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ĆIRIĆ TYPE FIXED POINT THEOREMS UNDER c -DISTANCE ON NON-NORMAL CONE METRIC SPACES OVER BANACH ALGEBRAS

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Abstract. In this paper, we obtain Ćirić type fixed point theorems for continuous or non-continuous mappings under c -distance on mapping-orbitally complete cone metric spaces over Banach algebras without normalities.

Keywords: Ćirić type fixed point; c -distance; cone metric space over Banach algebra; mapping-orbitally complete.

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1. INTRODUCTION AND PRELIMINARIES

Ćirić^[1] introduced and studied the following quasicontraction as one of the most general classes of contractive type mappings:

Let (X, d) is a complete space. $f : X \rightarrow X$ is said to be a quasicontraction if, for some $k \in (0, 1)$ and for all $x, y \in X$, one has

$$d(fx, fy) \leq k \max\{d(x, y), d(x, fx), d(y, fy), d(x, fy), d(fx, y)\}.$$

He proved that any quasicontraction f has a unique fixed point on a complete metric space (X, d) . Recently, many researchers discussed and obtained various similar results on metric

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spaces, cone metric spaces and cone metric spaces over Banach algebras, for details, see [2-12]. These conclusions goodly generalize and improve Ćirić's fixed point theorem.

On the other hand, some authors discussed (common) fixed point problems under c -distance on cone metric spaces, see [13-19] and others. Especially, Huang et al^[20] and Huang et al^[21] discussed and obtained fixed point theorems for mappings under c -distance on cone metric space over Banach algebras without normalities.

In this paper, we will discuss and obtain Ćirić type fixed point problems for continuous or non-continuous mappings under c -distance on mapping-orbitally complete cone metric spaces over Banach algebras without normalities.

Now, we give some known definitions and lemmas:

Let \mathcal{A} always be a Banach algebra, that is, \mathcal{A} is a real Banach space in which an operation of multiplication is defined, subject to the following properties(for all $x, y, z \in \mathcal{A}$, $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$):

1. $(xy)z = x(yz)$;
2. $x(y+z) = xy+xz$ and $(x+y)z = xz+yz$;
3. $\alpha(xy) = (\alpha x)y = x(\alpha y)$;
4. $\| xy \| \leq \| x \| \| y \|$.

In this paper, we shall assume that a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} has a unit (i.e., a multiplicative identity) e such that $ex = xe = x$ for all $x \in \mathcal{A}$. an element $x \in \mathcal{A}$ is said to be invertible if there is an inverse element $y \in \mathcal{A}$ such that $xy = yx = e$. The inverse of x denoted by x^{-1} . For more detail, we refer to [22-24].

A subset P of a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} is called a cone if

1. P is nonempty closed and $\{0, e\} \subset P$;
2. $\alpha P + \beta P \subset P$ for all non-negative real numbers α, β ;
3. $P^2 = PP \subset P$;
4. $P \cap (-P) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$.

Where $\mathbf{0}$ denotes the null of the Banach algebra \mathcal{A} .

For a given cone $P \subset \mathcal{A}$, we can define a partial ordering \leq with respect to P by $x \leq y$ if and only if $y - x \in P$. $x < y$ stand for $x \leq y$ and $x \neq y$. While $x \ll y$ sill stand for $y - x \in \text{int}P$, where $\text{int}P$ denotes the interior of P . A cone P is called solid if $\text{int}P \neq \emptyset$.

The cone P is called normal if there is a number $M > 0$ such that for all $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$.

$$0 \leq x \leq y \implies \|x\| \leq M \|y\|.$$

The least positive number satisfying the above is called the normal constant of P .

Here, we always assume that P is a solid and \leq is the partial ordering with respect to P .

Definition 1.1. [20, 21] Let X be a non-empty set. Suppose that the mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ satisfies

1. $0 \leq d(x, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$ and $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$;
2. $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ for all $x, y \in X$;
3. $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$ for all $x, y, z \in X$.

Then d is called a cone metric on X and (X, d) is called a cone metric space (over a Banach algebra \mathcal{A}).

Remark 1.1. If $\mathcal{A} = E$ is a Banach space in Definition 1.1, then (X, d) is called a cone metric space.

Definition 1.2. [21] Let (X, d) be a cone metric space over a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} , $x \in X$ and $\{x_n\}$ a sequence in X . Then:

1. $\{x_n\}$ converges to x whenever for each $c \in \mathcal{A}$ with $0 \ll c$ there is a natural number N such that $d(x_n, x) \ll c$ for all $n \geq N$. We denote this by $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$ or $x_n \rightarrow x$.
2. $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy sequence whenever for each $c \in \mathcal{A}$ with $0 \ll c$ there is a natural number N such that $d(x_n, x_m) \ll c$ for all $n, m \geq N$.
3. (X, d) is a complete cone metric space if every Cauchy sequence is convergent.

Definition 1.3. [17, 18, 22] Let P is a solid cone in a Banach space \mathcal{A} . A sequence $\{u_n\} \subset \mathcal{A}$ is a c -sequence if for each $c \gg 0$ there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $u_n \ll c$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

Definition 1.4. [20, 21] Let (X, d) be a cone metric space over a Banach algebra. A function $q : X \times X \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$ is called a c -distance on X . If

- (q₁) $\theta \leq q(x, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$;
- (q₂) $q(x, z) \leq q(x, y) + q(y, z)$ for all $x, y, z \in X$;
- (q₃) If a sequence $\{y_n\}$ in X converges to a point $y \in X$, and for any $x \in X$, there exists $u = u_x \in P$ such that $q(x, y_n) \leq u$ holds for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $q(x, y) \leq u$;

(q_4) For each $c \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\theta \ll c$, there exists $e \in \mathcal{A}$ with $\theta \ll e$, such that $q(z, x) \ll e$ and $q(z, y) \ll e$ implies $d(x, y) \ll c$.

Remark 1.2. [13, 15] Generally, $q(x, y) \neq (y, x)$ for $x, y \in X$, and $q(x, y) = 0$ is not necessarily equivalent to $x = y$.

Definition 1.5. [12] Let (X, d) be a cone metric space over a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} , $T : X \rightarrow X$ a mapping. For any $x \in X$ and any positive number n , let

$$O_T(x, n) = \{x, Tx, T^2x, \dots, T^n x\}, O_T(x, +\infty) = \{x, Tx, T^2x, \dots\}.$$

The set $O_T(x, +\infty)$ is called the T -orbit at x . (X, d) is said to be T -orbitally complete if, every Cauchy sequence in $O_T(x, +\infty)$ is convergent for every $x \in X$.

Lemma 1.1. [22] Let \mathcal{A} be a Banach algebra with a unit e , and $x \in \mathcal{A}$. If the spectral radius $r(x)$ of x is less than 1, i.e.,

$$r(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} = \inf_{n \rightarrow \infty} \|x^n\|^{\frac{1}{n}} < 1.$$

Then $(e - x)$ is invertible. Actually,

$$(e - x)^{-1} = \sum_{i=0}^{+\infty} x^i.$$

Lemma 1.2. [22] Let P is a solid cone in a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} and $\{u_n\}$ and $\{v_n\}$ be two c -sequences in \mathcal{A} . If $k, l \in P$ are two arbitrarily given vectors, then $\{ku_n + lv_n\}$ is a c -sequence in \mathcal{A} .

Lemma 1.3. [22] Let P be a solid cone in Banach algebra \mathcal{A} and $u, v, w \in \mathcal{A}$. If $u \leq v \ll w$, then $u \ll w$.

Lemma 1.4. [11] Let P be a solid cone in a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} and $a, k \in P$ with $r(k) < 1$. If $a \leq ka$, then $a = 0$.

Lemma 1.5. [12] If E is a real Banach space with a solid cone P and if $\|x_n\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, then for any $0 \ll c$, there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_n \ll c$ for all $n > N$.

Lemma 1.6. [23] If \mathcal{A} is a Banach algebra and $k \in \mathcal{A}$ with $r(k) < 1$, then $\|k^n\| \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Lemma 1.7. [23] Let A be a Banach algebra and $x, y \in \mathcal{A}$. If x and y commute, then the following hold:

$$(i) r(xy) \leq r(x)r(y);$$

- (ii) $r(x + y) \leq r(x) + r(y)$;
- (iii) $|r(x) - r(y)| \leq r(x - y)$.

Lemma 1.8. [24] Let (X, d) be a cone metric space over a Banach algebra \mathcal{A} , $\{x_n\} \subset X$ a sequence. If $\{x_n\}$ is convergent, then the limits of $\{x_n\}$ is unique.

Lemma 1.9. [21]. Let (X, d) be a cone metric space over Banach algebra \mathcal{A} , q a c -distance on X . Suppose that $\{x_n\}$ is a sequences in X and $y, z \in X$. If $\{u_n\}$ and $\{v_n\}$ are two c -sequences in P , then the following properties hold:

- (1) If $q(x_n, y) \leq u_n$ and $q(x_n, z) \leq v_n, \forall n \in \mathbb{N}$, then $y = z$. In particular, if $q(x, y) = 0$ and $q(x, z) = 0$, then $y = z$.
- (2) If $q(x_n, x_m) \leq u_n$ for all $m > n > n_0$, then $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in X .

2. ĆIRIĆ TYPE FIXED POINT THEOREMS UNDER c -DISTANCE

Theorem 2.1. Let (X, d) be a cone metric space over a Banach algebra, q be a c -distance on X , $f : X \rightarrow X$ be continuous on (X, d) , $k \in P$ with $r(k) < 1$. Suppose that for each $x, y \in X$,

$$q(fx, fy) \leq kv(x, y), \quad (2.1)$$

where

$$v(x, y) \in \{q(x, y), q(x, fx), q(y, fy), q(x, fy)\}. \quad (2.2)$$

If X is f -orbitally complete, then f has a unique fixed point $x^* \in X$ and $q(x^*, x^*) = 0$.

Proof. For any $x \in X$, Let $x_n = f^n x$ for all $n = 1, 2, \dots$, then $x_n = fx_{n-1}$ for all $n = 1, 2, \dots$ (Here, set $x_0 = x$).

First, we will prove that for each $n \geq 2$ and for all i, j such that $1 \leq i < j \leq n$, one has

$$q(x_i, x_j) \leq k(1 - k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1). \quad (2.3)$$

If $n = 2$, then $i = 1, j = 2$. Hence

$$q(x_1, x_2) = q(fx_0, fx_1) \leq kv(x_0, x_1),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned}
& v(x_0, x_1) \\
& \in \{q(x_0, x_1), q(x_0, fx_0), q(x_1, fx_1), q(x_0, fx_1)\} \\
& = \{q(x_0, x_1), q(x_1, x_2), q(x_0, x_2)\}.
\end{aligned} \tag{2.4}$$

If $v(x_0, x_1) = q(x_0, x_1)$, then

$$q(x_1, x_2) \leq kq(x_0, x_1) \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1).$$

If $v(x_0, x_1) = q(x_1, x_2)$, then

$$q(x_1, x_2) \leq kq(x_1, x_2) \implies (e-k)q(x_1, x_2) \leq 0,$$

therefore

$$q(x_1, x_2) = 0 \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1).$$

If $v(x_0, x_1) = q(x_0, x_2)$, then

$$q(x_1, x_2) \leq kq(x_0, x_2) \leq k[q(x_0, x_1) + q(x_1, x_2)],$$

hence

$$q(x_1, x_2) \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1).$$

Based on the above discussions, (2.3) is set up for $n = 2$.

Assume that (2.3) is true for $n = m > 2$, that is,

$$q(x_i, x_j) \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1), \quad 1 \leq i < j \leq m. \tag{2.5}$$

Now, we will prove that (2.3) also holds for $n = m + 1$. If $1 \leq i < j \leq m$, then (2.3) holds by the assumption (i.e., by (2.5)). Thus, without loss of generality, we assume that $j = m + 1$ and $1 \leq i \leq m$. Denote $i = i_0$. By (2.1),

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) = q(fx_{i_0-1}, fx_m) \leq kv(x_{i_0-1}, x_m), \tag{2.6}$$

where

$$v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) \in \{q(x_{i_0-1}, x_m), q(x_{i_0-1}, x_{i_0}), q(x_m, x_{m+1}), q(x_{i_0-1}, x_{m+1})\}. \tag{2.7}$$

Firstly, we consider that $i_0 = 1$.

If $v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) = d(x_0, x_m)$, then

$$\begin{aligned}
& q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \\
& \leq k q(x_0, x_m) \\
& \leq k [q(x_0, x_1) + q(x_1, x_m)] \\
& \leq k [q(x_0, x_1) + k(e-k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1)] \\
& = k(e-k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1),
\end{aligned} \tag{2.8}$$

and the statement follows.

If $v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) = q(x_0, x_1)$, then

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k q(x_0, x_1) \leq k(e-k)^{-1} d(x_0, x_1), \tag{2.9}$$

and the statement also holds.

If $v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) = q(x_m, x_{m+1})$, then we let $i_1 = m$ and we have

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k q(x_{i_1}, x_{m+1}). \tag{2.10}$$

If $v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) = q(x_0, x_{m+1})$, then

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k q(x_0, x_{m+1}) \leq k [d(x_0, x_1) + d(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1})],$$

which implies that

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k(e-k)^{-1} d(x_0, x_1), \tag{2.11}$$

and the statement also holds.

Secondly, we consider that $2 \leq i_0 \leq m$.

If $v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) = q(x_{i_0-1}, x_m)$ or $v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) = q(x_{i_0-1}, x_{i_0})$, then by the assumption,

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) \leq k^2(e-k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1) \leq k(e-k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1), \tag{2.12}$$

and the statement follows.

If $v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) = q(x_m, x_{m+1})$ or $v(x_{i_0-1}, x_m) = q(x_{i_0-1}, x_{m+1})$, then we let $i_1 = m$ or $i_1 = i_0 - 1 \geq 1$, respectively, hence

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k v(x_{i_0-1}, x_{m+1}) = k q(x_{i_1}, x_{m+1}). \tag{2.13}$$

In conclusion from discussion of both cases, it results that either the proof is complete, that is

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1), \quad (2.14),$$

or there exists an integer i_1 such that

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq kd(x_{i_1}, x_{m+1}), \quad 1 \leq i_1 \leq m. \quad (2.15)$$

As for the latter situation, we continue in a similar way, and come to the result that either

$$q(x_{i_1}, x_{m+1}) \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1), \quad (2.16),$$

which implies that

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq kq(x_{i_1}, x_{m+1}) \leq k^2(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1) \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1), \quad (2.17),$$

and the proof is complete, or there exists integer i_2 such that

$$q(x_{i_1}, x_{m+1}) \leq kq(x_{i_2}, x_{m+1}), \exists 1 \leq i_2 \leq m, \quad (2.18)$$

which implies that

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k^2q(x_{i_2}, x_{m+1}), \exists 1 \leq i_2 \leq m. \quad (2.19)$$

Generally, if the procedure ends by the l -th step with $l \leq m-1$, that is, there exist $l+1$ integers

$$i_0, i_1, \dots, i_l \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\} \quad (2.20)$$

such that

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq kq(x_{i_1}, x_{m+1}) \leq \dots \leq k^l q(x_{i_l}, x_{m+1}), \quad (2.21)$$

and

$$q(x_{i_l}, x_{m+1}) \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1), \quad (2.22)$$

then

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k^l q(x_{i_l}, x_{m+1}) \leq k^{l+1}(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1) \leq k(e-k)^{-1}q(x_0, x_1). \quad (2.23)$$

Hence, the proof is complete.

If the procedure continues more than m steps, then exist $(m+1)$ integers

$$i_0, i_1, \dots, i_m \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\} \quad (2.24)$$

such that

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq kq(x_{i_1}, x_{m+1}) \leq \cdots \leq k^m q(x_{i_m}, x_{m+1}), \quad (2.25)$$

From (2.24), there must exist integers p and q such that

$$0 \leq p < q \leq m, \quad i_p = i_q. \quad (2.26)$$

Hence by (2.25) and (2.26),

$$q(x_{i_p}, x_{m+1}) \leq k^{q-p} q(x_{i_q}, x_{m+1}) = k^{q-p} d(x_{i_p}, x_{m+1}), \quad (2.27)$$

which implies that

$$(e - k^{q-p})q(x_{i_p}, x_{m+1}) \leq 0.$$

Hence $d(x_{i_q}, x_{m+1}) = 0$ since $r(k^{q-p}) \leq (r(k))^{q-p} < 1$ implies that $(e - k^{q-p})$ is invertible. From (2.25) again,

$$q(x_{i_0}, x_{m+1}) \leq k^p q(x_{i_p}, x_{m+1}) = 0 \leq k(e - k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1). \quad (2.28)$$

Therefore, by induction, (2.3) holds.

For any $1 < m < n$, denote that

$$C(m, n) = \{q(x_i, x_j) | m \leq i < j \leq n\}. \quad (2.29)$$

From (2.1) and (2.2), for each $u \in C(m, n)$, there exists $v \in C(m-1, n)$ such that

$$u \leq kv. \quad (2.30)$$

Consequently, using (2.3) and (2.30), we obtain that

$$q(x_m, x_n) \leq ku_1 \leq k^2 u_2 \leq k^{m-1} u_{m-1} \leq k^m (e - k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1), \quad (2.31)$$

where

$$u_1 \in C(m-1, n), u_2 \in C(m-2, n) \cdots, u_{m-1} \in C(1, n), u_{m-1} \leq k(e - k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1). \quad (2.32)$$

Since $r(k) < 1$, $k^m (e - k)^{-1} q(x_0, x_1)$ is a c -sequence by Lemma 1.2 and Lemma 1.5 - Lemma 1.6, which implies that $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence by Lemma 1.9 and (2.31). Thus there exists $x^* \in X$ such that $x_n \rightarrow x^*$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$ by the f -orbitally completeness of X .

Since $x_{n+1} = fx_n$ for all n and f is continuous about the metric d ,

$$x^* = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_{n+1} = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} fx_n = fx^*,$$

that is, x^* is a fixed point of f . By (2.1) again,

$$q(x^*, x^*) = q(fx^*, fx^*) \leq kv(x^*, x^*) = kq(x^*, x^*),$$

hence $q(x^*, x^*) = 0$ since $r(k) < 1$ implies that $(e - k)$ is invertible.

If y^* is also a fixed point of f , then $fy^* = y^*$ and $q(y^*, y^*) = 0$ by the above discussion. By (2.1) again,

$$q(x^*, y^*) = q(fx^*, fy^*) \leq kv(x^*, y^*),$$

where

$$v(x^*, y^*) \in \{q(x^*, y^*), 0\}.$$

Hence $q(x^*, y^*) = 0$ for any one of two cases, therefore $x^* = y^*$ by Lemma 1.9. So f has a unique fixed point.

Now, we once give another version of Theorem 2.1 under removing the continuity of f :

Theorem 2.2. Let (X, d) be a cone metric space over Banach algebra, q be a c -distance on X , $f : X \rightarrow X$ a mapping, $k \in P$ with $r(k) < 1$. Suppose that for each $x, y \in X$,

$$q(fx, fy) \leq ku(x, y), \tag{2.33}$$

where

$$u(x, y) \in \{q(x, y), q(x, fx), q(x, fy)\}. \tag{2.34}$$

If X is f -orbitally complete, then f has a unique fixed point $x^* \in X$ and $q(x^*, x^*) = 0$.

Proof. Repeating the proof of Theorem 2.1, we know that there exists a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X (Here, $\{x_n\}$ satisfies $x_n = fx_{n-1}$ for all $n = 1, 2, \dots$) converging to a point $x^* \in X$. For any n , by (2.33),

$$q(x_n, fx^*) = q(fx_{n-1}, fx^*) \leq ku(x_{n-1}, x^*),$$

where

$$u(x_{n-1}, x^*) \in \{q(x_{n-1}, x^*), q(x_{n-1}, x_n), q(x_{n-1}, fx^*)\}.$$

From (2.31) and Definition 1.4(q_3), we have

$$q(x_m, x^*) \leq k^m (1 - k)^{-1} d(x_0, x_1), \forall m \geq 1. \quad (2.35)$$

If $u(x_{n-1}, x^*) = q(x_{n-1}, x^*)$, then

$$q(x_n, fx^*) \leq kq(x_{n-1}, x^*). \quad (2.36)$$

If $u(x_{n-1}, x^*) = q(x_{n-1}, x_n)$, then

$$q(x_n, fx^*) \leq kq(x_{n-1}, x_n). \quad (2.37)$$

If $u(x_{n-1}, x^*) = q(x_{n-1}, fx^*)$, then

$$q(x_n, fx^*) \leq kq(x_{n-1}, fx^*) \leq k[q(x_{n-1}, x_n) + q(x_n, fx^*)],$$

hence

$$q(x_n, fx^*) \leq k(e - k)^{-1} q(x_{n-1}, x_n). \quad (2.38)$$

$\{q(x_m, x_n)\}_{n>m}$ and $\{q(x_n, x^*)\}$ are both c -sequences by (2.31) and (2.35) and Lemma 1.5–Lemma 1.6, hence the right sides of inequalities in (2.35)–(2.38) are all c -sequences. Therefore $x^* = fx^*$ by Lemma 1.9(1). The rest is similar to the proof of Theorem 2.1.

CONFLICT OF INTERESTS

The author(s) declare that there is no conflict of interests.

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