D_{12,2}=D_{1 \alpha, \alpha}=0$ at $p$. From (3.37) and $\lambda \neq 0$, we get $C_{1}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction. Thus, we infer that $C_{2} \neq 0$ at $p$. From (2.24) and (3.13), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{i} R_{i j i j}=\sum_{k} C_{k} R_{k j i j}=0, i \neq j . \tag{3.43}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.18), (3.43), $C_{1} \neq 0$ and $C_{2} \neq 0$ at $p$, we see that at point $p$

$$
\begin{align*}
& 0=R_{1212}=-L_{1}-L_{2}=0  \tag{3.44}\\
& 0=R_{1 \alpha 1 \alpha}=-L_{1}-L_{\alpha}=0, \quad 3 \leq \alpha \leq n-1  \tag{3.45}\\
& 0=R_{2 \beta 2 \beta}=-L_{2}-L_{\beta}=0, \quad 3 \leq \beta \leq n-1 \tag{3.46}
\end{align*}
$$

Hence, we have $L_{1}=L_{2}=L_{\alpha}=0$ at $p$, where $3 \leq \alpha \leq n-1$. This implies that $\operatorname{tr} L=0$ at $p$ and also $\operatorname{tr}\left(L B^{2}\right)=\sum_{i} L_{i} B_{i}^{2}=0$ at $p$. From (3.3), we see that $B_{i j, k}=0$
at $p$ for all $i, j, k$. From (2.14), we have $C_{1}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction. Thus, we conclude that in case (iii), it must have $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$.
(iv) If $n \geq 6$ and $x$ has $\gamma(4 \leq \gamma \leq n-2)$ distinct constant para-Laguerre eigenvalues, let $D_{1}, D_{2}, \ldots, D_{\gamma}$ be the $\gamma$ distinct constant para-Laguerre eigenvalues of $x$ with multiplicities $m_{1}, m_{2}, \ldots, m_{\gamma}$ and $m_{1} \leq m_{2} \leq \cdots \leq m_{\gamma}$, respectively. From (2.20), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
D_{i i, j}=0, \quad \sum_{k} D_{i j, k} \omega_{k}=\left(D_{i}-D_{j}\right) \omega_{i j}, \quad i \neq j \tag{3.47}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (3.21) and (3.47), we have

$$
\begin{align*}
& D_{i j, j}=D_{j i, j}=\lambda C_{i}, \quad i \neq j  \tag{3.48}\\
& 0=D_{i i, k}-D_{i k, i}=\lambda C_{i} \delta_{i k}-\lambda C_{k} \delta_{i i}=-\lambda C_{k}, \quad i \neq k \tag{3.49}
\end{align*}
$$

If there exists one point $p$ on $M$, so that $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, we shall prove that $m_{1}=$ $m_{2}=1$. In fact, if $2 \leq m_{1} \leq m_{2} \leq \cdots \leq m_{\gamma}$, from (3.49) and $\lambda \neq 0$, we see that $C_{i}=0$ for all $i$ and therefore $\boldsymbol{\Phi}=0$, which is a contradiction.

If $m_{1}=1$ and $2 \leq m_{2} \leq \cdots \leq m_{\gamma}$, then $C_{i}=0$ for all $2 \leq i \leq n-1$ and therefore $\boldsymbol{\Phi}=C_{1} \omega_{1}$. Since it is assumed $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at $p$, we get $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$. By the similar method in the proof of case (iii), we see that $\omega_{1 i}=0$ and $D_{1 i, i}=0$ at $p$, where $2 \leq i \leq n-1$. Thus, by (3.48) and $\lambda \neq 0$, we get $C_{1}=0$ at $p$, also a contradiction. Therefore, we conclude $m_{1}=m_{2}=1$.

Since it is assumed $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \neq 0$ at point $p$, without loss of generality, we assume $C_{1} \neq 0$ at $p$. If $C_{i}=0$ at $p$, where $2 \leq i \leq n-1$, from (2.10), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
0=\sum_{j} C_{i, j} \omega_{j}=d C_{i}+C_{1} \omega_{1 i}, \text { at } p \tag{3.50}
\end{equation*}
$$

By the similar method in the proof of case (iii), we see that $\omega_{1 i}=0$ and $D_{1 i, i}=0$ at $p$. Thus, from (3.48), we get $C_{1}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction. This implies that at least one of $C_{i}$ is not zero at $p$, where $2 \leq i \leq n-1$, without loss of generality, we may assume $C_{2} \neq 0$ at $p$. From (2.24) and (3.13), we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
C_{i} R_{i j i j}=\sum_{k} C_{k} R_{k j i j}=0, i \neq j \tag{3.51}
\end{equation*}
$$

From (2.18), (3.51), $C_{1} \neq 0$ and $C_{2} \neq 0$ at $p$, we see that at point $p$

$$
\begin{align*}
& 0=R_{1212}=-L_{1}-L_{2}=0  \tag{3.52}\\
& 0=R_{1 i 1 i}=-L_{1}-L_{i}=0, \quad 3 \leq i \leq n-1  \tag{3.53}\\
& 0=R_{2 j 2 j}=-L_{2}-L_{j}=0, \quad 3 \leq j \leq n-1 \tag{3.54}
\end{align*}
$$

Thus, we have $L_{1}=L_{2}=L_{i}=0$ at $p$, where $3 \leq i \leq n-1$. This implies that $\operatorname{tr} L=0$ at $p$ and also $\operatorname{tr}\left(L B^{2}\right)=0$ at $p$. From (3.3), we see that $B_{i j, k}=0$ at $p$ for all $i, j, k$. From (2.14), we have $C_{1}=0$ at $p$, which is a contradiction. Thus, we conclude that in case (iv), it must have $\boldsymbol{\Phi} \equiv 0$. This completes the proof of Theorem 1.3.

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