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Common fixed point theorem with w-distance M. Boujary¹

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Abstract

In this paper, we prove the existence of common fixed point for mappings defined on complete metric spaces with w-distance p satisfying a general contractive inequality of type integral.

Keywords: Common fixed point, w-distance.

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1 Introduction and Preliminaries

Jungck initiated a study of common fixed points of commuting maps. He proved the following common fixed point theorem in [3].

Theorem 1.1 A continuous self map of a complete metric space (X,d) has a fixed point iff there exist $c \in (0,1)$ and a mapping $g: X \to X$ which commute with f and satisfies $:g(X) \subset f(X)$ and $d(g(x), g(y)) \leq cd(f(x), f(y))$ for all x, y in X. In fact, fand g have a unique common fixed point.

Than , he obtained the Banach contraction principle as a consequence of it. Further, Jungck [4] made generalization of commuting maps by introducing the notion of compatible mappings.

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In other hand, Kada and et al in [5] for first time introduced definition of w-distance and then give some Lemmas which are connected with w-distance.

Definition 1.2 Let X be a metric space with metric d. Then a function $p: X \times X \longrightarrow [0, \infty)$ is called w-distance on X if the following satisfy:

(1) $p(x,z) \le p(x,y) + p(y,z)$ for any $x, y, z \in X$.

(2) p(x, .) is lower semi-continuous , i.e. if $x \in X$ and $y_n \to y$ on X then $p(x, y) \leq \liminf_n p(x, y_n)$.

(3) For any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that $p(z, x) \leq \delta$ and $p(z, y) \leq \delta$ imply $d(x, y) \leq \epsilon$.

For example the metric d is w-distance in every metric space (X, d).

Example 1.3 Let X be a normed linear space with norm $\| \cdot \|$. Then a function $p: X \times X \to [0, \infty)$ defined by

$$p(x,y) = \parallel y \parallel \qquad for every \qquad x, y \in X$$

is a w-distance on X.

Lemma 1.4 (See [5]) Let (X, d) be a metric space and p be a w-distance on X. If $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence in X such that $\lim_n p(x_n, x) = \lim_n p(x_n, y) = 0$ then x = y. In particular, if p(z, x) = p(z, y) = 0 then x = y.

Lemma 1.5 (See [5]) Let p be a w-distance on metric space (X,d) and $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X such that for each $\varepsilon > 0$, there exist $n \in N$ such that m > n > N implies $p(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$, then $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

Also, Branciari in [1] established a fixed point result for an integral-type inequality, that is generalization Banach's contraction principle. Baraciari in [1] proved the following fixed point theorem.

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Theorem 1.6 Let (X,d) be a complete metric space, $c \in]0,1[$, and let $f: X \to X$ a mapping such that for each $x, y \in X$,

$$\int_0^{d(f(x), f(y))} \varphi(t) dt \le c \int_0^{d(x, y)} \varphi(t) dt.$$

where $\varphi : \mathbb{R}^+ \to \mathbb{R}^+$ is a Lebesgue-integrable mapping which is summable on each compact subset of \mathbb{R}^+ , nonnegative, and for each $\epsilon > 0$,

$$\int_0^\epsilon \varphi(t) dt > 0.$$

then f has a unique fixed point $a \in X$ such that $\lim_{n\to\infty} f^n(x) = a$, for each $x \in X$.

In this paper, we prove a common fixed point theorem which generalizations of results in [1] and [3] by w- distance. First, we prove main theorem. Then, we discuss the relation between it and Branciari's Theorem and Jungck's common fixed point Theorem .

2 Main Results

Let N represent the set of natural numbers , R the set of real numbers , and R^+ the set of nonnegative real numbers.

The proof of the following theorem is based on an argument similar to the one used by Baraciari[1]

Theorem 2.1 Let (X,d) be a complete metric space, let p be a w-distance on Xand let $f: X \to X$ a mapping. Then f has a fixed point in X iff there exists $c \in]0,1[$ and mapping $g: X \to X$ which commutes with f such that $g(X) \subset f(X)$ and for each $x, y \in X$, satisfies

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$$\int_{0}^{p(g(x),g(y))} \varphi(t)dt \le c \int_{0}^{p(f(x),f(y))} \varphi(t)dt.$$
(1)

where $\varphi : R^+ \to R^+$ is a Lebesgue-integrable mapping which is summable on each compact subset of R^+ , nonnegative, and for each $\epsilon > 0$, $\int_0^{\epsilon} \varphi(t) dt > 0$. Indeed, f and g have a unique common fixed point if (1) holds.

Proof. Suppose that f(a) = a for some $a \in X$. Define $g: X \to X$ by g(x) = a for $x \in X$. Then g(f(x)) = a and f(g(x)) = f(a) = a, so g(f(x)) = f(g(x)) for all $x \in X$ and g commutes with f. Moreover, g(x) = a = f(a) for all $x \in X$ so that $g(X) \subset f(X)$. Also (1) is holds.

On the other hand, suppose there is a mapping $g: X \to X$ which commutes with f and for which (1) holds. We will show, this condition is sufficient to ensure that f and ghave a unique common fixed point. Let $x_0 \in X$ and let x_1 be such that $f(x_1) = g(x_0)$. In general, choose x_n so that

$$f(x_n) = g(x_{n-1}).$$
 (2)

This is true because $g(X) \subset f(X)$. By (1) and (2.3), we have

$$\int_0^{p(f(x_n), f(x_{n+1}))} \varphi(t) dt \varphi(t) dt \le \dots \le c^{n-1} \int_0^{p(f(x_0), f(x_1))} \varphi(t) dt.$$
(3)

Then we have

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} \int_0^{p(f(x_n), f(x_{n+1}))} \varphi(t) dt = 0 \tag{4}$$

which (1) implies that

$$\lim_{n \to \infty} p(f(x_n), f(x_{n+1})) = 0 \tag{5}$$

Now, we show that $\{f(x_n)\}$ is Cauchy. Suppose that $\{x_n\}$ is not p- Cauchy , that is ,

$$\exists \epsilon > 0, \forall N_0, \exists m_{\epsilon}, n_{\epsilon} \in N \ (m_{\epsilon} > n_{\epsilon} > N_0, \ p(f(x_m), f(x_n)) \ge \epsilon.)$$

We choose the sequences $\{m_k\}_{k\in \mathbb{N}}, \{n_k\}_{k\in \mathbb{N}}$ such that for $k\in \mathbb{N}, m_k$ is minimal in the sense that $p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{n_k})) \ge \epsilon$, but $p(f(x_i), f(x_{n_k})) < \epsilon$ for each $i \in \{n_k+1, \cdots, m_k-1\}$

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1}.We have $p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{n_k})) \longrightarrow \epsilon + \text{ as } k \longrightarrow +\infty, \text{in fact by the triangular inequality}$ and (5)

$$\epsilon \leq p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{n_k}))$$

$$\leq p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{m_k-1})) + p(f(x_{m_k-1}), f(x_{n_k}))$$

$$\leq p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{m_k-1})) + \epsilon \longrightarrow \epsilon +$$
(6)

as $k \longrightarrow \infty$. Further, there exists $\mu \in N$ such that for each natural number $k > \mu$, one has $p(f(x_{m_k+1}), f(x_{n_k+1})) < \epsilon$; because, if exists a subsequence $\{k_j\}_{j \in N} \subseteq N$ such that $p(f(x_{m_{k_j}+1}), f(x_{n_{k_j}+1})) \ge \epsilon$, than

$$\begin{aligned} \epsilon &\leq p(f(x_{m_{k_j}+1}), f(x_{n_{k_j}+1})) \\ &\leq p(f(x_{m_{k_j}+1}), f(x_{m_{k_j}})) + p(f(x_{m_{k_j}}), f(x_{n_{k_j}})) \\ &+ p(f(x_{n_{k_j}}), f(x_{n_{k_j}+1})) \longrightarrow \epsilon \end{aligned} (7)$$

as $j \longrightarrow \infty$. We have from (1),

$$\int_{0}^{p(f(x_{m_{k_{j}}}+1),f(x_{n_{k_{j}}}+1))} \varphi(t)dt \le c \int_{0}^{p(f(x_{m_{k_{j}}}),f(x_{n_{k_{j}}}))} \varphi(t)dt.$$
(8)

letting now $j \to \infty$ in both sides of (8), we have $\int_0^{\epsilon} \varphi(t) dt \leq c \int_0^{\epsilon} \varphi(t) dt$ which is a contradiction being $c \in]0,1[$ and the integral being positive . Therefore for a certain $\mu \in N$ one has $p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{n_k})) < \epsilon$ for all $k > \mu$. Finally , we prove the stronger property that there that there exist a $h_{\epsilon} \in]0, \epsilon[$ and a N_{ϵ} such that for each $k > N_{\epsilon}$ we have $p(f(x_{m_k+1}), f(x_{n_k+1})) < \epsilon - h_{\epsilon}$; suppose the existence of a subsequence $\{k_j\}_{j \in N} \subseteq N$ such that $p(f(x_{m_{k_j}+1}), f(x_{n_{k_j}+1})) \longrightarrow \epsilon$ as letting now $j \longrightarrow \infty$, then from

$$\int_{0}^{p(f(x_{m_{k_{j}}}+1),f(x_{n_{k_{j}}}+1))} \varphi(t)dt \le c \int_{0}^{p(f(x_{m_{k_{j}}}),f(x_{n_{k_{j}}}))} \varphi(t)dt.$$
(9)

Again, letting $j \to \infty$ in both sides of (9), we have the contradiction that $\int_0^{\epsilon} \varphi(t) dt \leq c \int_0^{\epsilon} \varphi(t) dt$. In conclusion , we can prove the Caushy character of $\{f(x_n)\}$. For each $k > N_{\epsilon}$ (N_{ϵ} as above)

$$\epsilon \leq p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{n_k})) \leq p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{m_k+1})) + p(f(x_{m_k+1}), f(x_{n_k+1})) + p(f(x_{n_k+1}), f(x_{n_k})) \leq p(f(x_{m_k}), f(x_{m_k+1})) + (\epsilon - h_{\epsilon}) + p(f(x_{n_k+1}), f(x_{n_k+1})) \longrightarrow \epsilon - h_{\epsilon}$$
(10)

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thus $\epsilon \leq \epsilon - h_{\epsilon}$ which is a contradiction .This proves that $\{f(x_n)\}$ is *p*-Cauchy ,so Lemma 1.5 imply that it is Cauchy. Since (X, d) is a complete metric space, there exists a point $a \in X$ such that $a = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n) = \lim_{n \to \infty} g(x_{n-1})$. For each $\epsilon > 0$ there exist $N_{\epsilon} \in N$ such that $n > N_{\epsilon}$ implies $p(f(x_{N_{\epsilon}}), f(x_n)) < \epsilon$, but $a = \lim_{n \to \infty} f(x_n)$ and p(x, .) is lower semi continuous thus

$$p(f(x_{N_{\epsilon}}), a) \le \liminf_{n \to \infty} p(f(x_{N_{\epsilon}}), f(x_n)) \le \epsilon$$

there for $p(f(x_{N_{\epsilon}}), a) < \epsilon$, we put $\epsilon = 1/k, N_{\epsilon} = n_k$ and we have

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} p(f(x_{n_k}), a) = 0.$$
(11)

In other hand, suppose $p(f(x_{n_k}), f(a))$ does not to 0 as $k \to \infty$, then there exist a subsequence $\{x_{n_{k_j+1}}\} \subseteq \{x_k+1\}$ such that $p(f(x_{n_{k_j+1}}), f(a)) \ge \epsilon$ for a certain $\epsilon > 0$; thus we have the following contradiction

$$0 < \int_0^\epsilon \varphi(t) dt \le \int_0^{p(f(x_{n_{k_j}+1}), f(a))} \varphi(t) dt \le c \int_0^{p(f(x_{n_{k_j}}), a)} \varphi(t) dt \longrightarrow 0$$

as $j \to \infty$. Thus $\lim_{k\to\infty} p(f(x_{n_k}), f(a)) = 0$, but we have

$$p(f(x_{n_k}), f(a) \le p(f(x_{n_k}), f(x_{n_k+1})) + p(f(x_{n_k+1}, f(a)))$$

thus

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} p(f(x_{n_k}), f(a)) = 0.$$
(12)

Now (11), (12) and Lemma 1.4 implies f(a) = a. In this way, we have g(a) = a.

Thus a is a common fixed point of f and g. Also, (1) implies that f and g can have only one common fixed point. Suppose there are two distinct fixed points $a, b \in X$ such that f(a) = a and f(b) = b, then by (1) we have the following contradiction

$$0 < \int_0^{p(a,b)} \varphi(t) dt = \int_0^{p(g(a),g(b))} \varphi(t) dt \le c \int_0^{p(f(a),f(b))} \varphi(t) dt = c \int_0^{p(a,b)} \varphi(t) dt.$$

Then p(a, b) = 0. In this way, we have p(b, a) = 0, so a = b.

 \diamond

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Corollary 2.2 Theorem (2.1) is a generalization Theorem (1.6), let be p = d and f(x) = x.

But the converse (2.2) is not true that show its the following example.

Example 2.3 Let be $X = \{\frac{1}{n} | n \in N\} \bigcup \{0\}$, let be for each $x, y \in X$, d(x, y) = x + yif $x \neq y$, and d(x, y) = 0 if x = y. (X, d) is a complete metric space. Also, we define w-distance p(x, y) = y on (X, d). Since for every $x, y \in X(y \neq 0), p(x, y) = y = d(0, y)$ thus every Branciari contraction map f is w-Branciari contraction, that is,

$$\int_{0}^{p(f(x),f(y))} \varphi(t)dt \le c \int_{0}^{p(x,y)} \varphi(t)dt \quad for \, every \quad x,y \in X$$

but its inverse is not true. Let $g(x) = \frac{1}{2}x$, f(x) = x are maps on X and let be $\varphi(t) = 1$, if $0 \le t \le \frac{1}{2}$, $\varphi(t) = 0$, if $t > \frac{1}{2}$, then g is w-Branciari contraction by $c = \frac{3}{4}$ but is not Branciari contraction since if $y = \frac{1}{n}$ then

$$\int_{0}^{p(g(x),g(y))} \varphi(t)dt = \int_{0}^{g(y)} \varphi(t)dt = \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2n}} dt = \frac{1}{2n}$$

$$\leq \frac{3}{n4} = \frac{3}{4} \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{n}} \varphi(t)dt = \int_{0}^{p(x,y)} \varphi(t)dt.$$
(13)

But for $n\neq 1$, then

$$\int_{0}^{d(g(\frac{1}{n}),g(1))} \varphi(t)dt = \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{2n}+\frac{1}{2}} \varphi(t)dt = \frac{1}{2} > \\ \frac{3}{8} = \frac{3}{4} \int_{0}^{\frac{1}{n}+1} \varphi(t)dt = \int_{0}^{d(\frac{1}{n},1)} \varphi(t)dt.$$
(14)

Corollary 2.4 Theorem (2.1) is a generalization Theorem (1.1), let be p = d and let be $\varphi(t) = 1$.

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