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**SOME ADVANCES IN THE THEORY OF  
QUASI-PSEUDOMETRIC TYPE SPACES**

ABSTRACT. In this paper, we extend most of the results proved in [4]. In particular, we give some topological properties of the quasi-pseudometric type spaces. Moreover, some fixed point and common fixed point theorems are obtained in the setting of quasi-pseudometric spaces, introduced some months ago by Kazeem et al in [4].

KEY WORDS: quasi-pseudometric type spaces, fixed point, left  $K$ -completeness.

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Symmetric spaces were introduced in 1931 by Wilson [6], as metric-like spaces lacking the triangle inequality. Several fixed point results in such spaces were obtained. In the same dynamics, cone metric spaces were introduced by Huang [3] and many fixed point results concerning mappings in these spaces have also been established. In [5], M. A. Khamsi connected this concept with a generalised form of metric that he named *metric type*. Namely, he observed that if  $d(x, y)$  is a cone metric, then  $D(x, y) = \|d(x, y)\|$  is symmetric with some special properties, particularly in the case when the underlying cone is normal. Recently in [4], Kazeem et al. discussed the newly introduced notion of *quasi-pseudometric type spaces* as a logical equivalent to metric type spaces when the initial distance-like function is not symmetric. Some fixed point results of mappings on such spaces were discussed as well in [4]. It is the aim of this article to continue the study of quasi-pseudometric spaces by proving several other fixed point and common fixed point results, hence extending the fixed point results of [4] to a class of mappings satisfying more general contractive conditions.

In this section, we recall briefly some elementary definitions from the asymmetric topology which are necessary for a good understanding of the work below. For recent results and detailed explanations for the concepts in the theory of asymmetric spaces, the reader is referred to [2, 4, 7, 8].

**Definition 1.** Let  $E$  be a real Banach space with norm  $\|\cdot\|$  and  $P$  be a subset of  $E$ . Then  $P$  is called a cone if and only if

- (a)  $P$  is closed, nonempty and  $P \neq \{\theta\}$ , where  $\theta$  is the zero vector in  $E$ ;
- (b) for any  $a, b \geq 0$ , and  $x, y \in P$ , we have  $ax + by \in P$ ;
- (c) for  $x \in P$ , if  $-x \in P$ , then  $x = \theta$ .

Given a cone  $P$  in a Banach space  $E$ , we define on  $E$  a partial order  $\preceq$  with respect to  $P$  by

$$x \preceq y \iff y - x \in P.$$

We also write  $x \prec y$  whenever  $x \preceq y$  and  $x \neq y$ , while  $x \ll y$  will stand for  $y - x \in \text{Int}(P)$  (where  $\text{Int}(P)$  designates the interior of  $P$ ).

The cone  $P$  is called **normal** if there is a number  $C > 0$ , such that for all  $x, y \in E$ , we have

$$\theta \preceq x \preceq y \implies \|x\| \leq C\|y\|.$$

The least positive number satisfying this inequality is called the **normal constant** of  $P$ . Therefore, we shall then say that  $P$  is a  $K$ -normal cone to indicate the fact that the normal constant is  $K$ .

**Definition 2** (Compare [4]). Let  $X$  be a nonempty set. Suppose the mapping  $q : X \times X \rightarrow E$  satisfies

- (q1)  $\theta \preceq q(x, y)$  for all  $x, y \in X$ ;
- (q2)  $q(x, y) = \theta = q(y, x)$  if and only if  $x = y$ ;
- (q3)  $q(x, z) \preceq q(x, y) + q(y, z)$  for all  $x, y, z \in X$ .

Then,  $q$  is called a **quasi-cone metric** on  $X$ , and  $(X, q)$  is called a **quasi-cone metric space**.

**Definition 3** (Compare [4]). A sequence in a quasi-cone metric space  $(X, q)$  is called

- (a)  **$Q$ -Cauchy** or **bi-Cauchy** if for every  $c \in X$  with  $c \gg \theta$ , there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\forall n, m \geq n_0 \quad q(x_n, x_m) \ll c;$$

- (b) **left(right) Cauchy** if for every  $c \in X$  with  $c \gg \theta$ , there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\forall n, m : n_0 \leq m \leq n \quad q(x_m, x_n) \ll c \quad (q(x_n, x_m) \ll c \text{ resp.}).$$

**Remark 1.** A sequence is  $Q$ -Cauchy if and only if it is both left and right Cauchy.

**Definition 4.** (a) In a quasi-cone metric space  $(X, q)$ , we say that the sequence  $(x_n)$  **left converges** to  $x \in X$  if for every  $c \in E$  with  $\theta \ll c$  there exists  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$ ,  $q(x_n, x) \ll c$ .

- (b) Similarly, in a quasi-cone metric space  $(X, q)$ , we say that a sequence  $(x_n)$  **right converges** to  $x \in X$  if for every  $c \in E$  with  $\theta \ll c$  there exists  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$ ,  $q(x, x_n) \ll c$ .
- (c) Finally, in a quasi-cone metric space  $(X, q)$ , we say that the sequence  $(x_n)$  **converges** to  $x \in X$  if for every  $c \in E$  with  $\theta \ll c$  there exists  $N$  such that for all  $n > N$ ,  $q(x_n, x) \ll c$  and  $q(x, x_n) \ll c$ .

**Definition 5.** A quasi-cone metric space  $(X, q)$  is called

- (a) **left complete** (resp. **right complete**) if every left Cauchy (resp. right Cauchy) sequence in  $X$  left (resp. right) converges.
- (b) **bicomplete** if every  $Q$ -Cauchy sequence converges.

**Remark 2.** A quasi-cone metric space  $(X, q)$  is bicomplete if and only if it is left complete and right complete.

**Definition 6.** Let  $(X, q)$  be a quasi-cone metric space. A function  $f : X \rightarrow X$  is said to be **Lipschitzian** if there exists some  $\kappa \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$q(f(x), f(y)) \preceq \kappa q(x, y) \quad \forall x, y \in X.$$

The smallest constant which satisfies the above inequality is called the **Lipschitz constant** of  $f$  and is denoted  $Lip(f)$ . In particular  $f$  is said to be **contractive** if  $Lip(f) \in [0, 1)$  and **nonexpansive** if  $Lip(f) \leq 1$ .

**Definition 7** (Compare [1]). Let  $f$  and  $g$  be self maps on a set  $X$ . If  $w = fx = gx$  for some  $x \in X$ , then  $x$  is called a **coincidence point** of  $f$  and  $g$ , and  $w$  is called the **point of coincidence** of  $f$  and  $g$ .

**Definition 8.** Let  $f$  and  $g$  be self maps on a nonempty set  $X$ . We say that  $f$  and  $g$  are **weakly compatible** if they commute at their coincidence point, that is there exists  $x_0 \in X$  such that  $fx_0 = gx_0$  then  $gfx_0 = fgx_0$ .

We also give the following proposition that we take from [1] by omitting the proof.

**Proposition 1** (Compare [1]). Let  $f$  and  $g$  be weakly compatible self maps on a set  $X$ . If  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique point of coincidence  $w = fx = gx$ , then  $w$  is the unique common fixed point of  $f$  and  $g$ .

we also have the following important characterization

**Lemma 1.** Let  $(X, q)$  be a quasi-cone metric space,  $P$  be a  $K$ -normal cone and  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in  $X$ . Then  $(x_n)$  is a bi-Cauchy sequence if and only if  $q(x_n, x_m) \rightarrow \theta$  as  $n, m \rightarrow \infty$ .

We now connect the notion of quasi-cone metric to the one of quasi-pseudo-metric type space via the following theorem.

**Theorem 1** (Compare [4] Theorem 28). *Let  $(X, q)$  be a quasi-cone metric space over the Banach space  $E$  with the  $K$ -normal cone  $P$ . The mapping  $Q : X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  defined by  $Q(x, y) = \|q(x, y)\|$  satisfies the following properties*

- (Q1)  $Q(x, x) = 0$  for any  $x \in X$ ;
- (Q2)  $Q(x, y) \leq K(Q(x, z_1) + Q(z_1, z_2) + \cdots + Q(z_n, y))$ , for any points  $x, y, z_i \in X$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

We are therefore led to the following definition.

**Definition 9** ([4]). *Let  $X$  be a non empty set, and let the function  $D : X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  satisfy the following properties:*

- (D1)  $D(x, x) = 0$  for any  $x \in X$ ;
- (D2)  $D(x, y) \leq \alpha(D(x, z_1) + D(z_1, z_2) + \cdots + D(z_n, y))$  for any points  $x, y, z_i \in X$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and some constant  $\alpha > 0$ .

*Then  $(X, D, \alpha)$  is called a quasi-pseudometric type space. Moreover, if  $D(x, y) = 0 = D(y, x) \implies x = y$ , then  $D$  is said to be a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type space. The latter condition is referred to as the  $T_0$ -condition.*

**Remark 3.** • Let  $D$  be a quasi-pseudometric type on  $X$ , then the map  $D^{-1}$  defined by  $D^{-1}(x, y) = D(y, x)$  whenever  $x, y \in X$  is also a quasi-pseudometric type on  $X$ , called the conjugate of  $D$ . We shall also denote  $D^{-1}$  by  $D^t$  or  $\bar{D}$ .

- It is easy to verify that the function  $D^s$  defined by  $D^s := D \vee D^{-1}$ , i.e.  $D^s(x, y) = \max\{D(x, y), D(y, x)\}$  defines a **metric type** (see [5]) on  $X$  whenever  $D$  is a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type.
- If we substitute the property (D1) by the following property  
(D3) :  $D(x, y) = 0 \iff x = y$ ,  
we obtain a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type space directly. For instance, this could be done if the map  $D$  is obtained from quasi-cone metric.

Moreover, for  $\alpha = 1$ , we recover the classical pseudometric, hence quasi-pseud-metric type spaces generalize quasi-pseudometrics. It is worth mentioning that if  $(X, D, \alpha)$  is a pseudometric type space, then for any  $\beta \geq \alpha$ ,  $(X, D, \beta)$  is also a pseudometric type space. We give the following example to illustrate the above comment.

**Example 1.** Let  $X = \{a, b, c\}$  and the mapping  $D : X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$  defined by  $D(a, b) = D(c, b) = 1/5$ ,  $D(b, c) = D(b, a) = D(c, a) = 1/4$ ,  $D(a, c) = 1/2$ ,  $D(x, x) = 0$  for any  $x \in X$  and  $D(x, y) = D(y, x)$  for any  $x, y \in X$ . Since

$$\frac{1}{2} = D(a, c) > D(a, b) + D(b, c) = \frac{9}{20},$$

then we conclude that  $X$  is not a quasi-pseudometric space. Nevertheless, with  $\alpha = 2$ , it is very easy to check that  $(X, D, 2)$  is a quasi-pseudometric type space.

**Definition 10** ([4]). *Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a quasi-pseudometric space. The convergence of a sequence  $(x_n)$  to  $x$  with respect to  $D$ , called  **$D$ -convergence** or **left-convergence** and denoted by  $x_n \xrightarrow{D} x$ , is defined in the following way*

$$(1) \quad x_n \xrightarrow{D} x \iff D(x, x_n) \longrightarrow 0.$$

*Similarly, the convergence of a sequence  $(x_n)$  to  $x$  with respect to  $D^{-1}$ , called  **$D^{-1}$ -convergence** or **right-convergence** and denoted by  $x_n \xrightarrow{D^{-1}} x$ , is defined in the following way*

$$(2) \quad x_n \xrightarrow{D^{-1}} x \iff D(x_n, x) \longrightarrow 0.$$

*Finally, in a quasi-pseudometric space  $(X, D, \alpha)$ , we shall say that a sequence  $(x_n)$   **$D^s$ -converges** to  $x$  if it is both left and right convergent to  $x$ , and we denote it as  $x_n \xrightarrow{D^s} x$  or  $x_n \longrightarrow x$  when there is no confusion. Hence*

$$x_n \xrightarrow{D^s} x \iff x_n \xrightarrow{D} x \text{ and } x_n \xrightarrow{D^{-1}} x.$$

**Definition 11** ([4]). *A sequence  $(x_n)$  in a quasi-pseudometric type space  $(X, D, \alpha)$  is called*

(a) **left  $K$ -Cauchy** with respect to  $D$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\forall n, k : n_0 \leq k \leq n \quad D(x_k, x_n) < \epsilon;$$

(b) **right  $K$ -Cauchy** with respect to  $D$  if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\forall n, k : n_0 \leq k \leq n \quad D(x_n, x_k) < \epsilon;$$

(c)  **$D^s$ -Cauchy** if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

$$\forall n, k \geq n_0 \quad D(x_n, x_k) < \epsilon.$$

**Remark 4.** • A sequence is left  $K$ -Cauchy with respect to  $d$  if and only if it is right  $K$ -Cauchy with respect to  $D^{-1}$ .

• A sequence is  $d^s$ -Cauchy if and only if it is both left and right  $K$ -Cauchy.

**Definition 12** ([4]). *A quasi-pseudometric space  $(X, D, \alpha)$  is called **left-complete** provided that any left  $K$ -Cauchy sequence is  $D$ -convergent.*

**Definition 13** ([4]). A quasi-pseudometric space  $(X, D, \alpha)$  is called **right-complete** provided that any right  $K$ -Cauchy sequence is  $D$ -convergent.

**Definition 14** ([4]). A  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric space  $(X, D, \alpha)$  is called **bicomplete** provided that the metric  $D^s$  on  $X$  is complete.

## 2. First results

In [4], Kazeem et al. proved the following:

**Theorem 2.** Let  $(X, q)$  be a bicomplete quasi-cone metric space,  $P$  a  $K$ -normal cone. Suppose that a mapping  $T : X \rightarrow X$  satisfies the contractive condition

$$q(Tx, Ty) \preceq k q(x, y) \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X,$$

where  $k \in [0, 1)$ . Then  $T$  has a unique fixed point. Moreover for any  $x \in X$ , the orbit  $\{T^n x, n \geq 0\}$  converges to the fixed point.

We start by an application of the above the theorem

**Theorem 3.** Let  $(X, q)$  be a bicomplete quasi-cone metric space,  $P$  a  $K$ -normal cone. Let  $T : X \rightarrow X$  be a map such that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there is  $\lambda_n \in (0, 1)$  such that

$$q(T^n x, T^n y) \preceq \lambda_n q(x, y) \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X.$$

and let  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_n = 0$ . Then  $T$  has a unique fixed point  $\omega \in X$ .

**Proof.** Take  $\lambda$  such that  $0 < \lambda < 1$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \lambda_n = 0$ , there exists  $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $\lambda_n < \lambda$  for each  $n \geq n_0$ . Then  $q(T^n x, T^n y) \preceq \lambda_n q(x, y)$  for all  $x, y \in X$  whenever  $n \geq n_0$ . In other words, for any  $m \geq n_0$ ,  $g = T^m$  satisfies

$$q(gx, gy) \preceq k q(x, y) \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X.$$

Theorem 2 implies that  $g$  has a unique fixed point, say  $\omega$ . Then  $T^m \omega = \omega$ , implying that  $T^{m+1} \omega = T(T^m \omega) = T^m(T\omega) = T\omega$  and  $T\omega$  is also a fixed point of  $g = T^m$ . Since the fixed point is unique, it follows that  $T\omega = \omega$  and  $\omega$  is the unique fixed point of  $T$ .  $\blacksquare$

We now state below a generalization of this theorem.

**Theorem 4.** Let  $(X, q)$  be a bicomplete quasi-cone metric space,  $P$  a  $K$ -normal cone. Suppose that a mapping  $T : X \rightarrow X$  is such that for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $T^n$  is Lipschitzian and that  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \text{Lip}(T^n) < \infty$ . Then  $T$  has a unique fixed point  $x^* \in X$ .

**Proof.** Since for any  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $T^n$  is Lipschitzian, hence there exists  $k_n := Lip(T^n) \geq 0$  such that

$$q(T^n x, T^n y) \leq k_n q(x, y) \text{ for all } x, y \in X.$$

Now let  $x \in X$ . For any  $n, h \in \mathbb{N}$ , we have

$$(3) \quad q(T^n x, T^{n+h} x) \leq k_n q(x, T^h x) \leq k_n \left[ \sum_{i=0}^{h-1} q(T^i x, T^{i+1} x) \right].$$

Hence

$$(4) \quad q(T^n x, T^{n+h} x) \leq k_n \left( \sum_{i=0}^{h-1} k_i \right) q(x, Tx),$$

since

$$q(T^i, T^{i+1} x) \leq k_i q(x, Tx), \text{ for all } i \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Since  $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} Lip(T^n)$  is convergent, then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} Lip(T^n) = 0$  and therefore inequality (4) entails that

$$(5) \quad \|q(T^n x, T^{n+h} x)\| \leq K k_n \left( \sum_{i=0}^{h-1} k_i \right) \|q(x, Tx)\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

Similarly, one shows that

$$(6) \quad \|q(T^{n+h} x, T^n x)\| \leq K k_n \left( \sum_{i=0}^{h-1} k_i \right) \|q(Tx, x)\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

From relations (5) and (6), we conclude that  $(T^n x)$  is a bi-Cauchy sequence. Since  $(X, q)$  is bicomplete, there exists  $x^* \in X$  such that  $(T^n x)$  converges to  $x^*$ . First let us show that  $x^*$  is a fixed point of  $T$ .

On one side, we have

$$(7) \quad \begin{aligned} q(T^{n-1} x, x^*) &\leq q(T^{n-1} x, T^n x) + q(T^n x, x^*) \\ &\leq k_{n-1} q(x, Tx) + q(T^n x, x^*), \end{aligned}$$

and on the other side

$$(8) \quad \begin{aligned} q(x^*, T^{n-1} x) &\leq q(x^*, T^n x) + q(T^n x, T^{n-1} x) \\ &\leq k_{n-1} q(Tx, x) + q(x^*, T^n x), \end{aligned}$$

From (7), we have that

$$\begin{aligned} q(Tx^*, x^*) &\preceq q(Tx^*, T^n x) + q(T^n x, x^*) \\ &\preceq k_1 q(x^*, T^{n-1} x) + q(T^n x, x^*) \rightarrow \theta \text{ as } n \rightarrow \infty, \end{aligned}$$

i.e

$$q(Tx^*, x^*) = \theta.$$

In the same manner, from (8), we have that

$$q(x^*, Tx^*) = \theta.$$

Hence

$$q(Tx^*, x^*) = \theta = q(x^*, Tx^*).$$

This implies, using property (q2) that  $Tx^* = x^*$ . So  $x^*$  is a fixed point of  $T$ . Moreover, if  $z^*$  is a fixed point of  $T$ , then for all  $n \geq 1$ , we have

$$q(x^*, z^*) = q(T^n x^*, T^n z^*) \preceq k_n q(x^*, z^*),$$

and

$$q(z^*, x^*) = q(T^n z^*, T^n x^*) \preceq k_n q(z^*, x^*).$$

Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow 0} Lip(T^n) = 0$ , hence  $\|q(x^*, z^*)\| = 0 = \|q(z^*, x^*)\|$  and  $x^* = z^*$ . Therefore the fixed point is unique. ■

In the next section, we give some topological properties of quasi-pseudometric type spaces. Most of them deal with sequences and follow closely the classical properties of sequences pseudometric spaces.

### 3. Topology on Quasi-pseudometric type spaces and fixed point results

**3.1. Some topological properties.** Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a quasi-pseudometric type space. Then for each  $x \in X$  and  $\epsilon > 0$ , the set

$$B_D(x, \epsilon) = \{y \in X : D(x, y) < \epsilon\}$$

denotes the open  $\epsilon$ -ball at  $x$  with respect to  $D$ . It should be noted that the collection

$$\{B_D(x, \epsilon) : x \in X, \epsilon > 0\}$$

yields a base for the topology  $\tau(D)$  induced by  $D$  on  $X$ . In a similar manner, for each  $x \in X$  and  $\epsilon \geq 0$ , we define

$$C_D(x, \epsilon) = \{y \in X : D(x, y) \leq \epsilon\},$$

known as the closed  $\epsilon$ -ball at  $x$  with respect to  $D$ .



Also the collection

$$\{D_{d^{-1}}(x, \epsilon) : x \in X, \epsilon > 0\}$$

yields a base for the topology  $\tau(D^{-1})$  induced by  $D^{-1}$  on  $X$ . The set  $C_D(x, \epsilon)$  is  $\tau(D^{-1})$ -closed, but not  $\tau(D)$ -closed in general.

The balls with respect to  $D$  are often called *forward balls* and the topology  $\tau(D)$  is called *forward topology*, while the balls with respect to  $D^{-1}$  are often called *backward balls* and the topology  $\tau(D^{-1})$  is called *backward topology*.

The topology  $\tau(D)$  of a quasi-pseudometric type space  $(X, D, \alpha)$  can be defined starting with starting from the family  $\Pi_D(x)$  of neighbourhoods of an arbitrary point  $x \in X$ .

$$\begin{aligned} V \in \Pi_D(x) &\iff \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } B_D(x, \epsilon) \subset V \\ &\iff \exists \epsilon' > 0 \text{ such that } C_D(x, \epsilon) \subset V. \end{aligned}$$

To see the equivalence in the above definition, we can take for instance  $\epsilon' = \epsilon/3$ .

The following proposition contains some simple properties of convergent sequences.

**Proposition 2.** *Let  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in quasi-pseudometric type space  $(X, D, \alpha)$ .*

- (a) *If  $(x_n)$  is  $D$ -convergent to  $x$  and  $D^{-1}$ -convergent to  $y$ , then  $D(x, y) = 0$ .*
- (b) *If  $(x_n)$  is  $D$ -convergent to  $x$  and  $D(y, x) = 0$ , then  $(x_n)$  is also  $D$ -convergent to  $y$ .*

**Proof.**

- (a) Letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$  in the inequality

$$D(x, y) \leq \alpha[D(x, x_n) + D(x_n, y)],$$

one obtains  $D(x, y) = 0$ .

- (b) The result follows from the relations

$$D(x_n, y) \leq \alpha[D(y, x) + D(x, x_n)] = \alpha D(x, x_n) \rightarrow 0.$$

■

Also, the following simple remarks concerning sequences in quasi-pseudometric type spaces are true.

**Proposition 3.** *Let  $(x_n)$  be as sequence in a quasi-pseudometric type space  $(X, D, \alpha)$ .*

- (a) *If  $(x_n)$  is left  $K$ -Cauchy and has a subsequence which is  $\tau(D)$ -convergent to  $x$ , then  $(x_n)$  is  $\tau(D)$ -convergent to  $x$ .*

(b) If  $(x_n)$  is left  $K$ -Cauchy and has a subsequence which is  $\tau(D^{-1})$ -convergent to  $x$ , then  $(x_n)$  is  $\tau(D^{-1})$ -convergent to  $x$ .

**Proof.** (a) Suppose that  $(x_n)$  is left  $K$ -Cauchy and  $(x_{n_k})$  is a subsequence of  $(x_n)$  such that  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} D(x, x_{n_k}) = 0$ . For  $\epsilon > 0$  choose  $n_0 \leq m \leq n$  implies  $D(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon/\alpha$ , and let  $k_0 \in \mathbb{N}$  be such that  $n_{k_0} \geq n_0$  and  $D(x, x_{n_k}) < \epsilon/\alpha$  for all  $k \geq k_0$ . Then, for  $n \geq n_{k_0}$ ,  $D(x, x_n) \leq \alpha[D(x, x_{n_{k_0}} + D(x_{n_{k_0}}, x_n))] < 2\epsilon$ .

(b) Reasoning similarly, for  $n \geq n_{k_0}$  let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $n_k \geq n$ . Then  $D(x_n, x) \leq \alpha[D(x_n, x_{n_k}) + D(x_{n_k}, x)] < 2\epsilon$ . ■

The proof of the following proposition is trivial and shall then be omitted.

**Proposition 4.** If a sequence  $(x_n)$  in a quasi-pseudometric type space  $(X, D, \alpha)$ , satisfies

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} D(x_n, x_{n+1}) < \infty,$$

then  $(x_n)$  is left  $K$ -Cauchy.

**Definition 15.** A subset  $Y$  of a quasi-pseudometric type space  $(X, D, \alpha)$  is called precompact if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a finite subset  $Z$  of  $Y$  such that

$$(9) \quad Y \subset \cup \{B_D(z, \epsilon) : z \in Z\}.$$

If for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a finite subset  $Z$  of  $X$  such that (9) holds, then the set  $Y$  is called outside precompact. One obtains the same notions if one works with closed balls  $C_D(z, \epsilon)$   $z \in Z$ .

Obviously a precompact set is outside precompact, but the converse is not true. We then have the following characterization.

**Proposition 5.** Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a quasi-pseudometric type space. A subset  $Y$  of  $X$  is precompact if and only if for every  $\epsilon > 0$  there is a finite subset  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \subset X$  such that  $Y \subset \cup_{i=1}^n B_D(x_i, \epsilon)$  and  $Y \cap B_{D^{-1}}(x_i, \epsilon) \neq \emptyset$  for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ .

**Proof.** For  $\epsilon > 0$ , let  $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\} \subset X$  such that the conditions hold for  $\epsilon/2\alpha$ . If  $y_i \in Y \cap B_{D^{-1}}(x_i, \epsilon/2\alpha)$ ,  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ , then  $Y \subset \cup_{i=1}^n B_D(x_i, \epsilon)$ .

Indeed, for any  $y \in Y$  there exists  $k \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  such that  $D(x_k, y) < \epsilon/2\alpha$ , implying

$$D(y_k, y) \leq \alpha[D(y_k, x_k) + D(x_k, y)] = \alpha[D^{-1}(x_k, y_k) + D(x_k, y)] < \epsilon.$$

■

**3.2. Fixed point results.** We start with the following lemma and repeat the proof as it is in [4].

**Lemma 2** (Compare [4] Lemma 38). *Let  $(y_n)$  be a sequence in a quasi-pseudometric type space  $(X, D, \alpha)$  such that*

$$(10) \quad D(y_n, y_{n+1}) \leq \lambda D(y_{n-1}, y_n)$$

for some  $\lambda > 0$  with  $\lambda < \min\{1, 1/\alpha\}$ . Then  $(y_n)$  is left  $K$ -Cauchy.

**Proof.** Let  $m < n \in \mathbb{N}$ . From the condition (D2) in the definition of a quasi-pseudometric type, we can write:

$$\begin{aligned} D(y_m, y_n) &\leq \alpha[D(y_m, y_{m+1}) + D(y_{m+1}, y_n)] \\ &\leq \alpha D(y_m, y_{m+1}) + \alpha^2 D(y_{m+1}, y_{m+2}) + \alpha^2 D(y_{m+2}, y_n) \\ &\quad \vdots \\ &\leq \alpha D(y_m, y_{m+1}) + \alpha^2 D(y_{m+1}, y_{m+2}) + \cdots \\ &\quad + \alpha^{n-m-1} D(y_{n-2}, y_{n-1}) + \alpha^{n-m} D(y_{n-1}, y_n). \end{aligned}$$

From (10) and  $\lambda < \frac{1}{\alpha}$ , the above becomes

$$\begin{aligned} D(y_m, y_n) &\leq (\alpha\lambda^m + \alpha^2\lambda^{m+1} + \cdots + \alpha^{n-m}\lambda^{n-1})D(y_0, y_1) \\ &\leq \alpha\lambda^m(1 + \alpha\lambda + \cdots + (\alpha\lambda)^{n-1-m})D(y_0, y_1) \\ &\leq \frac{\alpha\lambda^m}{1 - \alpha\lambda}D(y_0, y_1) \longrightarrow 0 \text{ as } m \longrightarrow \infty. \end{aligned}$$

■

It follows that  $(y_n)$  is left  $K$ -Cauchy. Similarly,

**Lemma 3.** *Let  $(y_n)$  be a sequence in a quasi-pseudometric type space  $(X, D, \alpha)$  such that*

$$(11) \quad D^{-1}(y_n, y_{n+1}) \leq \lambda D^{-1}(y_{n-1}, y_n)$$

for some  $\lambda > 0$  with  $\lambda < \min\{1, 1/\alpha\}$ . Then  $(y_n)$  is right  $K$ -Cauchy.

We now state our first fixed point result.

**Theorem 5.** *Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type space. Suppose that  $f, g : X \rightarrow X$  are mappings such that*

$$(12) \quad D(fx, fy) \leq k D(gx, gy) \text{ for all } x, y \in X,$$

where  $k < \min\{1, 1/\alpha\}$ . If the range of  $g$  contains the range of  $f$  and  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique point of coincidence. Moreover if  $f$  and  $g$  are weakly compatible, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point.

**Proof.** Take an arbitrary  $x_0 \in X$ . Choose a point  $x_1$  in  $X$  such that  $f(x_0) = g(x_1)$ . This can be done, since  $f(X) \subset g(X)$ . Iterating this process, once  $x_n$  is chosen in  $X$ , we can obtain  $x_{n+1}$  in  $X$  such that  $f(x_n) = g(x_{n+1})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} D(gx_n, gx_{n+1}) &= D(fx_{n-1}, fx_n) \leq kD(gx_{n-1}, gx_n) \\ &\leq k^2 D(gx_{n-2}, gx_{n-1}) \leq \dots \leq k^n D(gx_0, gx_1). \end{aligned}$$

i.e.

$$D(gx_n, gx_{n+1}) \leq k^n D(gx_0, gx_1).$$

Similarly,

$$D(gx_{n+1}, gx_n) \leq k^n D(gx_1, gx_0).$$

Hence  $(gx_n)$  is a bi-Cauchy sequence. Since  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, there exists  $x^* \in g(X)$  such that  $(gx_n)$   $D^s$ -converges to  $x^*$ . In other words, there is a  $p^* \in X$  such that  $(gx_n)$  converges to  $g(p^*) = x^*$ .

Moreover

$$D(gx_n, fp^*) = D(fx_{n-1}, fp^*) \leq kD(gx_{n-1}, gp^*) \longrightarrow 0, \text{ as } n \longrightarrow \infty,$$

In the same way, we establish that  $D(fp^*, gx_n) \longrightarrow 0$  as  $n \longrightarrow \infty$ , to then conclude that  $gx_n \longrightarrow fp^*$ . The uniqueness of the limit implies that  $fp^* = gp^*$ . We finish the proof by showing that  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique point of coincidence. For this, assume  $z^* \in X$  is a point such that  $fz^* = gz^*$ .

Now

$$D(gz^*, gp^*) = D(fz^*, fp^*) \leq kD(gz^*, gp^*),$$

which gives  $D(gz^*, gp^*) = 0$ . On the other hand, by the same reasoning, it also clear that  $D(gp^*, gz^*) = 0$ . By property the  $T_0$ -condition,  $gz^* = gp^*$ . From Proposition 1,  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point. ■

**Theorem 6.** *Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type space. Suppose that  $f, g : X \rightarrow X$  are mappings such that Suppose that mappings  $f, g : X \rightarrow X$  satisfy the contractive condition*

$$D(fx, fy) \leq k [D(fx, gy) + D(gx, fy)] \text{ for all } x, y \in X,$$

where  $k \geq 0$  such that  $\frac{k}{1-k} < \min\{1, 1/\alpha\}$ . If the range of  $g$  contains the range of  $f$  and  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique coincidence point in  $X$ . Moreover if  $f$  and  $g$  are weakly compatible, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point.

Take an arbitrary  $x_0 \in X$ . Choose a point  $x_1$  in  $X$  such that  $f(x_0) = g(x_1)$ . This can be done, since  $f(X) \subset g(X)$ . Iterating this process, once  $x_n$  is chosen in  $X$ , we can obtain  $x_{n+1}$  in  $X$  such that  $f(x_n) = g(x_{n+1})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} D(gx_n, gx_{n+1}) &= D(fx_{n-1}, fx_n) \leq k[D(fx_{n-1}, gx_n) + D(gx_{n-1}, fx_n)] \\ &\leq kD(gx_{n-1}, gx_{n+1}) \\ &\leq k[D(gx_{n-1}, gx_n) + D(gx_n, gx_{n+1})], \end{aligned}$$

which entails that

$$D(gx_n, gx_{n+1}) \leq \frac{k}{1-k}(gx_{n-1}, gx_n).$$

Similarly,

$$D(gx_{n+1}, gx_n) \leq \frac{k}{1-k}D(gx_n, gx_{n-1}).$$

Hence  $(gx_n)$  is a bi-Cauchy sequence. Since  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, there exists  $x^* \in g(X)$  such that  $(gx_n)$   $D^s$ -converges to  $x^*$ . In other words, there is a  $p^* \in X$  such that  $(gx_n)$  converges to  $g(p^*) = x^*$ .

Moreover since

$$D(gx_n, fp^*) = D(fx_{n-1}, fp^*) \leq k[D(fx_{n-1}, gp^*) + D(gx_{n-1}, fp^*)],$$

we get that

$$D(gp^*, fp^*) \leq kD(gp^*, fp^*)$$

which implies that  $D(gp^*, fp^*) = 0$ .

In the same way, we establish that  $D(fp^*, gp^*) = 0$ , to then conclude that  $fp^* = gp^*$ .

We finish the proof by showing that  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique point of coincidence. For this, assume  $z^* \in X$  is a point such that  $fz^* = gz^*$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} D(gz^*, gp^*) &= D(fz^*, fp^*) \leq k[D(fz^*, gp^*) + D(gz^*, fp^*)] \\ &\leq 2kD(gz^*, gp^*), \end{aligned}$$

which gives  $D(gz^*, gp^*) = 0$ . On the other hand, by the same reasoning, it also clear that  $D(gp^*, gz^*) = 0$ . Therefore  $gz^* = gp^*$ . From Proposition 1,  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point.

**Theorem 7.** *Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type space. Suppose that  $f, g : X \rightarrow X$  are mappings such that*

$$(13) \quad D(fx, fy) \leq \lambda D(gx, gy) + \gamma D(fx, gy) \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X.$$

where  $\lambda, \gamma$  are positive constants such that  $\lambda + 2\gamma < \min\{1, 1/\alpha\}$ . If the range of  $g$  contains the range of  $f$  and  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique coincidence point in  $X$ . Moreover if  $f$  and  $g$  are weakly compatible, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point.

**Proof.** Take an arbitrary  $x_0 \in X$ . Choose a point  $x_1$  in  $X$  such that  $f(x_0) = g(x_1)$ . This can be done, since  $f(X) \subset g(X)$ . Iterating this process, once  $x_n$  is chosen in  $X$ , we can obtain  $x_{n+1}$  in  $X$  such that  $f(x_n) = g(x_{n+1})$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} D(gx_n, gx_{n+1}) &= D(fx_{n-1}, fx_n) \leq \lambda D(gx_{n-1}, gx_n) + \gamma D(fx_{n-1}, gx_n) \\ &\leq \lambda D(gx_{n-1}, gx_n). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $(gx_n)$  is a left  $K$ -Cauchy sequence. In a similar manner, we establish that  $(gx_n)$  is also a right  $K$ -Cauchy sequence. Hence  $(gx_n)$  is a bi-Cauchy sequence. Since  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, there exists  $x^* \in g(X)$  such that  $(gx_n)$   $D^s$ -converges to  $x^*$ . In other words, there is a  $p^* \in X$  such that  $(gx_n)$  converges to  $g(p^*) = x^*$ .

Moreover since

$$D(gx_n, fp^*) = D(fx_{n-1}, fp^*) \leq \lambda D(gx_{n-1}, gp^*) + \gamma D(fx_{n-1}, gp^*)$$

we get that  $D(gp^*, fp^*) = 0$ . On the other hand, by the same reasoning, it is also clear that  $D(fp^*, gp^*) = 0$ . Hence  $fp^* = gp^*$ .

We finish the proof by showing that  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique point of coincidence. For this, assume  $z^* \in X$  is a point such that  $fz^* = gz^*$ . Now

$$\begin{aligned} D(gz^*, gp^*) &= D(fz^*, fp^*) \leq \lambda D(gz^*, gp^*) + \gamma D(fz^*, gp^*) \\ &\leq (\lambda + \gamma)D(gz^*, gp^*), \end{aligned}$$

which gives  $D(gz^*, gp^*) = 0$ . On the other hand, by the same reasoning, it is also clear that  $D(gp^*, gz^*) = 0$ . Hence  $gz^* = gp^*$ . From Proposition 1,  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point. ■

We now give an example to illustrate Theorems 5, 7.

**Example 2.** Let  $X = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $D(x, y) = \max\{x - y, 0\}$  whenever  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(x) = 2x^2 + 4x + 1$  and  $g(x) = 3x^2 + 6x + 2$ . Then it is easy to see that

$$f(X) = g(X) = [1, \infty) \text{ is bicomplete.}$$

All the conditions of Theorems 5, 7 are satisfied. Indeed:

- for Theorem 5, take  $k \in [\frac{2}{3}, 1)$
- for Theorem 7, take  $\lambda \in [\frac{2}{3}, 1)$ ,  $\gamma = 0$ .

$f$  and  $g$  become weakly compatible and we obtain a unique point of coincidence and a unique common fixed point  $-1 = f(-1) = g(-1)$ .

**Corollary 1.** *Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type space. Suppose that mappings  $f, g : X \rightarrow X$  satisfy the contractive condition*

$$(14) \quad D(fx, fy) \leq \alpha[D(gx, gy) + D(fx, gy)] \text{ for all } x, y \in X.$$

where  $0 < \alpha < \min\{1, 1/3\alpha\}$ . If the range of  $g$  contains the range of  $f$  and  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique coincidence point in  $X$ . Moreover if  $f$  and  $g$  are weakly compatible, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point.

**Theorem 8.** *Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type space. Suppose that  $f, g : X \rightarrow X$  are mappings such that*

$$(15) \quad D(fx, fy) \leq \lambda D(gx, gy) + \gamma D(gx, fy) \text{ for all } x, y \in X.$$

where  $\lambda, \gamma$  are positive constants such that  $\lambda + 2\gamma < \min\{1, 1/\alpha\}$ . If the range of  $g$  contains the range of  $f$  and  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique coincidence point in  $X$ . Moreover if  $f$  and  $g$  are weakly compatible, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point.

**Corollary 2.** *Let  $(X, D, \alpha)$  be a  $T_0$ -quasi-pseudometric type space. Suppose that mappings  $f, g : X \rightarrow X$  satisfy the contractive condition*

$$(16) \quad D(fx, fy) \leq \lambda[D(gx, gy) + D(gx, fy)] \text{ for all } x, y \in X.$$

where  $0 < \lambda < \min\{1, 1/3\alpha\}$ . If the range of  $g$  contains the range of  $f$  and  $g(X)$  is bicomplete, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique coincidence point in  $X$ . Moreover if  $f$  and  $g$  are weakly compatible, then  $f$  and  $g$  have a unique common fixed point.

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