

Existence of Fixed Points for Various Mappings in Abstract Spaces

A Thesis

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of*

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in

Mathematics

by

Kapil Jain

Registration No. 951611002

under the supervision of

Dr. Jatinderdeep Kaur

Associate Professor
School of Mathematics
TIET, Patiala, INDIA

Dr. S.S. Bhatia

Professor
School of Mathematics
TIET, Patiala, INDIA




THAPAR INSTITUTE
OF ENGINEERING & TECHNOLOGY
(Deemed to be University)


TIET
PATIALA-147004, PUNJAB, INDIA
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Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that the work which is being presented in this thesis entitled **Existence of Fixed Points for Various Mappings in Abstract Spaces**, in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of **Doctor of Philosophy** and submitted to the institution is an authentic record of my own work carried out during the period **July 27, 2016** to **May 31, 2022** under the supervision of **Dr. Jatinderdeep Kaur**, Associate Professor, School of Mathematics, and **Dr. S.S. Bhatia**, Professor, School of Mathematics, Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala, India.


(Kapil Jain)
Candidate

It is certified that the above statement made by the candidate is correct to the best of our knowledge.


(Dr. Jatinderdeep Kaur)
Associate Professor
School of Mathematics
TIET, Patiala, INDIA


(Dr. S.S. Bhatia)
Professor
School of Mathematics
TIET, Patiala, INDIA

Dedicated
To
my
Family

Acknowledgement

At the end of this journey of Ph.D., I would like thank to all the people who helped me to complete my thesis and leave the unforgettable pictures of some beautiful moments on my mind.

First and above all, I praise **God**, the almighty for providing me with this opportunity and granting me the capability to proceed successfully.

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(*Kapil Jain*)

List of Symbols

$X = Y, X \neq Y$:	Equality and Inequality of sets
$X \cup Y, X \cap Y$:	Union and intersection of sets
X^n	:	$\underbrace{X \times X \times \cdots \times X}_n$ (cartesian product of X n -times)
$f(x)$ or fx	:	Image of x under f
sup	:	Supremum (or least upper bound)
inf	:	Infimum (or greatest lower bound)
max	:	Maximum
min	:	Minimum
ϕ	:	empty set
\mathbb{N}	:	The set of natural numbers
\mathbb{R}	:	The set of real numbers
\subset or \subseteq	:	subset of
\in	:	belong to or belonging to
\notin	:	does not belong to
\Rightarrow	:	implies
\Leftrightarrow	:	logical equivalence
$<$:	is strictly less than
\leq	:	is less than or equal to
$>$:	is strictly greater than
\geq	:	is greater than or equal to
\nlessgtr	:	neither less than nor equal to
$ x $:	absolute value of x
i.e. :	:	that is

Preface

The present thesis entitled **Existence of Fixed Points for Various Mappings in Abstract Spaces** comprises certain investigations carried out by me at the School of Mathematics (SOM), Thapar Institute of Engineering and Technology, Patiala (India), under the supervision of **Dr. Jatinderdeep Kaur**, Associate Professor, SOM, TIET, Patiala and **Dr. S.S. Bhatia**, Professor, SOM, TIET, Patiala.

Fixed point theory is an important branch of non-linear analysis. Many problems, occurring in different branches of mathematics, such as differential equations, optimization theory and variational analysis, can be converted into the equation $Tx = x$, where T is some non-linear operator defined on a certain space X . Solutions of this equation are called fixed point of T . Fixed point theory can be classified into three major areas: Metric fixed point theory, Topological fixed point theory and Discrete fixed point theory. The principal findings in these areas are Banach's fixed point theorem, Brouwer's fixed point theorem, and Tarski's fixed point theorem respectively.

Abstract space is a set of elements satisfying certain axioms. In 1906, the French mathematician Fréchet introduced the first abstract space, called metric space. In 1922, Polish mathematician Stefan Banach gave the first fixed point theorem for contraction mappings in metric spaces, and this theorem is famous as the Banach contraction principle. This principle states that *every contraction self-mapping defined on a complete metric space has a unique fixed point*. This result has become one of the most popular and effective tools in solving existence problem in many branches of mathematics.

Banach contraction principle has been generalized in several directions. There are two ways to extend or improve this principle. One way is to extend/improve the condition of contraction mappings, and the second approach is to replace complete metric space with a more general abstract space. In the first direction, there are numerous results in the literature proved by Kannan, Chatterjea, Reich, Hardy and Rogers, Ćirić, Wang *et al.*, Alber and Delabriae, Samet *et al.*, Shahi *et al.*,

Wardowski and many more. In the second direction, we have several abstract spaces in the literature such as partial metric spaces, b -metric spaces, cone metric spaces, metric-like spaces, partial b -metric spaces, b -metric-like spaces, generalized metric spaces, F -metric spaces, 2-metric spaces, D -metric spaces, G -metric spaces, GP -metric spaces, generalized b -metric spaces etc.

In the present thesis, we will work in both directions. The present thesis consists of six chapters. **Chapter 1** is about the introduction related to our work. From the literature, a brief about various mappings related to fixed point theory and different abstract spaces are discussed in this chapter. At the end of the chapter, a brief plan of the results presented in the subsequent chapters is given.

In **Chapter 2**, inspired by the concept of b -metric space, G -metric space, and generalized b -metric space, a new abstract space (named generalized G_b -metric space) has been introduced. Some basic concepts and properties of new space have been studied. Various fixed point theorems in the framework of generalized G_b -metric space has been proved. Multiple examples have been presented for the authenticity of the main results. After that, an application of one of our main results has also been given.

In **Chapter 3**, another new class of abstract spaces (named G^* -metric space) has been introduced as a generalization of generalized G_b -metric spaces and GP -metric spaces. Some basic concepts in G^* -metric space have been studied. Some new types of Cauchy sequences have been noticed in this new abstract space. Various examples have also been presented for these new concepts.

Chapter 4 deals with fixed point results for contraction and quasi-contraction type mappings in G^* -metric space. As a consequence of these results, some fixed point theorems have been deduced in the framework of generalized G_b -metric space. Some examples have also been presented in support of the main results and consequences.

In **Chapter 5**, a new class of functions has been introduced. With the help of this new class of functions, some new contractive mappings in b -metric spaces have

been introduced. We establish some fixed point results for these new contractive mappings in b -metric spaces. As a consequence of the main results, various fixed point theorems have also been presented. An example has also been illustrated in support of our results. At the end of the chapter, an application has been provided to prove the uniqueness of the solution to a system of simultaneous linear equations.

The aim of **Chapter 6** is to extend the main results of Chapter 5 in the framework of b -metric-like spaces. Also, some common fixed point theorems have presented for weakly compatible mappings. Suitable examples have been provided for the main results. Related to the main results, some corollaries have also been presented at the end of this chapter.

List of Published/Communicated Research Papers

(1) Kapil Jain and Jatinderdeep Kaur, *A Generalization of G -Metric Spaces and Related Fixed Point Theorems*, *Mathematical Inequalities and Applications*, 22(4), (2019), pp. 1145-1160, Article ID 79, DOI: 10.7153/mia-2019-22-79. (SCIE) (Published)

(2) Kapil Jain and Jatinderdeep Kaur, *Some Fixed Point Results in b -Metric Spaces and b -Metric-Like Spaces with New Contractive Mappings*, *Axioms*, 10(2), (2021), 15 pages, Article ID 55, DOI: 10.3390/axioms10020055. (SCIE) (Published)

(3) Kapil Jain, Jatinderdeep Kaur and S.S. Bhatia, *A Generalization of GP -Metric Space and Generalized G_b -Metric Space and Related Fixed Point Results*, *Journal of Mathematical and Computational Science*, 12, (2022), 27 pages, Article ID 132, DOI: 10.28919/jmcs/7294. (SCOPUS) (Published)

Conference Research Papers

(1) Presented a paper entitled “A New Approach to G -metric Space and Related Fixed Point Theorems”, in the International conference on Mathematical Analysis and its Application held at Department of Mathematics, South Asian University, New Delhi during December 14-16, 2019.

(2) Presented a paper entitled “Fixed Point Theorems in a New Generalization of G -metric Space” in three days online International Conference on Recent Advances in Computational Mathematics and Engineering, held from 19.03.2021 to 21.03.2021 at B K Birla Institute of Engineering and Technology, Pilani, India.

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CHAPTER 1

Introduction and Basics

1.1. Introduction

In modern mathematics, the theory of fixed points is one of the most powerful tools. Fixed point theory is a beautiful mixture of analysis, topology, and geometry. Fixed point theory has number of applications in many areas of mathematics. For instance, in finding the solution of system of linear equations, in proving the existence of solutions of ordinary differential equation, partial differential equation, integral equation etc. Fixed point theory has applications in economics, game theory, physics, engineering, computer science and many other disciplines also. Theorems concerning the existence and properties of fixed points are known as fixed point theorems.

Definition 1.1.1. Let X be a non-empty set and $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping. Then a point $x \in X$ is called a *fixed point* of T if $T(x) = x$.

In other words, a fixed point of a mapping is a point that is mapped to itself, or a fixed point is such a point that remains invariant under the given mapping. In fact, fixed point is the point of intersection of the graph of curve $y = T(x)$ and the line $y = x$.

Example: Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a mapping defined by $f(x) = x^3 + 2x^2 - 2$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $f(1) = 1$, $f(-1) = -1$ and $f(-2) = -2$, i.e., 1, -1 and -2 are three fixed points of f .

In order to solve a system of equation(s), generally, in mathematics, equation(s) can be converted into the problem of finding the fixed point of a self-mapping on a certain set. For example, if we wish to find a solution to equation $F(x) = 0$, then its solution will be the fixed point of a mapping f , where $f(x) = F(x) + x$. The presence or absence of a fixed point is an intrinsic property of a map. The necessary and sufficient conditions for the existence and uniqueness of such points depend upon the algebraic or topological properties of the map or its domain. Over the last 120 years, the theory of fixed points has been revealed as a very classical and powerful tool in the study of non-linear phenomena.

In 1912, Brouwer [26] proved first fixed point theorem for a topological space which states that “*any continuous self-mapping defined on a closed ball in \mathbb{R}^n has at least one fixed point*”. This result was applicable to finite-dimensional spaces, and forms a base for many fixed point results. In 1930, Schauder [126] proved another result in this field known as “*Schauder fixed point theorem*” stated as: “*If K is compact and convex subset of a Banach space V , then any continuous self-mapping defined on K has at least one fixed point*”. In fact, this result was an extension of Brouwer’s theorem and was applicable to finite as well as infinite dimensional spaces. After these two famous theorems, the fixed point theory for topological space was enriched by some more famous results due to Tychonoff [139], Kakutani [74], Bohnenblust, and Karlin [22], Fan [47], Glicksberg [52], etc.

Meanwhile, in 1922, the first fixed point result for a metric space came into light which has been considered as the most celebrated result in the field of functional analysis. This result was introduced by Banach [18], and it is famous as “*Banach Contraction Principle*”. According to this principle, *A contraction self-mapping defined on a complete metric space has a unique fixed point.* Due to the simplicity of this fundamental theorem, it has become a very popular tool for proving existence and uniqueness theorems in various fields of Mathematical Analysis.

The present chapter is introductory in nature and is divided into four sections. In section 1.2, various abstract spaces has been presented. Further, some basic concepts and results concerning these abstract spaces have been presented in this section. Next section deals with various types of mappings related to fixed point theory. In section 1.4, objectives of the present thesis has been given. In the last section of this chapter, a brief chapterwise resume of the results contained in thesis has been included.

1.2. Various Abstract Spaces

An abstract space is a set of elements satisfying certain axioms. The core of abstract space is its set of axioms rather than the nature of its elements. We obtain different types of abstract spaces by choosing different sets of axioms. The idea of using abstract spaces was initiated by Fréchet, in 1906, by introducing Metric Space in his work *Sur quelques points du Calcul fonctionnel*. This initiative of Fréchet has been a great success. Since then, we had a number of abstract spaces in the literature. In the last two decades, these abstract spaces have increased in a rapid way. In this

section, definitions of some abstract spaces and related basic concepts have been presented.

1.2.1 Metric Space

Definition 1.2.1. ([84], page 3) For a non-empty set X , a *metric* on X is a function d defined on $X \times X$ such that for all $x, y, z \in X$, we have:

(M1) d is real-valued, finite and nonnegative;

(M2) $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$;

(M3) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$ (Symmetry);

(M4) $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y)$ (Triangle inequality).

The non-empty set X equipped with a metric d defined on it is called a *metric space* and is denoted by (X, d) . Geometrically, $d(x, y)$ represents distance between two points x and y on the real line.

For example, the set \mathbb{R} with d defined as usual distance $d(x, y) = |x - y|$, for all $x, y \in X$, is a metric space. In fact, it is so called as usual metric space.

Definition 1.2.2. ([84], page 18) Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then, for $x_0 \in X$, $r > 0$, the *open ball* in (X, d) with center x_0 and radius r is defined as:

$$B(x_0; r) = \{x \in X \mid d(x, x_0) < r\}.$$

A subset A of X is said to be an *open set* if, for each $a \in A$, there exists $r > 0$ such that $B(a; r) \subseteq A$.

Definition 1.2.3. ([84], page 25 and 28) Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then:

(i) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is said to be a *convergent sequence* if there is an $x \in X$

such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$. In this case, x is called the *limit* of $\{x_n\}$

and is denoted by $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_n = x$; or, simply, $x_n \rightarrow x$.

(ii) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is said to be a *Cauchy sequence* if, for each $\epsilon > 0$ there is

an $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon$, for every $m, n > n_0$.

(iii) (X, d) is said to be *complete* if every Cauchy sequence in X converges.

Lemma 1.2.1 ([84], page 26) *Let (X, d) be a metric space. Then:*

(i) *A convergent sequence in X is bounded, and its limit is unique.*

(ii) *If $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $y_n \rightarrow y$ in X , then $d(x_n, y_n) \rightarrow d(x, y)$.*

Theorem 1.2.2 ([84], page 29) *Every convergent sequence in a metric space is a Cauchy sequence.*

Definition 1.2.4. ([84], page 20) Let (X, d) and (Y, d') be two metric spaces. A mapping $T : X \rightarrow Y$ is said to be *continuous at a point* $x_0 \in X$ if, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there is a $\delta > 0$ such that $d'(Tx, Tx_0) < \epsilon$, for all x satisfying $d(x, x_0) < \delta$.

1.2.2 b -Metric Space

By weakening the triangle inequality in metric space, Bakhtin [17] has studied the concept of b -metric space as:

Definition 1.2.5. [17] Let X be a non-empty set. Then, a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *b -metric* if, for all $x, y, z \in X$, the following conditions hold:

(bm1) $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$;

(bm2) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$;

(bm3) $d(x, y) \leq 2(d(x, z) + d(z, y))$.

The pair (X, d) is called a *b -metric space*.

In 1998, Czerwik [40] presented the concept of b -metric space in the more general form as shown below:

Definition 1.2.6. [40] Let X be a non-empty set and $s \geq 1$ be a given real. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a b -metric if, for all $x, y, z \in X$, the following conditions hold:

$$(b1) \quad d(x, y) = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = y;$$

$$(b2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(b3) \quad d(x, y) \leq s(d(x, z) + d(z, y)).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a b -metric space. In 2010, Khamsi and Hussain [81] used the notion of b -metric space under the name metric type space.

Example: Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ and $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be a mapping defined by $d(x, y) = |x - y|^2$. Then d is a b -metric on X with $s = 2$, but it is not a metric on X as $d(1, 3) = 4 \not\leq 2 = d(1, 2) + d(2, 3)$, i.e., $(M4)$ does not hold.

In 2009, Boriceanu [23] introduced the concepts of convergent sequence, Cauchy sequence, and completeness in the framework of b -metric space similar to that of metric space. Following remark is due to Boriceanu *et al.* [24].

Remark 1.2.7. [24] In a b -metric space (X, d) , the following assertions hold:

(i) A convergent sequence has a unique limit.

(ii) Each convergent sequence is Cauchy.

(iii) In general, a b -metric is not continuous.

The following example illustrates the fact that the mapping b -metric need not be continuous.

Example 1.2.8. [87] Let $X = \mathbb{N} \cup \{+\infty\}$ and let $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be defined by

$$d(m, n) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } m = n; \\ |\frac{1}{m} - \frac{1}{n}|, & \text{if one of } m, n \text{ is even and the other is even or } +\infty; \\ 5, & \text{if one of } m, n \text{ is odd and the other is odd or } +\infty \text{ and } m \neq n; \\ 2, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then (X, d) is a b -metric space with $s = \frac{5}{2}$. Let $x_n = 2n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(2n, +\infty) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{2n} = 0,$$

that is, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_n = +\infty$, but $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, 1) = 2 \neq 5 = d(+\infty, 1)$.

Although b -metric is not a continuous mapping, but we have the following lemma due to Aghajani *et al.* [3].

Lemma 1.2.3 [3] *Let (X, d) be a b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and suppose that sequences $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ converge to x and $y \in X$, respectively. Then*

$$\frac{1}{s^2}d(x, y) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y_n) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y_n) \leq s^2d(x, y).$$

In particular, if $x = y$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$.

Moreover, for any $z \in X$,

$$\frac{1}{s}d(x, z) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, z) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, z) \leq sd(x, z).$$

1.2.3 Partial Metric Space

In 1992, Matthews [89] presented the idea of partial metric space. In this space, the usual metric is replaced by a partial metric with a surprising property that the self-distance of any point of the space may not be zero.

Definition 1.2.9. [89] Let X be a non-empty set. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *partial metric* if, for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(p1) \quad x = y \Leftrightarrow d(x, x) = d(x, y) = d(y, y);$$

$$(p2) \quad d(x, x) \leq d(x, y);$$

$$(p3) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(p4) \quad d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y) - d(z, z).$$

Such a pair (X, d) is called a *partial metric space*.

Remark 1.2.10. Every metric space is a partial metric space, but converse is not true. For example, if $X = [0, +\infty)$ and $d(x, y) = \max\{x, y\}$, for all $x, y \in X$; then the pair (X, d) is a partial metric space, but not a metric space as $d(1, 1) = 1 \neq 0$.

Matthews [89], also introduced the concepts of convergent sequence, Cauchy sequence, and completeness in the framework of partial metric space as follows:

Definition 1.2.11. [89] Let (X, d) be a partial metric space. Then:

(i) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is called a *Cauchy sequence* if $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m)$ exists and is finite.

(ii) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X *converges to* $x \in X$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x) = d(x, x)$.

(iii) (X, d) is said to be *complete* if every Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X converges to some $x \in X$ with $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = d(x, x)$.

Remark 1.2.12. In partial metric space, limit of a sequence need not be unique. Also, a convergent sequence need not be a Cauchy sequence.

Example: Let $X = [0, +\infty)$ and $d(x, y) = \max\{x, y\}$, for all $x, y \in X$; then the pair (X, d) is a partial metric space. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by $x_n = \frac{1}{n+1}$, then

$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, 1) = d(1, 1)$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, 2) = d(2, 2)$. Thus, the limit of a sequence in partial metric space is not necessarily unique. Now, define another sequence $\{y_n\}$ in X by $y_n = 1$ and 2 according as n is odd and even, respectively. We see that $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_n, 3) = d(3, 3)$, i.e., sequence $\{y_n\}$ is convergent, but $\{y_n\}$ is not a Cauchy sequence.

Definition 1.2.13. [2] Every partial metric p on X generates a T_0 -topology τ_p on X with a base of the family of open p -balls $\{B_p(x, r) \mid x \in X, r > 0\}$, where $B_p(x, r) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < d(x, x) + r\}$, for all $x \in X$ and $r > 0$.

Lemma 1.2.4 [2] Let (X, d) be a partial metric space and let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X such that $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $d(x, x) = 0$. Then, for every $y \in X$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y) = d(x, y)$.

1.2.4 Metric-Like Space

In 2012, Harandi [60] generalized the concept of partial metric by establishing a new space named metric-like space. It is noticed that in metric-like space, self-distance of a point may be greater than the distance of that point to any other point. Harandi [60] defined metric-like space as:

Definition 1.2.14. [60] Let X be a non-empty set. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *metric-like* if, for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(m_l1) \quad d(x, y) = 0 \Rightarrow x = y;$$

$$(m_l2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(m_l3) \quad d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a *metric-like space*. A metric-like on X satisfies all of the

conditions of a metric except that $d(x, x)$ may be positive for $x \in X$. Every partial metric space is a metric-like space, but the converse is not true.

Example 1.2.15. [60] Let $X = \{0, 1\}$ and define $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ by

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } x = y = 0; \\ 1, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then, the pair (X, d) is a metric-like space, but not a partial metric space as $d(0, 0) \not\leq d(0, 1)$.

Harandi [60], also defined the concepts of convergent sequence, Cauchy sequence, and completeness in the framework of metric-like space similar to that of partial metric space. Also, the concept of open set in the framework of metric-like space is defined as follows:

Definition 1.2.16. [60] Let (X, d) be a metric-like space. Then, for $x_0 \in X$, $r > 0$, the *open ball* in (X, d) with center x_0 and radius r is

$$B(x_0, r) = \{y \in X \mid |d(x_0, y) - d(x_0, x_0)| < r\}.$$

Also, a subset A of X is said to be an *open set* in X if, for each $a \in A$, there exists $r > 0$ such that $B(a, r) \subseteq A$. The family of all open subsets of X is denoted by τ_{ml} which is a T_0 -topology on X .

Remark 1.2.17. In a metric-like space, limit of a convergent sequence need not be unique.

Example: Let $X = \{0, 1\}$ and $d(x, y) = 1$ for all $x, y \in X$, then (X, d) is a metric-like space, Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by $x_n = 1$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, 1) = d(1, 1)$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, 0) = d(0, 0)$. Thus, limit of a sequence in metric-like space is not

unique.

Also, in a metric-like space, a convergent sequence need not be a Cauchy sequence.

Consider metric-like space as in Example 1.2.15. If, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$x_n = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } n \text{ is odd,} \\ 1, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

then $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, 1) = d(1, 1)$, but $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m)$ does not exist.

Proposition 1.2.5 [140] *Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in a metric-like space (X, d) such that $x_n \rightarrow x$ and $d(x, x) = 0$. Then, for every $y \in X$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y) = d(x, y)$.*

1.2.5 Partial b -Metric Space

Shukla [133], in 2014, presented the notion of partial b -metric as an extension of partial metric and b -metric.

Definition 1.2.18. [133] Let X be a non-empty set. Then, a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *partial b -metric* if there exists a number $s \geq 1$ such that for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(p_b1) \quad x = y \Leftrightarrow d(x, x) = d(x, y) = d(y, y);$$

$$(p_b2) \quad d(x, x) \leq d(x, y);$$

$$(p_b3) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(p_b4) \quad d(x, y) \leq s(d(x, z) + d(z, y)) - d(z, z).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a *partial b -metric space*.

Every partial metric space and b -metric space are partial b -metric space, but converse is not true. See the following example:

Example: Let $X = [0, +\infty)$ and $P_b : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is such that $d(x, y) =$

$[\max\{x, y\}]^2 + |x - y|^2$, for all $x, y \in X$. Then (X, d) is a partial b -metric space on X with $s = 2 > 1$. But, d is not a b -metric as $d(1, 1) = 1 \neq 0$. Also, d is not a partial metric on X as for $x = 1, y = 2$ and $z = 3$, (p4) does not hold.

Shukla [133], also presented the concepts of convergent sequence, Cauchy sequence, and completeness in the framework of partial b -metric space analogous to that of partial metric space. Also, the concept of open set in the framework of partial b -metric space is defined as follows:

Definition 1.2.19. [133] Every partial b -metric d on X generates a topology τ_d on X with a base of the family of open d -balls $\{B_d(x, r) \mid x \in X, r > 0\}$, where $B_d(x, r) = \{y \in X \mid d(x, y) < d(x, x) + r\}$. Obviously, τ_d on partial b -metric space X is T_0 , but need not be T_1 .

1.2.6 b -Metric-Like Space

Alghamdi *et al.* [8] in 2013 introduced the concept of b -metric-like spaces that generalizes the notions of metric-like space and partial b -metric space.

Definition 1.2.20. [8] Let X be a non-empty set. Then, a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a b -metric-like if there exists a number $s \geq 1$ such that for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(b_{ml}1) \quad d(x, y) = 0 \Rightarrow x = y;$$

$$(b_{ml}2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(b_{ml}3) \quad d(x, y) \leq s(d(x, z) + d(z, y)).$$

In this case, the pair (X, d) is called a b -metric-like space.

Remark 1.2.21. Every metric-like space or partial b -metric space is a b -metric-like

space, but the converse is not true.

Example: Let $X = [0, +\infty)$ and let the function $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be defined by $d(x, y) = (x + y)^2$. Then (X, d) is a b -metric-like space with constant $s = 2$. For, $(b_{ml}3)$, let $x, y, z \in X$, then

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, y) &= (x + y)^2 \leq (x + z + z + y)^2 \\ &= (x + z)^2 + (z + y)^2 + 2(x + z)(z + y) \\ &\leq 2[(x + z)^2 + (z + y)^2] = 2[d(x, z) + d(z, y)]. \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, (X, d) is not a metric-like space as $d(1, 1) = 4 \not\leq 2 = d(1, 0) + d(0, 1)$, i.e., (m_l3) does not hold. Also, (X, d) is not a partial b -metric space as $d(2, 2) = 16 \not\leq 9 = d(2, 1)$, i.e., (p_b2) does not hold.

Alghamdi *et al.* [8], also introduced the concepts of convergent sequence, Cauchy sequence, and completeness in the framework of b -metric-like space as follows:

Definition 1.2.22. [8] Let (X, d) be a b -metric-like space and let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of points of X . A point $x \in X$ is said to be the *limit* of sequence $\{x_n\}$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x, x_n) = d(x, x)$, and we say that the sequence $\{x_n\}$ is *convergent to x* , and denote it by $x_n \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

Definition 1.2.23. [8] Let (X, d) be a b -metric-like space.

(i) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is called a *Cauchy sequence* if $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m)$ exists and is finite.

(ii) (X, d) is said to be *complete* if every Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X

converges to $x \in X$ so that $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = d(x, x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x)$.

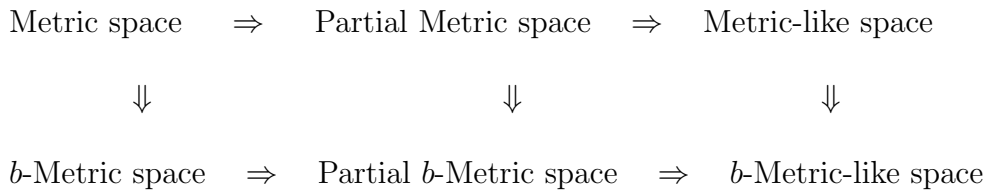
Alghamdi *et al.* [8], also proved the following proposition about the uniqueness of the limit of a sequence.

Proposition 1.2.6 [8] *Let (X, d) be a b -metric-like space with $s \geq 1$, and $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X such that for some $x \in X$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$. Then*

(i) *x is unique.*

(ii) *$\frac{1}{s}d(x, y) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y) \leq sd(x, y)$, for all $y \in X$.*

Sen *et al.* [128] gave the following diagram to compare various abstract spaces discussed so far.



1.2.7 Generalized Metric Space

After these extensions, in 2015, Jleli and Samet [67] introduced another interesting extension of metric space, as shown below:

Definition 1.2.24. [67] Let X be a non-empty set and $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a given mapping. For every $x \in X$, define the set

$$\mathcal{C}(d, X, x) = \left\{ \{x_n\} \subset X \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x) = 0 \right\}.$$

Then d is a *generalized metric* on X if there exists $C > 0$ such that the following conditions hold:

(D1) $(x, y) \in X \times X$, $d(x, y) = 0$ implies $x = y$;

(D2) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$, for all $(x, y) \in X \times X$;

(D3) if $\{x_n\} \in \mathcal{C}(d, X, x)$, then $d(x, y) \leq C \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y)$.

In this case, the pair (X, d) is a *generalized metric space*.

Example 1.2.25. [78] Let $X = \{0, 1\}$ and $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping defined by $d(0, 0) = 0$ and $d(0, 1) = d(1, 0) = d(1, 1) = +\infty$. Then (X, d) is a generalized metric space.

Definition 1.2.26. [67] Let (X, d) be a generalized metric space. Then:

(i) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is called a *Cauchy sequence* if $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = 0$.

(ii) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X *converges to* $x \in X$ if $\{x_n\} \in \mathcal{C}(d, X, x)$.

(iii) (X, d) is said to be *complete* if every Cauchy sequence in X is convergent to some element in X .

Proposition 1.2.7 [67] Let (X, d) be a generalized metric space. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X such that $\{x_n\}$ converges to some x in X and $\{x_n\}$ converges to some y in X , then $x = y$.

1.2.8 Partial JS-Metric Space

In 2019, Asim and Imdad [11] introduced partial JS-metric space to generalize partial metric space as:

Definition 1.2.27. [11] Let X be a non-empty set and $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a given mapping. For every $x \in X$, define the set

$$\mathcal{K}(d, X, x) = \left\{ \{x_n\} \subset X \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x) = d(x, x) \right\}.$$

Then d is a *partial JS-metric* on X if, for all $x, y \in X$, it satisfies the following conditions:

(D_p1) if $d(x, x) = d(y, y) = d(x, y)$, then $x = y$;

(D_p2) $d(x, x) \leq d(x, y)$;

(D_p3) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$;

(D_p4) there exists $C > 0$ such that if $(x, y) \in X \times X$, $\{x_n\} \in \mathcal{K}(d, X, x)$,

$$\text{then } d(x, y) \leq C \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y) + (C - 1)d(x, x).$$

The pair (X, d) is said to be *partial JS-metric space*.

Example 1.2.28. [11] Let $X = [0, 1]$ and $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping defined by

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} 20, & \text{if } (x, y) = (0, 1) \text{ or } (x, y) = (1, 0); \\ |x - y| + 3, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then (X, d) is a partial JS-metric space.

Definition 1.2.29. [11] Let (X, d) be a partial JS-metric space. Then:

(i) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is called a *Cauchy sequence* if $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m)$ exists and is finite.

(ii) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X *converges to* $x \in X$ if $\{x_n\} \in \mathcal{K}(d, X, x)$.

(iii) (X, d) is said to be *complete* if every Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X

$$\text{converges to } x \in X \text{ so that } \lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = d(x, x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x).$$

1.2.9 G -Metric Space

In 1992, the notion of D -metric space was introduced by Dhage [42]. Most of the fundamental concepts introduced by Dhage in [42] were later proved inappropriate by Mustafa and Sims [105], Naidu *et al.* ([109], [110]). Alternatively, in 2006 Mustafa and Sims [106] introduced the notion called G -metric space.

Definition 1.2.30. [106] Let X be a non-empty set and $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be a function satisfying:

- (G1) $G(x, y, z) = 0$ if $x = y = z$;
- (G2) $0 < G(x, x, y)$, for all $x, y \in X$ with $x \neq y$;
- (G3) $G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z)$, for all $x, y, z \in X$ with $y \neq z$;
- (G4) $G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots$ (symmetric in all three variables);
- (G5) $G(x, y, z) \leq G(x, a, a) + G(a, y, z)$, for all $x, y, z, a \in X$, (rectangle inequality).

Then the mapping G is called a *generalized metric* or a *G-metric* on X , and the pair (X, G) is a *G-metric space*. All above properties are satisfied when $G(x, y, z)$ is the perimeter of a triangle having vertices x, y, z in \mathbb{R}^2 . A *G-metric space* (X, G) is called **symmetric** if $G(x, y, y) = G(x, x, y)$, for all $x, y \in X$.

Example 1.2.31. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ be the set of real numbers.

Define $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as

$$G(x, y, z) = |x - y| + |y - z| + |z - x|, \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X.$$

Then G is a *G-metric* on X . Also, (X, G) is a symmetric *G-metric space*.

Example 1.2.32. [106] Let $X = \{a, b\}$ and define a map $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ by $G(a, a, a) = G(b, b, b) = 0$, $G(a, a, b) = 1$, $G(a, b, b) = 2$ and (G4) is assumed. Then (X, G) is a nonsymmetric *G-metric space*.

Following definitions and results are also presented by Mustafa and Sims [106].

Definition 1.2.33. [106] Let (X, G) be a *G-metric space*. Then, for $x_0 \in X$, $r > 0$, the *G-ball* with center x_0 and radius r is

$$B_G(x_0, r) = \{y \in X \mid G(x_0, y, y) < r\}.$$

Also, a subset A of X is said to be G -open if, for each $a \in A$, there exists $r > 0$ such that $B_G(a, r) \subseteq A$. The family of all G -open subsets of X is denoted by $\tau(G)$, called G -metric topology on X .

Definition 1.2.34. [106] Let (X, G) be a G -metric space. Then a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is said to be G -convergent to some $x \in X$ if, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a natural number n_0 such that $G(x_n, x_n, x) < \epsilon$, for all $n \geq n_0$.

Proposition 1.2.8 [106] Let (X, G) be a G -metric space. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (i) Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is G -convergent to x in X .
- (ii) $G(x_n, x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.
- (iii) $G(x_n, x, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.
- (iv) $G(x_n, x_m, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow +\infty$.

Definition 1.2.35. [106] Let (X, G) and (X', G') be two G -metric spaces. Then a mapping $f : X \rightarrow X'$ is said to be G -continuous at $x_0 \in X$ if, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$G'(f(x_0), f(x), f(x)) < \epsilon \quad \text{whenever} \quad G(x_0, x, x) < \delta, \quad \text{for all } x \in X..$$

Proposition 1.2.9 [106] Let (X, G) and (X', G') be two G -metric spaces. Then a mapping $f : X \rightarrow X'$ is G -continuous at $x \in X$ if and only if whenever sequence $\{x_n\}$ is G -convergent to x , $\{f(x_n)\}$ is G -convergent to $f(x)$.

Definition 1.2.36. [106] Let (X, G) be a G -metric space. Then a sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n \in X$, is said to be a G -Cauchy sequence if, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $G(x_n, x_m, x_l) < \epsilon$, for all $n, m, l \geq n_0$.

Proposition 1.2.10 [106] Let (X, G) be a G -metric space. Then following statements are equivalent.

- (i) Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is G -Cauchy sequence in (X, G) .
- (ii) For each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $G(x_n, x_m, x_m) < \epsilon$, for all $n, m \geq n_0$.

Proposition 1.2.11 [106] Every G -convergent sequence in a G -metric space is a G -Cauchy sequence.

Definition 1.2.37. [106] A G -metric space (X, G) is said to be G -complete if every G -Cauchy sequence is a G -convergent sequence.

1.2.10 GP -Metric Space

On the other hand, in 2011, Zand and Nezhad [144] introduced GP -metric space as a generalization of partial metric space and G -metric space.

Definition 1.2.38. [144] Let X be a non-empty set. Let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be a function such that the following conditions hold:

- (G_p1) $x = y = z$ if $G(x, y, z) = G(x, x, x) = G(y, y, y) = G(z, z, z)$;
- (G_p2) $G(x, x, x) \leq G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z)$, for all $x, y, z \in X$;
- (G_p3) $G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots$ (symmetric in all three variables);
- (G_p4) $G(x, y, z) \leq G(x, a, a) + G(a, y, z) - G(a, a, a)$, for all $x, y, z, a \in X$.

Then the function G is called a GP -metric on X , and the pair (X, G) is a GP -metric space.

Later on, in 2013, Parvaneh *et al.* [114] noticed that GP -metric spaces are symmetric due to (G_p2) . Thus, GP -metric spaces are not a generalization of those G -metric spaces, which are nonsymmetric (see Example 1.2.32). In view of this,

Parvaneh *et al.* [114] redefined GP -metric space by changing the inequality (G_p2) as:

$$(G_p2') \quad G(x, x, x) \leq G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z), \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X \text{ with } y \neq z;$$

Example 1.2.39. [144] Let $X = [0, +\infty)$ and define a map $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as

$$G(x, y, z) = \max\{x, y, z\}, \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X.$$

Then (X, G) is a GP -metric space, but is not a G -metric space as $G(1, 1, 1) = 1 \neq 0$, i.e., $(G1)$ does not hold.

Also, in [144], the concepts of open ball and convergent sequence are presented as follows:

Definition 1.2.40. [144] Let (X, G) be a GP -metric space. Then, for $x_0 \in X$, $r > 0$, the GP -ball with center x_0 and radius r is

$$B_{GP}(x_0, r) = \{y \in X \mid G(x_0, y, y) < r + G(x_0, x_0, x_0)\}.$$

Definition 1.2.41. [144] Let (X, G) be a GP -metric space. Then a sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n \in X$, is said to be GP -convergent to some $x \in X$ if $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x) = G(x, x, x)$.

The concepts of Cauchy sequence and completeness in GP -metric space are presented by Aydi *et al.* [14] as follows:

Definition 1.2.42. [14] Let (X, G) be a GP -metric space. Then:

(i) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is called a GP -Cauchy sequence if $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_m)$

exists and is finite.

(ii) (X, G) is said to be *GP-complete* if every *GP*-Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X

GP-converges to some $x \in X$ with $\lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_m) = G(x, x, x)$.

Gajić *et al.* [51] presented the following results about convergent sequences and Cauchy sequences in *GP*-metric space.

Proposition 1.2.12 [51] *Let (X, G) be a symmetric GP-metric space. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

(i) Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is *GP*-convergent to x in X .

(ii) $G(x_n, x_n, x) \rightarrow G(x, x, x)$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

(iii) $G(x_n, x, x) \rightarrow G(x, x, x)$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

Remark 1.2.43. [51] In above proposition, if (X, G) is a nonsymmetric *GP*-metric space, then the result does not hold. This can be shown in the following example:

Example: Let $X = \{a, b\}$ and define a map $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ by $G(a, a, a) = 0, G(b, b, b) = G(a, a, b) = 1, G(a, b, b) = 2$ and (G_p3) is assumed. Then (X, G) is a nonsymmetric *GP*-metric space. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}, x_n \in X$ by $x_n = a$, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then

$$G(x_n, x_n, b) = G(a, a, b) \rightarrow 1 = G(b, b, b),$$

while

$$G(x_n, b, b) = G(a, b, b) \rightarrow 2 \neq G(b, b, b).$$

Proposition 1.2.13 [51] *Let (X, G) be a symmetric GP-metric space. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

(i) $\lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_m) = r < +\infty$.

(ii) $\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_l) = r < +\infty$.

More about GP -metric spaces can be studied in ([10], [14], [19], [21], [37], [51], [118], [119], [143]).

1.2.11 G_b -Metric Space or Generalized b -Metric Space

In 2013, Aghajani *et al.* [4] initiated the concept of G_b -metric space by combining the concepts of G -metric space and b -metric space as:

Definition 1.2.44. [4] Let X be a non-empty set and $s \geq 1$ be a real number. Let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be a function such that:

$$(G_b1) \quad G(x, y, z) = 0 \text{ if } x = y = z;$$

$$(G_b2) \quad 0 < G(x, x, y), \text{ for all } x, y \in X \text{ with } x \neq y;$$

$$(G_b3) \quad G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z), \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X \text{ with } y \neq z;$$

$$(G_b4) \quad G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots \text{ (symmetric in all three variables);}$$

$$(G_b5) \quad G(x, y, z) \leq s[G(x, a, a) + G(a, y, z)], \text{ for all } x, y, z, a \in X.$$

Then the function G is called a *generalized b -metric* or a *G_b -metric* on X , and the pair (X, G) is a *generalized b -metric space* or *G_b -metric space*. Every G -metric space is a generalized b -metric space with $s = 1$, but the converse is not true in general.

Example 1.2.45. [4] Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ be the set of real numbers. Define $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as

$$G(x, y, z) = (|x - y| + |y - z| + |z - x|)^2, \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X.$$

Then (X, G) is a generalized b -metric space with $s = 2$. But (X, G) is not a G -metric space as for $x = 1$, $y = 2$, $z = 3$, and $a = 2$, $(G5)$ is not satisfied.

Following definitions and results are also presented by Aghajani *et al.* [4]:

Definition 1.2.46. [4] Let (X, G) be a generalized b -metric space. Then, for $x_0 \in X$ and $r > 0$, the G_b -ball with center x_0 and radius r is

$$B_G(x_0, r) = \{y \in X \mid G(x_0, y, y) < r\}.$$

Also, the family of all G_b -balls in X is a base of a topology $\tau(G)$ which is called G_b -metric topology.

Definition 1.2.47. [4] Let (X, G) be a generalized b -metric space. Then a sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n \in X$, is said to be G_b -convergent to some $x \in X$ if, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a natural number n_0 such that $G(x_n, x_m, x) < \epsilon$, for all $n, m \geq n_0$.

Proposition 1.2.14 [4] *Let (X, G) be a generalized b -metric space. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

- (i) Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is G_b -convergent to x in X .
- (ii) $G(x_n, x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.
- (iii) $G(x_n, x, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

Definition 1.2.48. [4] Let (X, G) be a generalized b -metric space. Then a sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n \in X$, is said to be a G_b -Cauchy sequence if, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $G(x_n, x_m, x_l) < \epsilon$, for all $n, m, l \geq n_0$.

Proposition 1.2.15 [4] *Let (X, G) be a generalized b -metric space. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

- (i) Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is G_b -Cauchy sequence in (X, G) .
- (ii) For each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $G(x_n, x_m, x_m) < \epsilon$, for all $n, m \geq n_0$.

Proposition 1.2.16 [4] *Every G_b -convergent sequence in a generalized b -metric space is a G_b -Cauchy sequence.*

In general, a generalized b -metric need not be a continuous function. The following example illustrates this fact.

Example 1.2.49. [102] Consider b -metric space (X, d) as in Example 1.2.8. Define $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as

$$G(x, y, z) = \max\{d(x, y), d(y, z), d(z, x)\}, \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X.$$

Then (X, G) is a generalized b -metric space with $s = \frac{5}{2}$. Let $x_n = 2n$ for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Then

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(2n, +\infty, +\infty) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{1}{2n} = 0,$$

that is, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_n = +\infty$, but $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, 1, 1) = 2 \neq 5 = G(+\infty, 1, 1)$.

Although generalized b -metric is not a continuous function (in general), we still have the following result due to Roshan *et al.* [124].

Lemma 1.2.17 [124] *Let (X, G) be a generalized b -metric space with $s \geq 1$.*

(I) *Suppose that sequences $\{x_n\}$, $\{y_n\}$ and $\{z_n\}$ are G_b -convergent to x, y and $z \in X$, respectively. Then*

$$\frac{1}{s^3}G(x, y, z) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y_n, z_n) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y_n, z_n) \leq s^3G(x, y, z).$$

(II) *If $z_n = c$ is constant, then*

$$\frac{1}{s^2}G(x, y, c) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y_n, c) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y_n, c) \leq s^2G(x, y, c).$$

(III) *If $y_n = b$ and $z_n = c$ are constant, then*

$$\frac{1}{s}G(x, b, c) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, b, c) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, b, c) \leq sG(x, b, c).$$

More details on generalized b -metric spaces can be studied in ([4],[15], [46], [57], [65], [82], [86], [100], [102], [124], [127], [132]).

1.3. Various Mappings Related to Fixed Point Theory

In this section, we present various types of mappings related to fixed point theory. In 1922, Banach [18] defined contraction for a metric space. This concept has a broad area of applications till today and has been generalized in various abstract spaces.

Definition 1.3.1. [18] Let (X, d) be a metric space, then a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ is said to be *Lipschitzian* if there exists a constant $\alpha \geq 0$ such that

$$d(T(x), T(y)) \leq \alpha d(x, y), \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X.$$

It is noticed that a Lipschitzian map is evidently continuous. The smallest value of α , for which above condition holds true, is called the *Lipschitz constant* for T ; and it is denoted by L . If $L < 1$, the mapping T is said to be a **contraction mapping**; whereas if $L = 1$, the mapping T is **nonexpansive**.

Example: Let $X = \mathbb{R}^2$ equipped with Euclidean metric d and $T : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ be a mapping such that $T(x) = \frac{1}{2}x$, for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$, where $x = (x_1, x_2)$. Then T is a contraction on the set X .

The main drawback of the results related to contraction mapping was the requirement of a continuous mapping. This problem was resolved by Kannan [75] in 1968. He proved fixed point results for discontinuous mappings, although these maps are continuous at their fixed points. His paper was widely used in numerous

fixed point theorems for the next two decades. Kannan established the result using the following contractive condition:

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \lambda[d(x, Tx) + d(y, Ty)],$$

for all $x, y \in X$, where $\lambda \in [0, \frac{1}{2})$.

After that, Chatterjea [31] and Reich [121] presented the following results by using modified contractive conditions of Kannan.

Theorem 1.3.1 [31] *Let (X, d) be a complete metric space and T be a self-mapping on X satisfying*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \lambda[d(x, Ty) + d(y, Tx)],$$

for all $x, y \in X$, where $\lambda \in [0, \frac{1}{2})$. Then T possesses a unique fixed point in X .

Theorem 1.3.2 [121] *Let (X, d) be a complete metric space and T be a self-mapping on X satisfying*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \alpha d(x, Tx) + \beta d(y, Ty) + \gamma d(x, y),$$

for all $x, y \in X$, where α, β, γ are non-negative with $\alpha + \beta + \gamma < 1$. Then T possesses a unique fixed point in X .

Hardy and Rogers [61] in 1973, proved fixed point result with the following contractive condition:

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \alpha[d(x, Tx) + d(y, Ty)] + \beta[d(x, Ty) + d(y, Tx)] + \gamma d(x, y),$$

for all $x, y \in X$, where α, β, γ are non-negative with $2\alpha + 2\beta + \gamma < 1$.

Later on, in 1974, Ćirić [36] defined **quasi-contraction** in metric spaces as:

Definition 1.3.2. If (X, d) is a metric space, then a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ is said to be a *quasi-contraction mapping* if there exists a constant $q \in [0, 1)$ such that,

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq q \max\{d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), d(x, Ty), d(y, Tx)\},$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

Rhoades [122] presented a comparison among various contractive mappings.

On the other hand, in 1976, Jungck [70] initiated the study of common fixed points. Two self-mappings f and g on the set X have a *common fixed point* x in X if $fx = gx = x$. Jungck [70] generalized the Banach contraction principle by proving a common fixed point theorem for commuting maps. Sessa [129], in 1982, further generalized the concept of commutativity by giving the notion of weakly commuting mappings.

Definition 1.3.3. [129] Two self-mappings T and S on a metric space (X, d) are said to be *weakly commuting* if, $d(TSx, STx) \leq d(Tx, Sx)$, for all x in X .

In 1986, Jungck [71] coined the term compatible mappings in order to generalize the notion of weakly commutativity.

Definition 1.3.4. [71] Two self-mappings T and S on a metric space (X, d) are said to be *compatible* if, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(TSx_n, STx_n) = 0$ whenever $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence in X such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} Tx_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} Sx_n = t$, for some $t \in X$.

Further, Jungck and Rhoades [73], in 1998, weakened the concept of compatible mappings by giving the notion of weakly compatible mappings as:

Definition 1.3.5. [73] Two self-mappings T and S on a set X are said to be *weakly compatible* if, $TSx = STx$ whenever $Tx = Sx$, for some $x \in X$, i.e., if T and S

commute at their coincidence point. Here, x is a *coincidence point* of T and S , and the common value (i.e., $Tx = Sx$) is called a *point of coincidence* of T and S .

Thereafter, many fixed point results have been obtained for weakly compatible mappings, see ([1], [5], [35], [38], [69], [72], [73], [117]).

1.4. Objectives of the study

In specific terms, the objectives of this study are as follows:

Objective 1: To introduce new space(s) and study their properties.

Objective 2: To study the existence and uniqueness of fixed points/common fixed points for various mappings in newly defined space(s) and already known abstract spaces and their applications.

In view of these objectives, new abstract spaces, named generalized G_b -metric space and G^* -metric space, have been introduced in Chapter 2 and Chapter 3 respectively. Some properties of these spaces have also been studied in these chapters. Also, various fixed point results are proved in newly defined spaces in Chapter 2 and Chapter 4. Furthermore, we have introduced a new class of functions in Chapter 5. Using this new class of functions, some fixed point/common fixed point results are also studied in the context of b -metric spaces and b -metric-like spaces in Chapter 5 and Chapter 6 respectively.

1.5. Thesis Organization

Present thesis embodies six chapters. Each chapter is divided into various sections.

The number for Theorem 2.4.1 indicates Theorem/Lemma/Proposition/Corollary 1 of section 4 in Chapter 2. The number for Example 4.3.5 indicates Remark/Definition/

Example 5 of Section 3 in Chapter 4. As usual, the numbers in square brackets refer to the references listed in the bibliography.

In **Chapter 2**, inspired by the concepts of b -metric space, G -metric space and generalized b -metric space, a new abstract space (named generalized G_b -metric space) has been introduced. Some basic concepts and properties of new space has been studied. Various fixed point theorems in the framework of generalized G_b -metric space have been proved in this chapter. Multiple examples are presented for the authenticity of the main results. After that, an application of one of our main results is also given.

In **Chapter 3**, another new class of abstract spaces (named G^* -metric space) has been introduced to generalize generalized G_b -metric spaces and GP -metric spaces. Some basic concepts in G^* -metric space have been studied. Some new types of Cauchy sequences have been noticed in this new abstract space. Various examples are also presented for these new concepts.

Chapter 4 deals with fixed point results for contraction and quasi-contraction type mappings in G^* -metric space. As a consequence of these results, some fixed point theorems are deduced in the framework of generalized G_b -metric space. Some examples are also presented in support of the main results and consequences.

In **Chapter 5**, a new class of functions has been introduced. With the help of this new class of functions, some new contractive mappings in b -metric spaces have been introduced. We establish fixed point results for these new contractive mappings in b -metric spaces. As a consequence of the main results, various fixed point theorems are also presented in this chapter. An example is also illustrated in

support of our results. Towards the end of the chapter, an application is provided to prove the uniqueness of solution to a system of simultaneous linear equations.

The aim of **Chapter 6** is to extend the main results of Chapter 5 in the framework of b -metric-like spaces. Also, some common fixed point theorems are presented for weakly compatible mappings. Suitable examples are provided for the main results. Some corollaries related to the main results are also presented towards the end of this chapter.

The thesis is concluded by listing the Bibliography with various publications cited in this research work.

Generalized G_b -Metric Space and Related Fixed Point Results

2.1. Introduction

The notion of metric space was introduced by Fréchet [48] in 1906 as an extension of usual distance. By weakening the triangle inequality in metric space, Bakhtin [17] studied the concept of b -metric space as:

Definition 2.1.1. [17] Let X be a non-empty set. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a b -metric if, for all $x, y, z \in X$, the following conditions hold:

$$(bm1) \quad d(x, y) = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = y;$$

$$(bm2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(bm3) \quad d(x, y) \leq 2(d(x, z) + d(z, y)).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a b -metric space.

In 1998, Czerwik [40] presented the concept of b -metric space in more general form as shown below:

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Definition 2.1.2. [40] Let X be a non-empty set and $s \geq 1$ be a given real. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *b-metric* if, for all $x, y, z \in X$, the following conditions hold:

$$(b1) \quad d(x, y) = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = y;$$

$$(b2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(b3) \quad d(x, y) \leq s(d(x, z) + d(z, y)).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a *b-metric space*. Clearly, the family of *b-metric spaces* is larger than the family of metric spaces. For $s = 1$, *b-metric space* is a metric space.

Example 2.1.3. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ be the set of real numbers. Define $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as

$$d(x, y) = |x - y|^2 \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X.$$

Then d is a *b-metric* with coefficient $s = 2$.

In the last decade, the concept of metric space has been generalized in many ways (see, for detail, [8], [11], [60], [67], [68], [89], [133]). In 1992, the notion of *D-metric space* was introduced by Dhage [42]. Most of the fundamental concepts introduced by Dhage in [42] were proved inappropriate by Mustafa and Sims [105], Naidu *et al.* ([109], [110]). Alternatively, in 2006 Mustafa and Sims [106] introduced the notion called *G-metric space*.

Definition 2.1.4. [106] Let X be a non-empty set and $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be a function satisfying the following conditions:

$$(G1) \quad G(x, y, z) = 0 \text{ if } x = y = z;$$

$$(G2) \quad 0 < G(x, x, y), \text{ for all } x, y \in X \text{ with } x \neq y;$$

(G3) $G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z)$, for all $x, y, z \in X$ with $y \neq z$;

(G4) $G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots$ (symmetric in all three variables);

(G5) $G(x, y, z) \leq G(x, a, a) + G(a, y, z)$, for all $x, y, z, a \in X$, (rectangle inequality).

Then the mapping G is called a *generalized metric* or a *G-metric* on X , and the pair (X, G) is called a *G-metric space*.

Example 2.1.5. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ be the set of real numbers.

Define $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as

$$G(x, y, z) = |x - y| + |y - z| + |z - x|, \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X.$$

Then G is a *G-metric* on X .

Various fixed point results in *G-metric* space can be found in ([66], [97], [98], [99], [101], [104], [107]). In 2013, Aghajani *et al.* [4] initiated the concept of *G_b-metric* space by combining the concepts of *G-metric* space and *b-metric* space as:

Definition 2.1.6. [4] Let X be a non-empty set and $s \geq 1$ be a real number. Let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be a function such that:

(G_b1) $G(x, y, z) = 0$ if $x = y = z$;

(G_b2) $0 < G(x, x, y)$, for all $x, y \in X$ with $x \neq y$;

(G_b3) $G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z)$, for all $x, y, z \in X$ with $y \neq z$;

(G_b4) $G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots$ (symmetric in all three variables);

(G_b5) $G(x, y, z) \leq s[G(x, a, a) + G(a, y, z)]$, for all $x, y, z, a \in X$.

Then the function G is called a *generalized b-metric* or a *G_b-metric* on X , and the pair (X, G) is a *generalized b-metric space* or *G_b-metric space*. Every *G-metric* space is a *generalized b-metric* space with $s = 1$, but the converse is not true in general.

Example 2.1.7. [4] Let $X = \mathbb{R}$ be the set of real numbers. Define $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as

$$G(x, y, z) = \frac{1}{9}(|x - y| + |y - z| + |z - x|)^2, \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X.$$

Then G is a generalized b -metric on X .

The aim of this chapter is to generalize the concept of G_b -metric space of Aghajani *et al.* [4]. This chapter is organized as follows: In section 2.2, the concept of generalized G_b -metric space has been introduced with a suitable example. Also, some basic properties of this space has been studied in this section. Section 2.3 consists of some lemmas which are needed in the main results of this chapter. In section 2.4, some fixed point results have been established in context of newly defined space. Section 2.5 deals with an application of our main result.

2.2. Generalized G_b -Metric Space and its Basic Properties

Aghajani *et al.* [4] introduced the concept of G_b -metric space. In [64], Jain and Kaur have also used the name G_b -metric space, but for some another abstract space. We, now rename it as generalized G_b -metric space which is defined as:

Definition 2.2.1. Let X be a non-empty set and $s \geq 1$ be a real number. Let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be a function satisfying the following conditions:

$$(gG_b1) \quad G(x, y, z) = 0 \text{ if } x = y = z;$$

$$(gG_b2) \quad 0 < G(x, x, y), \text{ for all } x, y \in X \text{ with } x \neq y;$$

$$(gG_b3) \quad G(x, x, y) \leq s G(x, y, z), \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X \text{ with } y \neq z;$$

(gG_b4) $G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots$ (symmetric in all three variables);

(gG_b5) $G(x, y, z) \leq s[G(x, a, a) + G(a, y, z)]$, for all $x, y, z, a \in X$.

Then the function G is called a *generalized G_b -metric* on X , and the pair (X, G) is a *generalized G_b -metric space*. Clearly, every generalized b -metric space is a generalized G_b -metric space, but the converse is not true. The following example depicts a generalized G_b -metric space that is not a generalized b -metric space.

Example 2.2.2. Define a mapping $G : \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R} \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as :

$$G(x, y, z) = |x - y|^2 + |y - z|^2 + |z - x|^2, \text{ for all } x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Then (\mathbb{R}, G) is a generalized G_b -metric space with $s = 2$, but (\mathbb{R}, G) is not a generalized b -metric space. For this, let $x = 1$, $y = 3$, $z = 2$, then $G(x, y, z) = |1 - 3|^2 + |3 - 2|^2 + |2 - 1|^2 = 6$ and $G(x, x, y) = 2|1 - 3|^2 = 8$.

Thus, $G(x, x, y) \not\leq G(x, y, z)$, i.e., (G_b3) does not hold.

We now present some basic properties of generalized G_b -metric space. The proofs of these results are trivial and straightforward.

Proposition 2.2.1 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space. Then mapping $d_G : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ defined by*

$$d_G(x, y) = G(x, x, y) + G(x, y, y), \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X,$$

is a b -metric on X .

Proposition 2.2.2 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space with constant $s \geq 1$.*

Then for all $x, y \in X$,

(i) $G(x, y, z) = 0$ implies $x = y = z$;

$$(ii) \quad G(x, y, y) \leq 2sG(x, x, y);$$

$$(iii) \quad \frac{2s+1}{2s}G(x, y, y) \leq d_G(x, y) \leq (1 + 2s)G(x, y, y).$$

Definition 2.2.3. Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space. Then for $x_0 \in X$, $r > 0$, the *open ball* in (X, G) with center x_0 and radius r is defined as:

$$B_G(x_0, r) = \{y \in X \mid G(x_0, y, y) < r\}.$$

Proposition 2.2.3 Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space with constant $s \geq 1$.

Then for $x_0 \in X$ and $r > 0$,

$$B_G(x_0, r) \subseteq B_{d_G}(x_0, (1 + 2s)r) \subseteq B_G(x_0, (1 + 2s)r).$$

Definition 2.2.4. Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space. Then a subset A of X is said to be a *generalized G_b -open set* if, for each $a \in A$, there exists $r > 0$ such that $B_G(a, r) \subseteq A$.

Definition 2.2.5. Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space. Then a sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n \in X$, is said to be a *generalized G_b -convergent sequence* in X if there exists some $x \in X$ such that for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a natural number n_0 such that $G(x_n, x_n, x) < \epsilon$, for all $n \geq n_0$.

Proposition 2.2.4 Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space. Then the following statements are equivalent.

- (i) Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is convergent to x in X .
- (ii) $G(x_n, x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.
- (iii) $G(x_n, x, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.
- (iv) $G(x_n, x_m, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow +\infty$.
- (v) $d_G(x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

Definition 2.2.6. Let (X, G) and (X', G') be two generalized G_b -metric spaces. Then a mapping $f : X \rightarrow X'$ is said to be *generalized G_b -continuous at $x_0 \in X$* if for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$G'(f(x_0), f(x), f(x)) < \epsilon \text{ whenever } G(x_0, x, x) < \delta, \text{ for all } x \in X.$$

Proposition 2.2.5 *Let (X, G) and (X', G') be two generalized G_b -metric spaces. Then a mapping $f : X \rightarrow X'$ is generalized G_b -continuous at a point $x \in X$ if and only if generalized G_b -convergence of $\{x_n\}$ to x implies generalized G_b -convergence of $\{f(x_n)\}$ to $f(x)$.*

Definition 2.2.7. Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space. Then a sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n \in X$, is said to be a *generalized G_b -Cauchy sequence* if, for each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $G(x_n, x_m, x_l) < \epsilon$, for all $n, m, l \geq n_0$. In this case, we simply say that sequence $\{x_n\}$ is a *Cauchy sequence in (X, G)* .

Proposition 2.2.6 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space. Then the following statements are equivalent.*

- (i) *Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is Cauchy sequence in (X, G) .*
- (ii) *For each $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $G(x_n, x_m, x_m) < \epsilon$, for all $n, m \geq n_0$.*
- (iii) *Sequence $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in b -metric space (X, d_G) .*

Proposition 2.2.7 *Every generalized G_b -convergent sequence is a generalized G_b -Cauchy sequence.*

Definition 2.2.8. A generalized G_b -metric space (X, G) is said to be *generalized G_b -complete* if every generalized G_b -Cauchy sequence is a generalized G_b -convergent sequence.

Example 2.2.9. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$, and $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be defined as :

$$G(x, y, z) = |x - y|^2 + |y - z|^2 + |z - x|^2, \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Then (\mathbb{R}, G) is a generalized G_b -metric space with $s = 2$. Further, it is easy to prove that (\mathbb{R}, G) is generalized G_b -complete with the help of Proposition 2.2.4 and Proposition 2.2.6.

2.3. Lemmas

The following lemmas are needed for the proof of the main results of this chapter:

Lemma 2.3.1 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space with constant $s \geq 1$ and let $\{x_n\}$ be any sequence in (X, G) . Then*

$$G(x_0, x_k, x_k) \leq s^n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} G(x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+1}),$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 2^n\}$.

Proof. We shall prove the result by induction. Let $P(n)$ be the statement:

$$G(x_0, x_k, x_k) \leq s^n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} G(x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+1}), \quad \text{for every } n \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 2^n\}.$$

It is easy to prove that $P(0)$ and $P(1)$ are true. Now, we show that $P(n)$ implies $P(n+1)$.

Case 1: If $k \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, 2^n\}$, then using $P(n)$ and $s \geq 1$, we have

$$G(x_0, x_k, x_k) \leq s^n \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} G(x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+1}) \leq s^{n+1} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} G(x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+1}).$$

Case 2: If $k \in \{2^n + 1, 2^n + 2, 2^n + 3, \dots, 2^{n+1}\}$, then using $P(n)$, we get

$$\begin{aligned} G(x_0, x_k, x_k) &\leq s(G(x_0, x_{2^n}, x_{2^n}) + G(x_{2^n}, x_k, x_k)) \\ &\leq s \left(s^n \sum_{i=0}^{2^n-1} G(x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+1}) + s^n \sum_{i=2^n}^{k-1} G(x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+1}) \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$= s^{n+1} \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} G(x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+1}),$$

which implies that $P(n+1)$ holds true. \square

Lemma 2.3.2 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space with constant $s \geq 1$ and let $\{x_n\}$ be any sequence in (X, G) such that*

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq kG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n),$$

for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and for some $k \in [0, 1)$, then $\{x_n\}$ is a generalized G_b -Cauchy sequence.

Proof. If $k = 0$, then obviously, $\{x_n\}$ is a generalized G_b -Cauchy sequence. Now, let $k \in (0, 1)$; and on applying induction on the given condition, we get

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq k^n G(x_0, x_1, x_1). \quad (2.3.1)$$

Let $m, l \in \mathbb{N}$ with $l \geq 2$ and $p = \lceil \log_2 l \rceil$. Consider

$$\begin{aligned} & G(x_{m+1}, x_{m+l}, x_{m+l}) \\ & \leq sG(x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}, x_{m+2}) + sG(x_{m+2}, x_{m+l}, x_{m+l}) \\ & \leq sG(x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}, x_{m+2}) + s^2G(x_{m+2}, x_{m+2^2}, x_{m+2^2}) + s^2G(x_{m+2^2}, x_{m+l}, x_{m+l}) \\ & \leq sG(x_{m+1}, x_{m+2}, x_{m+2}) + s^2G(x_{m+2}, x_{m+2^2}, x_{m+2^2}) + s^3G(x_{m+2^2}, x_{m+2^3}, x_{m+2^3}) + \\ & \quad s^3G(x_{m+2^3}, x_{m+l}, x_{m+l}) \\ & \leq \cdots \leq \sum_{n=1}^p s^n G(x_{m+2^{n-1}}, x_{m+2^n}, x_{m+2^n}) + s^{p+1}G(x_{m+2^p}, x_{m+l}, x_{m+l}) \\ & \leq \sum_{n=1}^p s^{2n} \left(\sum_{i=m}^{m+2^{n-1}-1} G(x_{2^{n-1}+i}, x_{2^{n-1}+i+1}, x_{2^{n-1}+i+1}) \right) + \\ & \quad s^{2(p+1)} \left(\sum_{i=m}^{m+l-2^p-1} G(x_{2^p+i}, x_{2^p+i+1}, x_{2^p+i+1}) \right) \\ & \leq \sum_{n=1}^{p+1} s^{2n} \left(\sum_{i=m}^{m+2^{n-1}-1} G(x_{2^{n-1}+i}, x_{2^{n-1}+i+1}, x_{2^{n-1}+i+1}) \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\leq G(x_0, x_1, x_1) \sum_{n=1}^{p+1} s^{2n} \left(\sum_{i=0}^{2^{n-1}-1} k^{m+2^{n-1}+i} \right) \\
&\leq \frac{G(x_0, x_1, x_1) k^m}{1-k} \sum_{n=1}^{p+1} s^{2n} k^{2^{n-1}} \\
&\leq \frac{G(x_0, x_1, x_1) k^m}{1-k} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} k^{2n \log_k s + 2^{n-1}}.
\end{aligned}$$

Since $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (2n \log_k s + 2^{n-1} - n) = +\infty$, so for $\lambda > 0$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $2n \log_k s + 2^{n-1} - n > \lambda$, for all $n \geq n_0$;

which implies that

$$k^{2n \log_k s + 2^{n-1}} \leq k^{\lambda+n}, \quad \text{for all } n \geq n_0.$$

Hence, the series $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} k^{2n \log_k s + 2^{n-1}}$ is convergent and let its sum be μ , then

$$G(x_{m+1}, x_{m+l}, x_{m+l}) \leq \frac{G(x_0, x_1, x_1) k^m \mu}{1-k}, \quad (2.3.2)$$

for all $m, l \in \mathbb{N}$. But $k \in (0, 1)$, so by using Proposition 2.2.6, $\{x_n\}$ is a generalized G_b -Cauchy sequence. \square

2.4. Fixed Point Theorems in Context of Generalized G_b -Metric Spaces

Main results of this section are the following theorems:

Theorem 2.4.1 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s \geq 1$ and let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$G(Tx, Ty, Tz) \leq kG(x, y, z), \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X,$$

where $k \in [0, \frac{1}{s})$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = T^n(x_0), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$,

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq kG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n).$$

On using induction, we get

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq k^n G(x_0, x_1, x_1).$$

For $n, m \in \mathbb{N}$ with $n < m$, consider

$$\begin{aligned} & G(x_n, x_m, x_m) \\ & \leq s[G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + G(x_{n+1}, x_m, x_m)] \\ & \leq sG(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + s^2[G(x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}, x_{n+2}) + G(x_{n+2}, x_m, x_m)] \\ & \leq \cdots \leq sG(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + s^2G(x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}, x_{n+2}) + \cdots + s^{m-n}G(x_{m-1}, x_m, x_m) \\ & \leq (sk^n + s^2k^{n+1} + \cdots + s^{m-n}k^{m-1})G(x_0, x_1, x_1) \\ & \leq \frac{sk^n}{1 - sk}G(x_0, x_1, x_1). \end{aligned}$$

This implies that $G(x_n, x_m, x_m) \rightarrow 0$ as $n, m \rightarrow +\infty$.

Hence, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, G) . But (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space, therefore, there exists $x' \in X$ such that sequence $\{x_n\}$ converges to x' . Therefore

$$T(x') = T(\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} T(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_{n+1} = x'.$$

This implies that x' is a fixed point of T .

Let y be another fixed point of T . Then

$$G(x', y, y) = G(Tx', Ty, Ty) \leq kG(x', y, y)$$

which implies that $G(x', y, y) = 0$ as $k \in [0, 1)$, therefore, $x' = y$, that is, x' is a unique fixed point of T . \square

Example 2.4.1. Let $X = \mathbb{R}$, and $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be defined as :

$$G(x, y, z) = |x - y|^2 + |y - z|^2 + |z - x|^2, \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

Then (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space with $s = 2$.

Define a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ by

$$T(x) = \frac{x}{2}, \quad \text{for all } x \in X.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} G(Tx, Ty, Tz) &= G\left(\frac{x}{2}, \frac{y}{2}, \frac{z}{2}\right) \\ &= \left|\frac{x}{2} - \frac{y}{2}\right|^2 + \left|\frac{y}{2} - \frac{z}{2}\right|^2 + \left|\frac{z}{2} - \frac{x}{2}\right|^2 \\ &\leq kG(x, y, z), \end{aligned}$$

where $k = \frac{1}{4} \in [0, \frac{1}{s})$. Also, T has a unique fixed point, namely 0.

Next theorem is an extension of Theorem 2.4.1 as the interval $[0, \frac{1}{s})$ is extended to $[0, 1)$.

Theorem 2.4.2 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s \geq 1$ and let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$G(Tx, Ty, Tz) \leq kG(x, y, z), \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X, \quad (2.4.2)$$

where $k \in [0, 1)$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = T^n(x_0), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq kG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n),$$

so by the use of Lemma 2.3.2, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, G) . But (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space, therefore, there exists $x' \in X$ such that sequence $\{x_n\}$ converges to x' . Therefore

$$T(x') = T(\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} T(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_{n+1} = x'.$$

This implies that x' is a fixed point of T .

Let y be another fixed point of T . Then

$$G(x', y, y) = G(Tx', Ty, Ty) \leq kG(x', y, y)$$

which implies that $G(x', y, y) = 0$ as $k \in [0, 1)$, therefore, $x' = y$, that is, x' is a unique fixed point of T . □

In the following examples, it has been shown that the conditions of Theorem 2.4.2 are satisfied, but not of Theorem 2.4.1.

Example 2.4.3. Consider the generalized G_b -complete metric space (X, G) as described in Example 2.2.9. Let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping defined by

$$T(x) = \frac{3x}{4}, \quad \text{for all } x \in X.$$

Then

$$\begin{aligned} G(Tx, Ty, Tz) &= G\left(\frac{3x}{4}, \frac{3y}{4}, \frac{3z}{4}\right) \\ &= \left|\frac{3x}{4} - \frac{3y}{4}\right|^2 + \left|\frac{3y}{4} - \frac{3z}{4}\right|^2 + \left|\frac{3z}{4} - \frac{3x}{4}\right|^2 \\ &\leq kG(x, y, z), \end{aligned}$$

where $k = \frac{9}{16} \in [0, 1)$, but $k \notin [0, \frac{1}{s})$. Here, 0 is the only fixed point of T .

Example 2.4.4. Let $X = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma\}$ and define a mapping $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$

as follows:

$$G(x, x, x) = 0, \quad \text{for all } x \in X,$$

$$G(\alpha, \beta, \beta) = G(\beta, \alpha, \beta) = G(\beta, \beta, \alpha) = G(\alpha, \alpha, \beta) = G(\alpha, \beta, \alpha) = G(\beta, \alpha, \alpha) = 1,$$

$$G(\alpha, \gamma, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \alpha, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \gamma, \alpha) = G(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma) = G(\alpha, \gamma, \alpha) = G(\gamma, \alpha, \alpha) = 1.2,$$

$$G(\beta, \gamma, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \beta, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \gamma, \beta) = G(\beta, \beta, \gamma) = G(\beta, \gamma, \beta) = G(\gamma, \beta, \beta) = 3.3,$$

$$G(x, y, z) = 3.2, \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X \text{ with } x \neq y \neq z \neq x.$$

It is easy to prove that (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s = 1.5$ (here, 1.5 is the smallest possible value of s).

However, it is noticed that, with $x = \beta$, $y = \alpha$, $z = \gamma$,

$$G(x, y, z) \not\leq G(x, \alpha, \alpha) + G(\alpha, y, z);$$

thus, G is not a G -metric on X . Also, with $x = \beta$, $y = \gamma$, $z = \alpha$,

$$G(x, y, y) = 3.3 \not\leq 3.2 = G(x, y, z);$$

thus, G is not a generalized b -metric on X .

Define a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ by $T\alpha = \alpha$, $T\beta = \alpha$, $T\gamma = \beta$.

Now, for $k = \frac{5}{6} \in [0, 1)$, it is not difficult to prove that

$$G(Tx, Ty, Tz) \leq kG(x, y, z), \quad \text{for all } x, y, z \in X,$$

and $\frac{5}{6}$ is the smallest value of such k . Here T has a unique fixed point, namely α , however, $k \notin [0, \frac{1}{s})$, but $k \in [0, 1)$.

In Theorem 2.4.2, condition (2.4.2) implies the continuity of mapping T . But, a discontinuous mapping may also have a fixed point as shown in the following theorem.

Theorem 2.4.3 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s \geq 1$ and let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$G(Tx, Ty, Tz) \leq k[G(x, y, z) + G(x, Tx, Tx) + G(y, Ty, Ty) + G(z, Tz, Tz)], \quad (2.4.5)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$, where $k \in [0, \lambda)$ and $\lambda = \min\{\frac{1}{4}, \frac{1}{2s}\}$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = T^n(x_0), \quad \text{for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq k[2G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) + 2G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1})]$$

which implies that

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq \frac{2k}{1-2k}G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n).$$

As $k < \frac{1}{4}$, therefore, $\frac{2k}{1-2k} < 1$ and hence by Lemma 2.3.2, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, G) . But (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space, therefore, there

exists $x' \in X$ such that sequence $\{x_n\}$ converges to x' .

Now, Consider

$$\begin{aligned} & G(x', Tx', Tx') \\ & \leq s[G(x', x_n, x_n) + G(x_n, Tx', Tx')] \\ & \leq sG(x', x_n, x_n) + sk[G(x_{n-1}, x', x') + G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) + 2G(x', Tx', Tx')] \end{aligned}$$

which gives that

$$(1 - 2ks)G(x', Tx', Tx') \leq sG(x', x_n, x_n) + sk[G(x_{n-1}, x', x') + G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n)].$$

Taking $n \rightarrow +\infty$, we get

$$G(x', Tx', Tx') = 0$$

which implies that $Tx' = x'$, that is, x' is a fixed point of T .

Let y be another fixed point of T . Then

$$G(x', y, y) = G(Tx', Ty, Ty) \leq kG(x', y, y)$$

which implies that $G(x', y, y) = 0$ as $k < \frac{1}{4}$, therefore, $x' = y$, that is, x' is a unique fixed point of T . □

Now, we provide an example that satisfy the hypothesis of Theorem 2.4.3 but not of Theorem 2.4.2; and also, the mapping involved is discontinuous.

Example 2.4.6. Let $X = [0, 1]$ and define a mapping $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as follows:

$$G(x, y, z) = |x - y|^2 + |y - z|^2 + |z - x|^2 \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X.$$

Clearly, (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s = 2$.

Define a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ as:

$$T(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{x}{6}, & \text{if } x \in [0, 1] - \{\frac{1}{2}\}; \\ 0, & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{2}. \end{cases}$$

Clearly, T is a discontinuous mapping. We now prove that (2.4.5) is true for $k = \frac{1}{5}$.

For this, let $x, y, z \in [0, 1] - \{\frac{1}{2}\}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} G(Tx, Ty, Tz) &= G\left(\frac{x}{6}, \frac{y}{6}, \frac{z}{6}\right) \\ &= \frac{1}{36}(|x - y|^2 + |y - z|^2 + |z - x|^2) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{5}[G(x, y, z) + G(x, Tx, Tx) + G(y, Ty, Ty) + G(z, Tz, Tz)]. \end{aligned}$$

If $x = \frac{1}{2}$ and $y, z \in [0, 1] - \{\frac{1}{2}\}$, then

$$G(Tx, Ty, Tz) = G\left(0, \frac{y}{6}, \frac{z}{6}\right) = \frac{1}{36}(y^2 + |y - z|^2 + z^2) \leq \frac{3}{36}; \text{ and}$$

$$G(x, Tx, Tx) = G\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0, 0\right) = 2\left|\frac{1}{2} - 0\right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}; \text{ therefore,}$$

$$\begin{aligned} G(Tx, Ty, Tz) &\leq \frac{3}{36} < \frac{1}{5} \times \frac{1}{2} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{5}[G(x, y, z) + G(x, Tx, Tx) + G(y, Ty, Ty) + G(z, Tz, Tz)]. \end{aligned}$$

If $x = y = \frac{1}{2}$ and $z \in [0, 1] - \{\frac{1}{2}\}$, then

$$G(Tx, Ty, Tz) = G\left(0, 0, \frac{z}{6}\right) = \frac{2z^2}{36} \leq \frac{2}{36}; \text{ and}$$

$$G(x, Tx, Tx) = G\left(\frac{1}{2}, 0, 0\right) = \frac{1}{2}; \text{ therefore,}$$

$$\begin{aligned} G(Tx, Ty, Tz) &\leq \frac{2}{36} < \frac{1}{5} \times \frac{1}{2} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{5}[G(x, y, z) + G(x, Tx, Tx) + G(y, Ty, Ty) + G(z, Tz, Tz)]. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, conditions of Theorem 2.4.3 are satisfied. Moreover, for $x = y = \frac{1}{2}$ and $z = 0.51$, (2.4.2) does not hold.

The following theorem is a generalization of Theorem 2.4.2 and Theorem 2.4.3.

Theorem 2.4.4 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s \geq 1$ and let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$G(Tx, Ty, Tz) \leq aG(x, y, z) + bG(x, Tx, Tx) + cG(y, Ty, Ty) + dG(z, Tz, Tz), \quad (2.4.7)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$, where $a + b + c + d < 1$, $s(c + d) < 1$ and $a + b \geq 0$. Then either T has a unique fixed point, or all elements of X are fixed points of T .

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = T^n(x_0), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) &\leq aG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) + bG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) + cG(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \\ &\quad + dG(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}), \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq \frac{a+b}{1-(c+d)} G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n).$$

Since $a + b + c + d < 1$, $a + b \geq 0$, so by Lemma 2.3.2, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, G) . But (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space; therefore, there exists $x' \in X$ such that sequence $\{x_n\}$ converges to x' .

Now, Consider

$$\begin{aligned} &G(x', Tx', Tx') \\ &\leq s[G(x', x_n, x_n) + G(x_n, Tx', Tx')] \\ &\leq sG(x', x_n, x_n) + saG(x_{n-1}, x', x') + sbG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) + s(c+d)G(x', Tx', Tx'), \end{aligned}$$

which gives that

$$(1 - s(c + d))G(x', Tx', Tx') \leq sG(x', x_n, x_n) + s[aG(x_{n-1}, x', x') + bG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n)].$$

Taking limit as $n \rightarrow +\infty$, we get

$$G(x', Tx', Tx') = 0,$$

which gives that $Tx' = x'$, that is, x' is a fixed point of T . Now if all elements of X are not fixed points of T , then there exists some $x^* \in X$ such that $Tx^* \neq x^*$.

On putting $x = y = z = x^*$ in (2.4.7), we have

$$0 \leq (b + c + d) G(x^*, Tx^*, Tx^*)$$

which implies that

$$b + c + d \geq 0.$$

Thus $a < 1$ as $a + b + c + d < 1$. Let y be another fixed point of T . Then

$$\begin{aligned} G(x', y, y) &= G(Tx', Ty, Ty) \\ &\leq aG(x', y, y) + bG(x', Tx', Tx') + (c + d)G(y, Ty, Ty) \\ &= aG(x', y, y) \end{aligned}$$

which implies that $G(x', y, y) = 0$ as $a < 1$, therefore, $x' = y$, that is, x' is a unique fixed point of T . \square

Now, we furnish some examples which show that the hypothesis of Theorem 2.4.4 is satisfied, but not of Theorem 2.4.2 and 2.4.3.

Example 2.4.8. Let $X = \{\alpha, \beta, \gamma, \delta\}$ and define a mapping $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ as follows:

$$G(x, x, x) = 0, \quad \text{for all } x \in X,$$

$$G(\alpha, \beta, \beta) = G(\beta, \alpha, \beta) = G(\beta, \beta, \alpha) = G(\alpha, \alpha, \beta) = G(\alpha, \beta, \alpha) = G(\beta, \alpha, \alpha) = 2,$$

$$G(\alpha, \gamma, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \alpha, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \gamma, \alpha) = G(\alpha, \alpha, \gamma) = G(\alpha, \gamma, \alpha) = G(\gamma, \alpha, \alpha) = 1,$$

$$G(\alpha, \delta, \delta) = G(\delta, \alpha, \delta) = G(\delta, \delta, \alpha) = G(\alpha, \alpha, \delta) = G(\alpha, \delta, \alpha) = G(\delta, \alpha, \alpha) = 1,$$

$$G(\beta, \gamma, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \beta, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \gamma, \beta) = G(\beta, \beta, \gamma) = G(\beta, \gamma, \beta) = G(\gamma, \beta, \beta) = 2.1,$$

$$G(\beta, \delta, \delta) = G(\delta, \beta, \delta) = G(\delta, \delta, \beta) = G(\beta, \beta, \delta) = G(\beta, \delta, \beta) = G(\delta, \beta, \beta) = 1.3,$$

$$G(\gamma, \delta, \delta) = G(\delta, \gamma, \delta) = G(\delta, \delta, \gamma) = G(\gamma, \gamma, \delta) = G(\gamma, \delta, \gamma) = G(\delta, \gamma, \gamma) = 4.3,$$

$$G(\alpha, \delta, \gamma) = G(\alpha, \gamma, \delta) = G(\delta, \alpha, \gamma) = G(\delta, \gamma, \alpha) = G(\gamma, \alpha, \delta) = G(\gamma, \delta, \alpha) = 4.2,$$

$$G(x, y, z) = 5, \quad \text{otherwise.}$$

It is easy to prove that (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s = 2.5$. However, it is noticed that, with $x = \delta$, $y = \beta$, $z = \gamma$,

$$G(x, y, z) \not\leq G(x, \beta, \beta) + G(\beta, y, z);$$

thus, G is not a G -metric on X . Also, with $x = \gamma$, $y = \delta$, $z = \alpha$,

$$G(x, y, y) = 4.3 \not\leq 4.2 = G(x, y, z);$$

which means G is not a generalized b -metric on X .

Define a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ by $T\alpha = \alpha$, $T\beta = \delta$, $T\gamma = \delta$, $T\delta = \alpha$.

Now for $a = 0.7$, $b = 0.07$, $c = 0.08$, $d = 0.09$, we have $a + b + c + d < 1$, $s(c + d) < 1$ and $a + b \geq 0$. Also it is not hard to prove that (2.4.7) holds true. Here, α is the unique fixed point of T .

However, for $x = y = \alpha$, $z = \gamma$, we notice that (2.4.2) does not hold true for any $k \in [0, 1)$; and for $x = \alpha$, $y = z = \beta$, (2.4.5) does not hold true for any $k \in [0, \frac{1}{5})$.

Example 2.4.9. Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -complete metric space as in Ex-

ample 2.4.8.

Define a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ by $T\alpha = \alpha$, $T\beta = \beta$, $T\gamma = \gamma$, $T\delta = \delta$.

Then for $a = 1.4$, $b = -0.2$, $c = -3$, $d = -1$, we have $a + b + c + d < 1$, $s(c + d) < 1$ and $a + b \geq 0$. Also, it is easy to see that (2.4.7) holds true, however all elements of X are fixed points of T .

Now, we shall prove some fixed point results for quasi-contraction type mappings in context of generalized G_b -metric space.

Theorem 2.4.5 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s \geq 1$ and let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$(i) \quad G(Tx, Ty, Tz) \leq k \max\{G(x, y, z), G(x, Tx, Tx), G(y, Ty, Ty), G(z, Tz, Tz)\},$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$ and for some $k \in [0, 1)$;

$$(ii) \quad T \text{ is generalized } G_b\text{-continuous; or } sk < 1;$$

then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = T^n(x_0), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) &\leq k \max\{G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n), G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n), G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}), \\ &\quad G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1})\} \\ &= kG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

As $k \in [0, 1)$, so by Lemma 2.3.2, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, G) . But (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space, therefore, there exists $x' \in X$ such that

$x_n \rightarrow x'$.

Case I: If T is generalized G_b -continuous, then

$$T(x') = T\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_n\right) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} T(x_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_{n+1} = x'.$$

Case II: If $sk < 1$, then, consider

$$\begin{aligned} G(x', Tx', Tx') &\leq s[G(x', x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + G(x_{n+1}, Tx', Tx')] \\ &\leq sG(x', x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + sk \max\{G(x_n, x', x'), G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}), \\ &\quad G(x', Tx', Tx'), G(x', Tx', Tx')\}. \end{aligned}$$

Letting $n \rightarrow +\infty$, we have

$$G(x', Tx', Tx') \leq skG(x', Tx', Tx').$$

But $sk < 1$, therefore, $G(x', Tx', Tx') = 0$, which implies that $Tx' = x'$, that is, x' is a fixed point of T . Let y be another fixed point of T . Then, by Proposition 2.2.2,

$$\begin{aligned} G(x', y, y) &= G(Tx', Ty, Ty) \\ &\leq k \max\{G(x', y, y), G(x', Tx', Tx'), G(y, Ty, Ty), G(y, Ty, Ty)\} \\ &= k \max\{G(x', y, y), G(x', x', x'), G(y, y, y), G(y, y, y)\} \\ &= kG(x', y, y) \end{aligned}$$

which gives that $G(x', y, y) = 0$ as $k < 1$, therefore, $x' = y$. Thus T has a unique fixed point. \square

Theorem 2.4.6 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s \geq 1$ and let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$G(Tx, Ty, Tz) \leq k \max\{G(x, y, z), G(x, Ty, Ty), G(y, Tx, Tx), G(z, Tz, Tz)\},$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$ and for some $k \in [0, \frac{1}{s})$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = T^n(x_0) \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) &= G(x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}, x_n) \\ &\leq k \max\{G(x_n, x_n, x_{n-1}), G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}), G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}), G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n)\} \\ &= kG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) \end{aligned}$$

As $k \in [0, 1)$, so by Lemma 2.3.2, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, G) . But (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space, therefore, there exists $x' \in X$ such that $x_n \rightarrow x'$.

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} G(x', Tx', Tx') &\leq s[G(x', x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + G(x_{n+1}, Tx', Tx')] \\ &= s[G(x', x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + G(Tx', Tx', x_{n+1})] \\ &\leq sG(x', x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) + sk \max\{G(x', x', x_n), G(x', Tx', Tx'), \\ &\quad G(x', Tx', Tx'), G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1})\}. \end{aligned}$$

Letting $n \rightarrow +\infty$, we have

$$G(x', Tx', Tx') \leq skG(x', Tx', Tx').$$

But $sk < 1$, therefore, $G(x', Tx', Tx') = 0$, which implies that $Tx' = x'$, that is, x'

is a fixed point of T . Let y be another fixed point of T . Then

$$\begin{aligned} G(y, y, x') &= G(Ty, Ty, Tx') \\ &\leq k \max\{G(y, y, x'), G(y, Ty, Ty), G(y, Ty, Ty), G(x', Tx', Tx')\} \\ &= k \max\{G(y, y, x'), G(y, y, y), G(y, y, y), G(x', x', x')\} \\ &= kG(y, y, x') \end{aligned}$$

which gives that $G(y, y, x') = 0$ as $k < 1$, therefore, $y = x'$. Thus T has a unique fixed point. \square

2.5. Application

As an application of the fixed point theorem for contractions on a generalized G_b -complete metric space, the following result is provided about the existence and uniqueness of solution for a system of linear equations.

Theorem 2.5.1 *In a system of linear equations*

$$Ax = b, \tag{2.5.1}$$

where $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ is a $n \times n$ matrix and $b = [b_i]_{n \times 1}$ is a column vector of constants and $x = [x_i]_{n \times 1}$ is a column matrix of n unknowns, if

$$|a_{ii} + 1| + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n |a_{ij}| < 1, \quad \text{for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \tag{2.5.2}$$

then the system has a unique solution.

Proof. Let $X = \{[x_i]_{n \times 1} \mid x_i \text{ is real for all } i = 1 \text{ to } n, n \text{ being fixed}\}$ and

$G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be defined as :

$$G(x, y, z) = \max_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|^2 + \max_{i=1}^n |y_i - z_i|^2 + \max_{i=1}^n |z_i - x_i|^2,$$

for all $x = [x_i]_{n \times 1}$, $y = [y_i]_{n \times 1}$, $z = [z_i]_{n \times 1} \in X$. Then clearly (X, G) is a generalized G_b -complete metric space with constant $s = 2$.

Now define a $n \times n$ matrix $C = [c_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ by

$$c_{ij} = \begin{cases} a_{ij} + 1, & \text{if } i = j; \\ a_{ij}, & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Then given system (2.5.1) reduces to

$$x = Cx - b. \quad (2.5.3)$$

Also, given condition (2.5.2) becomes

$$\sum_{j=1}^n |c_{ij}| < 1, \quad \text{for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \quad (2.5.4)$$

Now, define a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ by

$$T(x) = Cx - b, \quad \text{where } x \in X.$$

Now, for $x = [x_i]_{n \times 1}$, $y = [y_i]_{n \times 1}$, $z = [z_i]_{n \times 1} \in X$, set $p = Tx$, $q = Ty$, $r = Tz$ and suppose that $p = [p_i]_{n \times 1}$, $q = [q_i]_{n \times 1}$, $r = [r_i]_{n \times 1}$, then

$$p_i = \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}x_j - b_i, \quad \text{for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n, \text{ etc.}$$

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} & G_b(Tx, Ty, Tz) \\ &= \max_{i=1}^n |p_i - q_i|^2 + \max_{i=1}^n |q_i - r_i|^2 + \max_{i=1}^n |r_i - p_i|^2 \\ &= \max_{i=1}^n \left| \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}(x_i - y_i) \right|^2 + \max_{i=1}^n \left| \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}(y_i - z_i) \right|^2 + \max_{i=1}^n \left| \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}(z_i - x_i) \right|^2 \\ &\leq \max_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |c_{ij}| |x_i - y_i| \right)^2 + \max_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |c_{ij}| |y_i - z_i| \right)^2 + \max_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |c_{ij}| |z_i - x_i| \right)^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&\leq \left(\max_{k=1}^n |x_k - y_k|^2 + \max_{k=1}^n |y_k - z_k|^2 + \max_{k=1}^n |z_k - x_k|^2 \right) \max_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |c_{ij}| \right)^2 \\
&= G_b(x, y, z) \max_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |c_{ij}| \right)^2 \\
&= \alpha G_b(x, y, z),
\end{aligned}$$

where

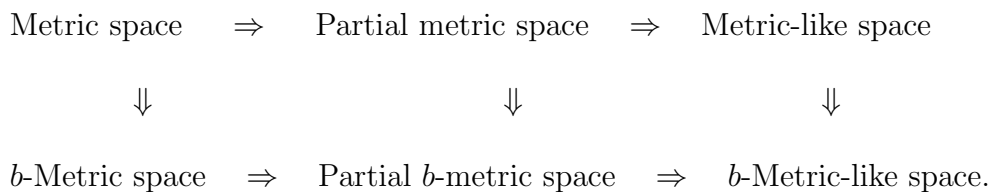
$$\alpha = \max_{i=1}^n \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |c_{ij}| \right)^2.$$

By the condition (2.5.4), $\alpha \in [0, 1)$, therefore, using Theorem 2.4.2, T has a unique fixed point, and hence, system (2.5.1) has a unique solution. \square

Generalization of GP -Metric Space and Generalized G_b -Metric Space

3.1. Introduction

In Chapter 1, various generalizations of metric spaces established in the literature have been presented. These generalizations are b -metric space, partial metric space, partial b -metric space, metric-like space, b -metric-like space etc. Sen *et al.* [128] have presented the process diagram of the various classes of these abstract spaces as under:



In 2015, Jleli and Samet [67] introduced another interesting extension of metric space as shown below:

Definition 3.1.1. [67] Let X be a non-empty set and $D : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a given mapping. For every $x \in X$, define the set

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$$\mathcal{C}(D, X, x) = \left\{ \{x_n\} \subset X \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} D(x_n, x) = 0 \right\}.$$

Then D is a *generalized metric* on X if there exists $C > 0$ such that the following conditions hold:

$$(D1) \quad (x, y) \in X \times X, \quad D(x, y) = 0 \text{ implies } x = y;$$

$$(D2) \quad D(x, y) = D(y, x), \text{ for all } (x, y) \in X \times X;$$

$$(D3) \quad \text{if } (x, y) \in X \times X \text{ and } \{x_n\} \in \mathcal{C}(D, X, x), \text{ then } D(x, y) \leq C \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} D(x_n, y).$$

In this case, the pair (X, D) is a *generalized metric space*.

Example 3.1.2. [78] Let $X = \{0, 1\}$ and $D : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping defined by $D(0, 0) = 0$ and $D(0, 1) = D(1, 0) = D(1, 1) = +\infty$. Then (X, D) is a generalized metric space.

In 1992, Matthews [89] introduced partial metric space as:

Definition 3.1.3. [89] Let X be a non-empty set. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *partial metric* if, for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(p1) \quad x = y \Leftrightarrow d(x, x) = d(x, y) = d(y, y);$$

$$(p2) \quad d(x, x) \leq d(x, y);$$

$$(p3) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(p4) \quad d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y) - d(z, z).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a *partial metric space*.

In 2019, Asim and Imdad [11] introduced partial JS-metric space as a generalization of partial metric space.

Definition 3.1.4. [11] Let X be a non-empty set and $D_p : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be

a given mapping. For every $x \in X$, define the set

$$\mathcal{K}(D_p, X, x) = \left\{ \{x_n\} \subset X \mid \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} D_p(x_n, x) = D_p(x, x) \right\}.$$

Then D_p is a *partial JS-metric* on X if, for all $x, y \in X$, it satisfies the following conditions:

$$(D_p1) \quad \text{if } D_p(x, x) = D_p(y, y) = D_p(x, y), \text{ then } x = y;$$

$$(D_p2) \quad D_p(x, x) \leq D_p(x, y);$$

$$(D_p3) \quad D_p(x, y) = D_p(y, x);$$

$$(D_p4) \quad \text{there exists } C > 0 \text{ such that if } (x, y) \in X \times X, \{x_n\} \in \mathcal{K}(D, X, x),$$

$$\text{then } D_p(x, y) \leq C \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} D_p(x_n, y) + (C - 1)D_p(x, x).$$

The pair (X, D_p) is said to be *partial JS-metric space*.

Remark 3.1.5. We notice that partial JS-metric space is not a generalization of generalized metric space (i.e., JS-metric space), as shown in the following example:

Example 3.1.6. Let $X = [0, 1]$ and $D : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping defined by

$$D(x, y) = \begin{cases} 4, & \text{if } x, y \in (0, 1]; \\ |x - y|, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then (D1) and (D2) are obvious. For (D3), let $(x, y) \in X \times X$ and $\{x_n\} \in \mathcal{C}(D, X, x)$, First we prove that $x = 0$. Suppose if $x > 0$, then $\{x_n\} \in \mathcal{C}(D, X, x)$ implies $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} D(x_n, x) = 0$. Now as $x > 0$, therefore, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $x_n = 0$ for all $n \geq n_0$.

Hence, for every $n \geq n_0$, $D(x_n, x) = |x_n - x| = |x|$, and since $x > 0$, therefore, we have that $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} D(x_n, x) \neq 0$, a contradiction. Thus, we have $x = 0$. Next, we prove

(D3) by considering the following cases:

Case 1: If $y = 0$, then $D(x, y) = 0$ and, therefore, (D3) holds in this case.

Case 2: If $y \neq 0$, then $D(x, y) = |0 - y| = |y|$ and

$$D(x_n, y) = \begin{cases} |y|, & \text{if } x_n = 0; \\ 4, & \text{if } x_n \neq 0. \end{cases}$$

Therefore, $D(x, y) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} D(x_n, y)$, that is, (D3) holds in this case for $C = 1$.

Hence, (X, D) is a generalized metric space. But, for $x = \frac{1}{2}$ and $y = 0$, $D(x, x) = 4 \not\leq \frac{1}{2} = D(x, y)$. Thus (X, D) is not a partial JS-metric space.

Remark 3.1.7. We also notice that generalized metric space is itself an extension of b -metric-like space (and hence an extension of metric space, b -metric space, partial metric space, partial b -metric space, and metric-like space).

Remark 3.1.8. Although generalized metric space is an extension of b -metric-like space, the concepts of convergent sequence and Cauchy sequence (see Definition 1.2.26) in generalized metric space do not reduce to the concepts of convergent sequence and Cauchy sequence (see Definition 1.2.23) in b -metric-like space.

On the other hand, in 2011, Zand and Nezhad [144] introduced GP -metric space as a generalization of partial metric space and G -metric space.

Definition 3.1.9. [144] Let X be a non-empty set. Let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$

be a function such that the following conditions hold:

$$(G_p1) \quad x = y = z \text{ if } G(x, y, z) = G(x, x, x) = G(y, y, y) = G(z, z, z);$$

$$(G_p2) \quad G(x, x, x) \leq G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z), \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X;$$

$$(G_p3) \quad G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots \text{ (symmetric in all three variables);}$$

$$(G_p4) \quad G(x, y, z) \leq G(x, a, a) + G(a, y, z) - G(a, a, a), \text{ for all } x, y, z, a \in X.$$

Then the function G is called a GP -metric on X , and the pair (X, G) is a GP -metric space. Also, (X, G) is called *symmetric GP -metric space* if $G(x, y, y) = G(x, x, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$; otherwise, it is called *nonsymmetric* or *asymmetric GP -metric space*.

Later on, in 2013, Parvaneh *et al.* [114] noticed that GP -metric spaces are symmetric due to (G_p2) . Thus, GP -metric spaces are not a generalization of those G -metric spaces, which are nonsymmetric (see Example 1.2.32). In view of this, Parvaneh *et al.* [114] redefined GP -metric space by changing the inequality (G_p2) as:

$$(G_p2') \quad G(x, x, x) \leq G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z), \text{ for all } x, y, z \in X \text{ with } y \neq z;$$

More about GP -metric spaces can be studied in ([10], [14], [19], [21], [37], [51], [118], [119], [143]). Proposition 1.2.13 has been proved only for symmetric GP -metric space, but we prove that proposition hold true for both symmetric as well as nonsymmetric GP -metric space.

Proposition 3.1.1 *Let (X, G) be a GP -metric space and $\{x_n\}$ be any sequence in X . Then the following statements are equivalent.*

$$(I) \quad \lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_m) = r < +\infty.$$

$$(II) \quad \lim_{n, m, l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_l) = r < +\infty.$$

Proof. (II) implies (I) obviously. Now, we prove that (I) implies (II). Suppose that (I) holds. Then, for given $\epsilon > 0$, there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$, such that

$$|G(x_n, x_m, x_m) - r| < \epsilon, \quad \text{for all } n, m \geq n_0. \quad (3.1.10)$$

Define a set $A = \{(n, l) \mid n, l \in \mathbb{N} \text{ with } x_n \neq x_l\}$ and for each $k \in \mathbb{N}$, define

$$A_k = \{(n, l) \mid n, l \in \mathbb{N} \text{ with } n, l \geq k\}.$$

Now, if for every $k \in \mathbb{N}$, there exist infinitely many pairs $(n, l) \in A_k \cap A$, then by considering all pairs $(n, l) \in A_1 \cap A$ and $m \in \mathbb{N}$, and using (G_p4) and (G_p2') , we have

$$G(x_n, x_m, x_l) \leq G(x_n, x_m, x_m) + G(x_m, x_m, x_l) - G(x_m, x_m, x_m)$$

which implies

$$0 \leq G(x_m, x_n, x_l) - G(x_m, x_m, x_l) \leq G(x_n, x_m, x_m) - G(x_m, x_m, x_m).$$

Taking limit $n, m, l \rightarrow +\infty$ with $(n, l) \in A_1 \cap A$, on both sides, we get

$$0 \leq \lim_{n, m, l \rightarrow +\infty, (n, l) \in A_1 \cap A} G(x_m, x_n, x_l) - r \leq r - r = 0.$$

Thus, there exists $n'_0 \geq n_0$ such that

$$|G(x_m, x_n, x_l) - r| < \epsilon, \quad \text{for all } m \geq n'_0 \text{ and } (n, l) \in A_{n'_0} \cap A.$$

Also, for $(n, l) \in A_{n'_0} - A$ and $m \geq n'_0$, using (3.1.10),

$$|G(x_m, x_n, x_l) - r| < \epsilon.$$

Thus (II) holds. □

Inspired by the work of Jleli and Samet [67], we introduce a new abstract space named G^* -metric space in section 3.2 of this chapter. Further, some relevant examples and some properties of this newly defined abstract space have been studied in this section. Different types of Cauchy sequences have been observed in this space.

3.2. G^* -Metric Space

Definition 3.2.1. Let X be a non-empty set and let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping. We say that G is a G^* -metric on X if there exists $\alpha > 0$ such that for all $x, y, z \in X$, the following conditions hold:

(Gg1) $G(x, y, z) = 0$ implies $x = y = z$;

(Gg2) $G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots$ (symmetric in all three variables);

(Gg3) if $\{x_n\} \in C_X(G, x)$, then $G(x, y, z) \leq \alpha \left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z) + G(x, x, x) \right)$,
 where $C_X(G, x) = \left\{ \{x_n\} \subset X \mid \lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x) = G(x, x, x) < +\infty \right\}$.

In this case, we call the pair (X, G) a G^* -metric space with constant α .

3.2.1 Some Basic Concepts

In this section, we present some basic concepts in the context of G^* -metric space.

Definition 3.2.2. Let (X, G) be a G^* -metric space. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X . If there exists $x \in X$ such that $\{x_n\} \in C_X(G, x)$, that is, $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x) = G(x, x, x) < +\infty$, then we say that sequence $\{x_n\}$ is G^* -convergent and G^* -converges to x . Denote this by $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_n = x$ or $x_n \rightarrow x$. Also, in this case, we say x is a *limit* of sequence $\{x_n\}$.

We now present some new concepts in G^* -metric space as:

Definition 3.2.3. Let (X, G) be a G^* -metric space. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X . Then we say that $\{x_n\}$ is:

(i) G^* -Cauchy sequence if there exists a real number r such that for each $\epsilon > 0$

there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|G(x_n, x_m, x_l) - r| < \epsilon$, for all $n, m, l > n_0$.

Denote this by $\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_l) = r$.

(ii) G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence if there exists a real number r such that for each $\epsilon > 0$

there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|G(x_n, x_{n+m}, x_{n+l}) - r| < \epsilon$, for all $n, m, l > n_0$.

Denote this by $\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_{n+m}, x_{n+l}) = r$.

(iii) G^* -Cauchy-2 sequence if there exists a real number r such that for each $\epsilon > 0$

there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|G(x_n, x_m, x_{m+l}) - r| < \epsilon$, for all $n, m, l > n_0$ with

$m \geq n$. Denote this by $\lim_{n,m(\geq n),l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_{m+l}) = r$.

(iv) G^* -Cauchy-3 sequence if there exists a real number r such that for each $\epsilon > 0$

there exists $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|G(x_n, x_{n+m}, x_{n+m+l}) - r| < \epsilon$, for all $n, m, l > n_0$.

Denote this by $\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_{n+m}, x_{n+m+l}) = r$.

Definition 3.2.4. In Definition 3.2.3, if, in particular, we take $r = 0$, then the concepts in (i), (ii), (iii), and (iv) are called 0 - G^* -Cauchy sequence, 0 - G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence, 0 - G^* -Cauchy-2 sequence, and 0 - G^* -Cauchy-3 sequence respectively.

Remark 3.2.5. From elementary concepts in generalized G_b -metric space, one can prove that the concepts 0 - G^* -Cauchy sequence, 0 - G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence, 0 - G^* -Cauchy-2 sequence, and 0 - G^* -Cauchy-3 sequence are equivalent in the context of generalized G_b -metric space.

Definition 3.2.6. Let (X, G) be a G^* -metric space. Then we say that (X, G) is:

(i) G^* -complete if every G^* -Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is G^* -convergent to

some $x \in X$ and $\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_l) = G(x, x, x) = \lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x)$.

(ii) G^* -complete-1 if every G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is G^* -convergent to

some $x \in X$ and $\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_{n+m}, x_{n+l}) = G(x, x, x) = \lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x)$.

(iii) G^* -complete-2 if every G^* -Cauchy-2 sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is G^* -convergent to

some $x \in X$ and $\lim_{n,m(\geq n),l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_{m+l}) = G(x, x, x) = \lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x)$.

(iv) G^* -complete-3 if every G^* -Cauchy-3 sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is G^* -convergent to

some $x \in X$ and $\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_{n+m}, x_{n+m+l}) = G(x, x, x) = \lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x)$.

3.2.2 Some Remarks and Examples

The following remarks show that generalized G_b -metric spaces (see Definition 2.2.1) and GP -metric spaces are G^* -metric spaces.

Remark 3.2.7. Every generalized G_b -metric space is a G^* -metric space. Consider a generalized G_b -metric space (X, G) . Then $(Gg1)$ and $(Gg2)$ are obvious. For $(Gg3)$, let $(x, y, z) \in X \times X \times X$ and $\{x_n\} \in C_X(G, x)$, then by (gG_b5) ,

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y, z) &\leq s(G(x, x_n, x_n) + G(x_n, y, z)) \\ &\leq s\left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x, x_n, x_n) + \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z)\right) \\ &\leq s\left(G(x, x, x) + \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z)\right) \\ &= s\left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z) + G(x, x, x)\right), \end{aligned}$$

that is, $(Gg3)$ holds for $\alpha = s$. Thus, (X, G) is a G^* -metric space.

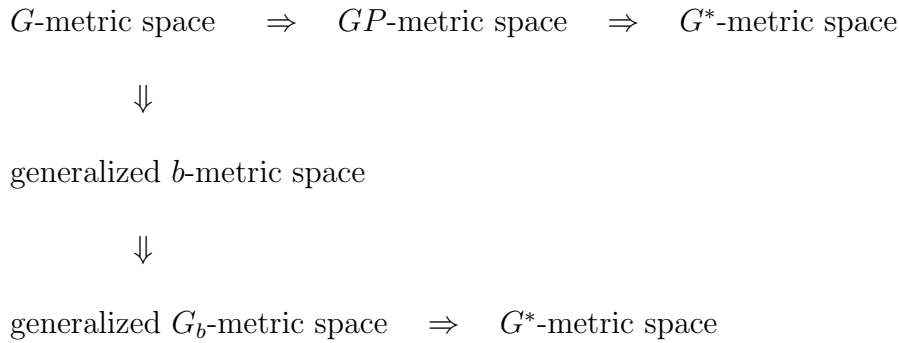
Remark 3.2.8. Every GP -metric space is a G^* -metric space. Consider a GP -metric space (X, G) . Then $(Gg2)$ is obvious, and $(Gg3)$ is easy to check. For $(Gg1)$, let $(x, y, z) \in X \times X \times X$ such that $G(x, y, z) = 0$. Suppose that $y \neq z$, then by (G_p2') , we have $G(x, x, x) \leq G(x, x, y) \leq G(x, y, z) = 0$. Also, then by (G_p4) , we have

$$G(y, y, z) \leq G(y, x, x) + G(x, y, z) - G(x, x, x) = 0 + 0 - 0 = 0.$$

So, again by (G_p2') , we have $G(y, y, y) \leq G(y, y, z) = 0$. Similarly, we can prove that

$G(z, z, z) = 0$. Thus, $G(x, y, z) = G(x, x, x) = G(y, y, y) = G(z, z, z) = 0$, therefore, by (G_p1) , we have $x = y = z$. Thus, (X, G) is a G^* -metric space.

Remark 3.2.9. In light of this, these classes of abstract space can be represented by the following process diagram:



Now, we present some examples which assure that G^* -metric space generalizes the generalized G_b -metric space and GP -metric space. First we present an example of a symmetric G^* -metric space. After that, an example of nonsymmetric G^* -metric space is also presented.

Example 3.2.10. Let $X = [0, 1]$ and $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping defined by

$$G(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} +\infty, & \text{if at least one of } x, y, z \text{ is } 1; \\ 2, & \text{if } x, y, z \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1); \\ |x - y| + |y - z| + |z - x|, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then $(Gg1)$ and $(Gg2)$ are obvious. For $(Gg3)$, let $(x, y, z) \in X \times X \times X$ and $\{x_n\} \in C_X(G, x)$. Then

$$\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x) = G(x, x, x) < +\infty. \quad (3.2.11)$$

Clearly, $x \neq 1$. Consider the following two cases:

Case I: If $y = 1$ or $z = 1$, then $(Gg3)$ holds obviously.

Case II: If $y \neq 1$ and $z \neq 1$, then consider two subcases:

Subcase 1: If $x \in [0, \frac{1}{2}]$, then by (3.2.11), $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_n, x) = 0$, i.e., $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} |x_n - x| = 0$, therefore, $\{x_n\}$ is any sequence in X such that $x_n \rightarrow x$ in the usual sense.

Also, $G(x, y, z) = |x - y| + |y - z| + |z - x|$ and

$$G(x_n, y, z) = \begin{cases} +\infty, & \text{if } x_n = 1; \\ 2, & \text{if } x_n, y, z \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1); \\ |x_n - y| + |y - z| + |z - x_n|, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Thus, $G(x, y, z) \leq \alpha \left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z) + G(x, x, x) \right)$ for $\alpha = 1$.

Subcase 2: If $x \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$, then by (3.2.11), $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_n, x) = 2$, therefore, $\{x_n\}$ is any sequence in X such that $x_n \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$ for all $n \geq n_0$, for some natural n_0 . Now

$$G(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } y, z \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1); \\ |x - y| + |y - z| + |z - x|, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Thus, $G(x, y, z) \leq \alpha \left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z) + G(x, x, x) \right)$ for $\alpha = 1$.

Hence, (X, G) is a G^* -metric space. But (X, G) is not a generalized G_b -metric space as $G(0.9, 0.9, 0.9) = 2 \neq 0$. Also, (X, G) is not a GP -metric space as for $x = 0.6, y = 0.7, z = 0.8, G(x, y, z) = G(x, x, x) = G(y, y, y) = G(z, z, z) = 2$, but $x \neq y \neq z$, i.e., (G_p1) does not hold.

Example 3.2.12. Let $V = \{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $X = V \cup \{0\}$. Let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping such that G satisfies $(Gg2)$ and

$$G(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} x + y + z, & \text{if at least one of } x, y, z \text{ is } 0; \text{ or} \\ & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{n}, y = \frac{1}{n+m}, z = \frac{1}{n+l}, \text{ where } n, m, l \geq 5; \\ 5, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then $(Gg1)$ is obvious. For $(Gg3)$, let $(x, y, z) \in X \times X \times X$ and $\{x_n\} \in C_X(G, x)$.

Then

$$\lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x) = G(x, x, x) < +\infty. \quad (3.2.13)$$

Case I: If $x = 0$, then by (3.2.13), $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_n, x) = 0$, i.e., $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} x_n = 0$ (in usual sense). Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} G(x, y, z) &= y + z \\ &= \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} (x_n + y + z) \\ &\leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z) \\ &= \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z) + G(x, x, x). \end{aligned}$$

Case II: If $x = \frac{1}{k}$, for some $k \in \mathbb{N}$, then by (3.2.13), $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_n, x) = G(x, x, x) = 5$.

Thus, $x_n \in \left\{ \frac{1}{k+j} \mid j = -4, -3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4 \right\}$ for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ with $\frac{1}{x_m} - \frac{1}{x_l} \leq 4$ for all $m, l \in \mathbb{N}$. Also, clearly $G(x, y, z) \leq \alpha \left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z) + G(x, x, x) \right)$ for $\alpha = 1$.

Thus, (X, G) is a G^* -metric space. But (X, G) is not a generalized G_b -metric space as $G(0.5, 0.5, 0.5) = 5 \neq 0$. Also, (X, G) is not a GP -metric space as for $x = \frac{1}{10}$ and $y = \frac{1}{5}$, $G(x, x, x) = 5 \not\leq \frac{2}{5} = G(x, x, y)$, i.e., $(G_p 2')$ does not hold. Further, we see that (X, G) is a nonsymmetric G^* -metric space, as $G(\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{10}, \frac{1}{10}) = \frac{2}{5}$ and $G(\frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{5}, \frac{1}{10}) = 5$.

3.2.3 Some Results Related to Basic Concepts

We now present some results related to basic concepts in G^* -metric space as follows:

Proposition 3.2.1 *Let (X, G) be a G^* -metric space and $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X such that $\{x_n\} \in C_X(G, x)$ for some $x \in X$, then*

$$(I) \quad \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_n, x) = G(x, x, x);$$

$$(II) \quad \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x, x) \leq 2\alpha G(x, x, x).$$

Proof. (I) is obvious. We now prove (II). Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then using (Gg3), we have

$$G(x, x_n, x) \leq \alpha \limsup_{m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_m, x_n, x) + \alpha G(x, x, x).$$

Taking limit supremum $n \rightarrow +\infty$ on both sides, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x, x_n, x) &\leq \alpha \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \left(\limsup_{m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_m, x_n, x) \right) + \alpha G(x, x, x) \\ &= \alpha \lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_m, x_n, x) + \alpha G(x, x, x) \\ &= \alpha G(x, x, x) + \alpha G(x, x, x) \\ &= 2\alpha G(x, x, x). \end{aligned}$$

Hence (II) holds. □

Proposition 3.2.2 *Let (X, G) be a G^* -metric space and $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X such that $x_n \rightarrow x$ implies $G(x, x, x) = 0$. Then sequence $\{x_n\}$ has a unique limit in X .*

Proof. Suppose $x_n \rightarrow y$. Since $(y, x, x) \in X \times X \times X$, therefore, by (Gg3), we get

$$\begin{aligned} G(y, x, x) &\leq \alpha \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x, x) + \alpha G(y, y, y) \\ &\leq 2\alpha^2 G(x, x, x) + \alpha G(y, y, y) \\ &= 0 + 0 = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $G(y, x, x) = 0$, i.e., $y = x$. □

Theorem 3.2.3 *In a G^* -metric space,*

- (I) *Every G^* -Cauchy sequence is a G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence.*
- (II) *Every G^* -Cauchy sequence is a G^* -Cauchy-2 sequence.*
- (III) *Every G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence is a G^* -Cauchy-3 sequence.*
- (IV) *Every G^* -Cauchy-2 sequence is a G^* -Cauchy-3 sequence.*
- (V) *Every G^* -Cauchy sequence is a G^* -Cauchy-3 sequence.*

Proof. Proof of the theorem directly follows from definition 3.2.3. □

However, the reverse implication in all five statements of the above theorem doesn't hold good in general. Consider the following examples:

Example 3.2.14. Consider G^* -metric space as in Example in 3.2.12. Sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is a G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence, but not a G^* -Cauchy sequence.

Example 3.2.15. Let $V = \{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $X = V \cup \{0\}$. Let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping such that G satisfies (Gg2) and

$$G(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} x + y + z, & \text{if at least one of } x, y, z \text{ is } 0; \text{ or} \\ & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{n}, y = \frac{1}{m}, z = \frac{1}{m+l}, \text{ where } n, m, l \geq 5 \text{ with } m \geq n; \\ 5, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then (X, G) will be a G^* -metric space. Here, the sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is a G^* -Cauchy-2 sequence, but not a G^* -Cauchy sequence.

Example 3.2.16. Let $V = \{\frac{1}{n} \mid n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ and $X = V \cup \{0\}$. Let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping such that G satisfies (Gg2) and

$$G(x, y, z) = \begin{cases} x + y + z, & \text{if at least one of } x, y, z \text{ is } 0; \text{ or} \\ & \text{if } x = \frac{1}{n}, y = \frac{1}{n+m}, z = \frac{1}{n+m+l}, \text{ where } n, m, l \geq 5; \\ 5, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then (X, G) will be a G^* -metric space. Here, the sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is a G^* -Cauchy-3 sequence, but not a G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence and not a G^* -Cauchy-2 sequence.

Following remark shows yet another interesting fact in G^* -metric space:

Remark 3.2.17. In a G^* -metric space, a G^* -convergent sequence need not be a G^* -Cauchy sequence. For example, in Example 3.2.12, sequence $\{x_n\}$, $x_n = \frac{1}{n}$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is a G^* -convergent sequence and G^* -converges to 0 as $\lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G\left(\frac{1}{n}, \frac{1}{m}, 0\right) = \lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} \left(\frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} + 0\right) = 0 = G(0, 0, 0)$, but $\{x_n\}$ is a not G^* -Cauchy sequence as

$$G(x_n, x_m, x_l) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{l}, & \text{if } n \geq 5, m \geq n + 5, l \geq n + 5; \\ 5, & \text{otherwise;} \end{cases}$$

implies that $\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_l)$ does not exist.

Theorem 3.2.4 *Let (X, G) be a G^* -metric space.*

- (I) *If (X, G) is G^* -complete-1, then it is G^* -complete.*
- (II) *If (X, G) is G^* -complete-2, then it is G^* -complete.*
- (III) *If (X, G) is G^* -complete-3, then it is G^* -complete-1.*
- (IV) *If (X, G) is G^* -complete-3, then it is G^* -complete-2.*
- (V) *If (X, G) is G^* -complete-3, then it is G^* -complete.*

Proof. (I) Let (X, G) be a G^* -complete-1 metric space. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a G^* -Cauchy sequence in X . Then there exists a real number r such that

$$\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_l) = r; \quad (3.2.18)$$

and by Theorem 3.2.3, sequence $\{x_n\}$ is a G^* -Cauchy-1 sequence. Now, as (X, G)

is G^* -complete-1, therefore there exists some $x \in X$ such that

$$r = \lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_{n+m}, x_{n+l}) = G(x, x, x) = \lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x). \quad (3.2.19)$$

Thus, by (3.2.18) and (3.2.19), we have

$$\lim_{n,m,l \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x_l) = G(x, x, x) = \lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x).$$

Hence, (X, G) is G^* -complete.

Proofs of (II), (III), (IV), and (V) are similar. □

Some Fixed Point Results in G^* -Metric Space

4.1. Introduction

The notion of generalized G_b -metric space has been introduced in Chapter 2. Further, in Chapter 3, we have introduced another abstract space named as G^* -metric space and defined as:

Definition 4.1.1. Let X be a non-empty set and let $G : X \times X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$ be a mapping. We say that G is a G^* -metric on X if there exists $\alpha > 0$ such that for all $x, y, z \in X$, the following conditions hold:

(Gg1) $G(x, y, z) = 0$ implies $x = y = z$;

(Gg2) $G(x, y, z) = G(x, z, y) = G(y, z, x) = \dots$ (symmetric in all three variables);

(Gg3) if $\{x_n\} \in C_X(G, x)$, then $G(x, y, z) \leq \alpha \left(\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, y, z) + G(x, x, x) \right)$,

where $C_X(G, x) = \left\{ \{x_n\} \subset X \mid \lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(x_n, x_m, x) = G(x, x, x) < +\infty \right\}$.

In this case, we call the pair (X, G) a G^* -metric space with constant α .

The concepts of convergent sequence and Cauchy sequence in the framework of

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G^* -metric space has also been defined in Chapter 3. In the present chapter, we prove some fixed point results in G^* -metric space. Some consequences of these results are also deduced in the framework of generalized G_b -metric space. Before we deduce these consequences, some lemmas are also proved in generalized G_b -metric space. We begin with the definition of k -contraction in the context of G^* -metric space as follows:

Definition 4.1.2. Let (X, G) be a G^* -metric space, $M : X \rightarrow X$ be a given mapping and $k \in (0, 1)$. Then M is a k -contraction in (X, G) if

$$G(Mx, My, Mz) \leq kG(x, y, z), \quad \text{for every } (x, y, z) \in X \times X \times X.$$

Also, for each $x \in X$, we define

$$\delta(G, M, x) = \sup\{G(M^p(x), M^q(x), M^r(x)) \mid p, q, r \in \mathbb{N}\}.$$

4.2. Fixed Point Results in G^* -Metric Space

The main results of this section are the following theorems:

Theorem 4.2.1 *Let (X, G) be a G^* -complete metric space and $M : X \rightarrow X$ a k -contraction mapping for some $k \in (0, 1)$. Also, let there exists $x_0 \in X$ such that $\delta(G, M, x_0) < +\infty$, then M has a fixed point (say θ). Further, if $M(\theta') = \theta'$ with $G(\theta, \theta, \theta') < +\infty$, then $\theta' = \theta$.*

Proof. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Since M is a k -contraction, therefore, for all $p, q, r \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$G(M^{n+p}(x_0), M^{n+q}(x_0), M^{n+r}(x_0)) \leq kG(M^{n-1+p}(x_0), M^{n-1+q}(x_0), M^{n-1+r}(x_0)).$$

Taking supremum over all $p, q, r \in \mathbb{N}$ on both sides, we have

$$\delta(G, M, M^n(x_0)) \leq k\delta(G, M, M^{n-1}(x_0)).$$

and by the use of induction, we get

$$\delta(G, M, M^n(x_0)) \leq k^n \delta(G, M, x_0).$$

Now, for all $n, m, l \in \mathbb{N}$, with $n \leq m \leq l$, we have

$$G(M^{n+1}(x_0), M^{m+1}(x_0), M^{l+1}(x_0)) \leq \delta(G, M, M^n(x_0)) \leq k^n \delta(G, M, x_0).$$

Since $\delta(G, M, x_0) < +\infty$ and $k \in (0, 1)$, therefore,

$$\lim_{n, m, l \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^{n+1}(x_0), M^{m+1}(x_0), M^{l+1}(x_0)) = 0.$$

Hence, $\{M^n(x_0)\}$ is a G^* -Cauchy sequence in (X, G) , but (X, G) is G^* -complete metric space therefore there exists $\theta \in X$ such that $M^n(x_0) \rightarrow \theta$ and

$$\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^n(x_0), M^m(x_0), \theta) = G(\theta, \theta, \theta) = \lim_{n, m, l \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^n(x_0), M^m(x_0), M^l(x_0)) = 0. \quad (4.2.1)$$

Now, as M is a k -contraction, therefore,

$$G(M(\theta), M(\theta), M(\theta)) \leq kG(\theta, \theta, \theta) = 0. \quad (4.2.2)$$

Again as M is a k -contraction, therefore, for all $n, m, l \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$G(M^{n+1}(x_0), M^{m+1}(x_0), M(\theta)) \leq kG(M^n(x_0), M^m(x_0), \theta).$$

Taking limit $n, m \rightarrow +\infty$ and using (4.2.1) and (4.2.2), we get

$$\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^{n+1}(x_0), M^{m+1}(x_0), M(\theta)) = 0 = G(M(\theta), M(\theta), M(\theta)),$$

which implies that $M^n(x_0) \rightarrow M(\theta)$. Thus in view of Proposition 3.2.2, $M(\theta) = \theta$, that is, θ is a fixed point of M .

Now, suppose that $\theta' \in X$ such that $M(\theta') = \theta'$ and $G(\theta, \theta, \theta') < +\infty$, then

$$G(\theta, \theta, \theta') = G(M\theta, M\theta, M\theta') \leq kG(\theta, \theta, \theta'),$$

and since $G(\theta, \theta, \theta') < +\infty$ and $k \in (0, 1)$, therefore, $G(\theta, \theta, \theta') = 0$ which implies that $\theta = \theta'$. \square

Now, we present the following fixed point result.

Theorem 4.2.2 *Let (X, G) be a G^* -complete metric space with constant α and let $M : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$(T1) \quad G(Mx, My, Mz) \leq \beta \max\{G(x, y, z), G(x, Mx, Mx), G(y, My, My), \\ G(z, Mz, Mz), G(x, My, My), G(y, Mz, Mz), G(z, Mx, Mx)\},$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$, and for some $\beta \in [0, 1)$ with $\alpha\beta < 1$;

$$(T2) \quad \text{there exists } x_0 \in X \text{ such that } \delta(G, M, x_0) < +\infty;$$

then sequence $\{M^n(x_0)\}$ G^* -converges to some $\theta \in X$. Also, If

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^n(x_0), M(\theta), M(\theta)) < +\infty, \quad (4.2.3)$$

then θ is a fixed point of M . Further, if θ' is another fixed point of M with $G(\theta, \theta, \theta') < +\infty$, $G(\theta, \theta', \theta') < +\infty$, and $G(\theta', \theta', \theta') < +\infty$, then $\theta = \theta'$.

Proof. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. By (T1), for all $p, q, r \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & G(M^{n+p}(x_0), M^{n+q}(x_0), M^{n+r}(x_0)) \\ & \leq \beta \max\{G(M^{n-1+p}(x_0), M^{n-1+q}(x_0), M^{n-1+r}(x_0)), G(M^{n-1+p}(x_0), M^{n+p}(x_0), M^{n+p}(x_0)), \\ & \quad G(M^{n-1+q}(x_0), M^{n+q}(x_0), M^{n+q}(x_0)), G(M^{n-1+r}(x_0), M^{n+r}(x_0), M^{n+r}(x_0)) \\ & \quad G(M^{n-1+p}(x_0), M^{n+q}(x_0), M^{n+q}(x_0)), G(M^{n-1+q}(x_0), M^{n+r}(x_0), M^{n+r}(x_0)), \\ & \quad G(M^{n-1+r}(x_0), M^{n+p}(x_0), M^{n+p}(x_0))\}, \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$\delta(G, M, M^n(x_0)) \leq \beta \delta(G, M, M^{n-1}(x_0)).$$

By the use of induction, we get

$$\delta(G, M, M^n(x_0)) \leq \beta^n \delta(G, M, x_0).$$

Now, for all $n, m, l \in \mathbb{N}$, with $n \leq m \leq l$, we have

$$G(M^{n+1}(x_0), M^{m+1}(x_0), M^{l+1}(x_0)) \leq \delta(G, M, M^n(x_0)) \leq \beta^n \delta(G, M, x_0).$$

Since $\delta(G, M, x_0) < +\infty$ and $\beta \in [0, 1)$, therefore,

$$\lim_{n, m, l \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^{n+1}(x_0), M^{m+1}(x_0), M^{l+1}(x_0)) = 0.$$

Hence, $\{M^n(x_0)\}$ is a G^* -Cauchy sequence in (X, G) , but (X, G) is a G^* -complete metric space therefore there exists $\theta \in X$ such that $M^n(x_0) \rightarrow \theta$ and

$$\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^n(x_0), M^m(x_0), \theta) = G(\theta, \theta, \theta) = \lim_{n, m, l \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^n(x_0), M^m(x_0), M^l(x_0)) = 0. \quad (4.2.4)$$

Also, by Proposition 3.2.1,

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^n(x_0), \theta, \theta) \leq 2\alpha G(\theta, \theta, \theta) = 0. \quad (4.2.5)$$

Now, using (T1), we have

$$G(M^n(x_0), M(\theta), M(\theta)) \leq \beta \max\{G(M^{n-1}(x_0), \theta, \theta), G(M^{n-1}(x_0), M^n(x_0), M^n(x_0)), \\ G(\theta, M(\theta), M(\theta)), G(M^{n-1}(x_0), M(\theta), M(\theta)), G(\theta, M^n(x_0), M^n(x_0))\}.$$

Taking $\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty}$ on both sides and using (4.2.5), (4.2.4), and (4.2.3), we have

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^n(x_0), M(\theta), M(\theta)) \leq \beta G(\theta, M(\theta), M(\theta)). \quad (4.2.6)$$

Now, by (Gg3), (4.2.6), and (4.2.4), we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(\theta, M(\theta), M(\theta)) &\leq \alpha \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} G(M^n(x_0), M(\theta), M(\theta)) + \alpha G(\theta, \theta, \theta) \quad (4.2.7) \\ &\leq \alpha\beta G(\theta, M(\theta), M(\theta)). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\alpha\beta < 1$ and $G(\theta, M(\theta), M(\theta)) < +\infty$ (in view of (4.2.7) and (4.2.3)), therefore, $G(\theta, M(\theta), M(\theta)) = 0$, which gives $M(\theta) = \theta$. Let θ' be another fixed point of M with $G(\theta, \theta, \theta') < +\infty$, $G(\theta, \theta', \theta') < +\infty$, and $G(\theta', \theta', \theta') < +\infty$.

Then

$$\begin{aligned} G(\theta', \theta', \theta') &= G(M(\theta'), M(\theta'), M(\theta')) \\ &\leq \beta \max\{G(\theta', \theta', \theta'), G(\theta', M(\theta'), M(\theta')), G(\theta', M(\theta'), M(\theta'))\} \\ &= \beta G(\theta', \theta', \theta'). \end{aligned}$$

Since $\beta \in [0, 1)$ and $G(\theta', \theta', \theta') < \infty$, therefore, $G(\theta', \theta', \theta') = 0$.

Now

$$\begin{aligned} G(\theta, \theta, \theta') &= G(M(\theta), M(\theta), M(\theta')) \\ &\leq \beta \max\{G(\theta, \theta, \theta'), G(\theta, M(\theta), M(\theta)), G(\theta', M(\theta'), M(\theta')), \\ &\quad G(\theta, M(\theta'), M(\theta')), G(\theta', M(\theta), M(\theta))\} \\ &= \beta \max\{G(\theta, \theta, \theta'), G(\theta, \theta, \theta), G(\theta', \theta', \theta'), G(\theta, \theta', \theta'), G(\theta', \theta, \theta)\} \\ &= \beta \max\{G(\theta, \theta, \theta'), G(\theta, \theta', \theta')\}. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, $G(\theta, \theta', \theta') \leq \beta \max\{G(\theta, \theta, \theta'), G(\theta, \theta', \theta')\}$, therefore,

$$\max\{G(\theta, \theta, \theta'), G(\theta, \theta', \theta')\} \leq \beta \max\{G(\theta, \theta, \theta'), G(\theta, \theta', \theta')\}.$$

Now, as $\beta \in [0, 1)$, $G(\theta, \theta, \theta') < +\infty$, and $G(\theta, \theta', \theta') < +\infty$, therefore,

$\max\{G(\theta, \theta, \theta'), G(\theta, \theta', \theta')\} = 0$, which gives that $\theta = \theta'$. □

Now, by omitting the conditions (4.2.3) and $G(\theta, \theta', \theta') < +\infty$, in the previous result, we have the following result:

Theorem 4.2.3 *Let (X, G) be a complete G^* -metric space with constant α and $M : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$(T3) \quad G(Mx, My, Mz) \\ \leq \beta \max\{G(x, y, z), G(x, Mx, Mx), G(y, My, My), G(z, Mz, Mz)\},$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$, and for some $\beta \in [0, 1)$ with $\alpha\beta < 1$;

$$(T4) \quad \text{there exists } x_0 \in X \text{ such that } \delta(G, M, x_0) < +\infty;$$

then the sequence $\{M^n(x_0)\}$ G^ -converges to some $\theta \in X$. If $G(\theta, M(\theta), M(\theta)) < +\infty$, then θ is a fixed point of M . Further, if θ' is another fixed point of M with $G(\theta, \theta, \theta') < +\infty$ and $G(\theta', \theta', \theta') < +\infty$, then $\theta = \theta'$.*

Proof. Proof of this result follows similar lines as that of the previous result. \square

4.3. Consequences in Generalized G_b -Metric Space

4.3.1 Lemmas

Now, we prove the following lemmas in generalized G_b -metric space, in order to deduce the consequences of the results of previous section.

Lemma 4.3.1 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $M : X \rightarrow X$ be a k -contraction in (X, G) , then for each $x \in X$, $\delta(G, M, x) < +\infty$.*

Proof. Let $x \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = M^n(x), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Since M is a k -contraction, therefore,

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq kG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n).$$

Thus, using the inequality (2.3.2) of the proof of Lemma 2.3.2 (Chapter 2); and for every $q, r \in \mathbb{N}$, with $q \geq r$, we have

$$G(M^r(x), M^q(x), M^q(x)) \leq \frac{G(x, M(x), M(x))k^{r-1}\mu}{1-k} \leq \frac{G(x, M(x), M(x))\mu}{1-k}, \quad (4.3.1)$$

where $\mu = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} s^{2n}k^{2^{n-1}} < +\infty$. Also, for every $p, q \in \mathbb{N}$, with $p \geq q$,

$$G(M^q(x), M^q(x), M^p(x)) \leq 2sG(M^q(x), M^p(x), M^p(x)) \leq \frac{2sG(x, M(x), M(x))\mu}{1-k}. \quad (4.3.2)$$

Now, using (4.3.1) and (4.3.2), for $p, q, r \in \mathbb{N}$ with $p \geq q \geq r$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} G(M^p(x), M^q(x), M^r(x)) &\leq sG(M^p(x), M^q(x), M^q(x)) + sG(M^q(x), M^q(x), M^r(x)) \\ &\leq \frac{2s^2G(x, M(x), M(x))\mu}{1-k} + \frac{sG(x, M(x), M(x))\mu}{1-k}, \end{aligned}$$

that is,

$$G(M^p(x), M^q(x), M^r(x)) \leq \frac{(2s^2 + s)G(x, M(x), M(x))\mu}{1-k}. \quad (4.3.3)$$

Thus, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \delta(G, M, x) &= \sup\{G(M^p(x), M^q(x), M^r(x)) \mid p, q, r \in \mathbb{N}\} \\ &= \sup\{G(M^p(x), M^q(x), M^r(x)) \mid p \geq q \geq r\} \\ &\leq \frac{(2s^2 + s)G(x, Mx, Mx)\mu}{1-k} < +\infty. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\delta(G, M, x) < +\infty$. □

Lemma 4.3.2 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $M : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that there exists some $k \in [0, 1)$ and*

$$G(Mx, My, Mz) \leq k \max\{G(x, y, z), G(x, Mx, Mx), G(y, My, My), G(z, Mz, Mz)\}, \quad (4.3.4)$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$. Then for each $x \in X$, $\delta(G, M, x) < +\infty$.

Proof. Let $x \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = M^n(x), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, using (4.3.4), we have

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq k \max\{G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n), G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1})\} = kG(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n).$$

Rest of the proof follows the same lines as that of the proof of Lemma 4.3.1. \square

Lemma 4.3.3 *Let (X, G) be a generalized G_b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $M : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that there exists some $k \in [0, \frac{1}{2s})$ and*

$$G(Mx, My, Mz) \leq k \max\{G(x, y, z), G(x, Mx, Mx), G(y, My, My), G(z, Mz, Mz), G(x, My, My), G(y, Mz, Mz), G(z, Mx, Mx)\},$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$. Then for each $x \in X$, $\delta(G, M, x) < +\infty$.

Proof. Let $x \in X$ be arbitrary. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X by

$$x_n = M^n(x), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Then, for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} & G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \\ & \leq k \max\{G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n), G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}), G(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1})\}. \\ & = k \max\{G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n), G(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1})\}. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\leq k \max\{G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n), s[G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) + G(x_n, x_n, x_{n+1})]\} \\ &= ks[G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n) + G(x_n, x_n, x_{n+1})], \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$G(x_n, x_{n+1}, x_{n+1}) \leq \frac{ks}{1-ks} G(x_{n-1}, x_n, x_n).$$

Now, as $k \in [0, \frac{1}{2s})$, the rest of the proof is similar to that of Lemma 4.3.1. \square

4.3.2 Consequences

Due to Lemma 4.3.1, the following result (Theorem 2.4.2 in Chapter 2) is a consequence of Theorem 4.2.1.

Corollary 4.3.4 (Theorem 2.4.2, Chapter 2) *Let (X, G) be a complete generalized G_b -metric space with and $M : X \rightarrow X$ a k -contraction mapping for some $k \in (0, 1)$. Then M has a unique fixed point.*

Next, we provide an example for which the hypothesis of Theorem 4.2.1 holds, but not of Corollary 4.3.4.

Example 4.3.5. Consider a G^* -metric space as in Example 3.2.10, which is a G^* -complete metric space. Now, define a mapping $M : X \rightarrow X$ by

$$M(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x = 1; \\ \frac{x}{2}, & \text{if } x \in [0, 1). \end{cases}$$

Then M is a k -contraction for any $k \in (\frac{1}{2}, 1)$. Also for $x_0 \in [0, 1)$, $\delta(G, M, x_0) < +\infty$, therefore, the hypothesis of Theorem 4.2.1 is satisfied. Further, we see that sequence $M^n(x_0) = \frac{x_0}{2^n} \rightarrow 0$, and 0 is a fixed point of M . Also, M has another fixed point namely 1, but then $G(0, 0, 1) = +\infty$.

Also, in view of Lemma 4.3.3, the following result is a consequence of Theorem 4.2.2.

Corollary 4.3.5 *Let (X, G) be a complete generalized G_b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $M : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that there exists some $\beta \in [0, \frac{1}{2s})$ and*

$$G(Mx, My, Mz) \leq \beta \max\{G(x, y, z), G(x, Mx, Mx), G(y, My, My), G(z, Mz, Mz), \\ G(x, My, My), G(y, Mz, Mz), G(z, Mx, Mx)\},$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$. Then M has a unique fixed point.

The following example shows that the hypothesis of Theorem 4.2.2 is satisfied, but not of Theorem 4.2.1 and Corollary 4.3.5.

Example 4.3.6. Consider a G^* -metric space as in Example 3.2.10, which is a G^* -complete metric space with constant $\alpha = 1$. Now, define a mapping $M : X \rightarrow X$ by

$$M(x) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x = 1 \text{ or } \frac{1}{2}; \\ \frac{x}{3}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then M is not a k -contraction as for $x = y = z = \frac{1}{2}$, $G(Mx, My, Mz) = +\infty \not\leq 0 = kG(x, y, z)$ for any $k \in [0, 1)$. Thus, hypothesis of Theorem 4.2.1 are not satisfied. But we can check that (T1) is satisfied for any $\beta \in (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{\alpha})$. Also, for $x_0 \in [0, 1) - \{\frac{1}{2}\}$, $\delta(G, M, x_0) < +\infty$, therefore, hypothesis of Theorem 4.2.2 are satisfied. Further, we see that sequence $M^n(x_0) = \frac{x_0}{3^n} \rightarrow 0$, and 0 is a fixed point of M . Also, M has another fixed point namely 1, but then $G(0, 0, 1) = +\infty$ and $G(1, 1, 1) = +\infty$.

Also, the following result (in generalized G_b -metric space) is a consequence of Theorem 4.2.3 due to Lemma 4.3.2.

Corollary 4.3.6 (Theorem 2.4.5, Chapter 2) Let (X, G) be a complete generalized G_b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $M : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that there exists some $\beta \in [0, \frac{1}{s})$ and

$$G(Mx, My, Mz) \leq \beta \max\{G(x, y, z), G(x, Mx, Mx), G(y, My, My), G(z, Mz, Mz)\},$$

for all $x, y, z \in X$. Then M has a unique fixed point.

Some Fixed Point Results in b -Metric Spaces with New Contractive Mappings

5.1. Introduction

In the theory of metric space, Banach contraction principle [18] is one of the most important theorems and a powerful tool. A mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$, where (X, d) is a metric space, is called a contraction mapping if there exists $\alpha < 1$ such that for all $x, y \in X$, $d(Tx, Ty) \leq \alpha d(x, y)$. If the metric space (X, d) is complete, then T has a unique fixed point. Condition of contraction mapping implies the continuity of contraction. But, later in 1968, Kannan [75] proved the following result which gives the fixed point for discontinuous mapping. Let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping on a complete metric space (X, d) with

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \alpha(d(x, Tx) + d(y, Ty)),$$

where $\alpha \in [0, \frac{1}{2})$ and $x, y \in X$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Contraction mappings have been extended or generalized in several directions by various authors (see, for example, [36], [91], [108], [122], [123], [125], [142]). Not

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only contraction mappings, but the concept of metric space has also been extended in many ways in the literature (see, for example, [8], [17], [39], [40], [60], [67], [68], [89], [133]).

By weakening the triangle inequality in metric space, Bakhtin [17] introduced the idea of b -metric space with $s = 2$. In 1998, Czerwik [40] presented the notion of b -metric space in the following form:

Definition 5.1.1. [40] Let X be a non-empty set and $s \geq 1$ be a given real. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a b -metric if, for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(b1) \quad d(x, y) = 0 \text{ if and only if } x = y;$$

$$(b2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(b3) \quad d(x, y) \leq s(d(x, z) + d(z, y)).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a b -metric space. Clearly, every metric space is a b -metric space with $s = 1$, but the converse is not true in general. In fact, the class of b -metric spaces is larger than the class of metric spaces.

In [40], Banach contraction principle is proved in the framework of b -metric spaces. In 2013, Kir and Kiziltunc [83] established the results in b -metric spaces, which generalized the Kannan and Chatterjea type mappings. Aleksić *et al.* [7] introduced the following result, which improves Theorem 1 in [45].

Theorem 5.1.1 [7] Let (X, d) be a complete b -metric space with a constant $s \geq 1$.

If $T : X \rightarrow X$ satisfies the inequality:

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \lambda_1 d(x, y) + \lambda_2 d(x, Tx) + \lambda_3 d(y, Ty) + \lambda_4 (d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)),$$

where $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all $i = 1, 2, 3, 4$ and $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 + 2\lambda_4 < 1$ for $s \in [1, 2]$ and $\frac{2}{s} < \lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 + 2\lambda_4 < 1$ for $s \in (2, +\infty)$, then T has a unique fixed point.

Ćirić [36] introduced quasi-contraction mapping in metric space (X, d) as:

A mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ is said to be a *quasi-contraction mapping* if there exists $0 \leq q < 1$ such that for any $x, y, \in X$,

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq q \max\{d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), d(x, Ty), d(Tx, y)\}.$$

Many authors proved fixed point theorems for quasi-contraction mappings in b -metric spaces with some more restriction on values of q (see, for example, [7], [13], [69], [95], [113], [134], [135]). More on b -metric spaces can be found in ([53], [63], [76], [77], [81], [83], [87], [92], [93] [94], [103], [112], [120], [136], [137]).

In the present chapter, we define a new class of functions. After that, we define some new contractive mappings which combine the terms $d(x, y)$, $d(x, Tx)$, $d(y, Ty)$, $d(x, Ty)$, and $d(Tx, y)$ by means of the member of a newly defined class. The contents of this chapter are divided into different sections. Section 5.2 presents some preliminaries related to this chapter. In section 5.3, some fixed point results have been proved for newly defined contractive mappings. Section 5.4 deals with some consequences of the results presented in the previous section. Towards the end, an application to solve a system of linear equations is provided in section 5.5.

5.2. Preliminaries

This section presents some elementary definitions and results from literature and some new concepts that are to be used in the later sections of this chapter.

Definition 5.2.1. [23] Let (X, d) be a b -metric space. Then a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is called :

- (i) *Cauchy sequence* if, for each $\epsilon > 0$ there exist $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$,

for all $n, m \geq n_0$.

- (ii) *Convergent sequence* if there exists $l \in X$ such that for each $\epsilon > 0$ there exist $n_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $d(x_n, l) < \epsilon$, for all $n \geq n_0$. In this case, the sequence $\{x_n\}$ is said to *converge* to l .

Definition 5.2.2. [23] A b -metric space (X, d) is said to be a *complete b-metric space* if every Cauchy sequence is convergent in it.

Following lemma proved by Aghajani *et al.* [3] in 2014 plays a crucial role in the study of b -metric space.

Lemma 5.2.1 [3] *Let (X, d) be a b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and suppose that sequences $\{x_n\}$ and $\{y_n\}$ converge to x and $y \in X$, respectively. Then*

$$\frac{1}{s^2}d(x, y) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y_n) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y_n) \leq s^2d(x, y).$$

In particular, if $x = y$, then $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y_n) = 0$.

Moreover, for any $z \in X$,

$$\frac{1}{s}d(x, z) \leq \liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, z) \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, z) \leq sd(x, z).$$

In 2017, Miculescu and Mihail [92] and Suzuki [137] presented the following lemma about the Cauchy sequence in b -metric space.

Lemma 5.2.2 [92, 137] *Every sequence $\{x_n\}$ of elements from a b -metric space (X, d) , having the property that there exists $\lambda \in [0, 1)$ such that $d(x_n, x_{n+1}) \leq \lambda d(x_{n-1}, x_n)$ for every $n \in \mathbb{N}$, is a Cauchy sequence.*

We, now introduce a new class of functions and some new contractive mappings in b -metric space:

Definition 5.2.3. For any $m \in \mathbb{N}$, define Ξ_m to be the set of all functions

$\xi : [0, +\infty)^m \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ such that

$$(\xi_1) \quad \xi(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m) < \max\{t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m\} \text{ if } (t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m) \neq (0, 0, \dots, 0);$$

$$(\xi_2) \quad \text{if } \{t_i^{(n)}\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}, 1 \leq i \leq m, \text{ are } m \text{ sequences in } [0, +\infty) \text{ such that}$$

$$\limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} t_i^{(n)} = t_i < +\infty \text{ for all } i = 1 \text{ to } m, \text{ then}$$

$$\liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \xi(t_1^{(n)}, t_2^{(n)}, \dots, t_m^{(n)}) \leq \xi(t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m).$$

Definition 5.2.4. Let (X, d) be a b -metric space with $s \geq 1$. The mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ is said to be an ξ -contractive mapping of type-I if there exists $\xi \in \Xi_4$ and

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)}{2s} \right), \quad (5.2.5)$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

Definition 5.2.6. Let (X, d) be a b -metric space with $s \geq 1$. The mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ is said to be an ξ -contractive mapping of type-II if there exists $\xi \in \Xi_5$ and

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty)}{2s}, d(Tx, y) \right), \quad (5.2.7)$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

5.3. Fixed Point Results in b -Metric Spaces

The first main result of this chapter is as follows:

Theorem 5.3.1 *Let (X, d) be a complete b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $T : X \rightarrow X$ be an ξ -contractive mapping of type-I. Then T has a unique fixed point.*

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X as

$$x_n = T(x_{n-1}), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

If $x_m = x_{m+1}$ for some natural number m , then x_m is a fixed point of T .

Now, assume that any two consecutive terms of the sequence $\{x_n\}$ are distinct.

First, we prove that $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. For this, let $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then, by using

(5.2.5), we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) &\leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x_{n-1}, x_n), d(x_{n-1}, x_n), d(x_n, x_{n+1}), \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1})}{2s} \right) \quad (5.3.1) \\ &< \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(x_{n-1}, x_n), d(x_{n-1}, x_n), d(x_n, x_{n+1}), \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1})}{2s} \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(x_{n-1}, x_n), \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1})}{2s} \right\} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(x_{n-1}, x_n), \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_n) + d(x_n, x_{n+1})}{2} \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$d(x_n, x_{n+1}) < \frac{1}{s} d(x_{n-1}, x_n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1. \quad (5.3.2)$$

Case 1: If $s > 1$, then by Lemma 5.2.2, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

Case 2: If $s = 1$, then by (5.3.2), the sequence $\{d(x_n, x_{n+1})\}$ is monotonically

decreasing and bounded below. Therefore, sequence $\{d(x_n, x_{n+1})\}$ converges to a

real k , where $k \geq 0$. Suppose that $k > 0$. Now taking $\liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty}$ in (5.3.1),

we have $k \leq \xi(k, k, k, k')$,

where

$$k' = \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1})}{2} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_n) + d(x_n, x_{n+1})}{2} = k.$$

Now, $k \leq \xi(k, k, k, k') < \max\{k, k, k, k'\} = k$, a contradiction, therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) = 0. \quad (5.3.3)$$

Suppose that $\{x_n\}$ is not a Cauchy sequence, then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for any $r \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $m_r > n_r \geq r$ such that

$$d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) \geq \varepsilon. \quad (5.3.4)$$

Also, assume that m_r is the smallest natural number greater than n_r such that (5.3.4) holds. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon &\leq d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) \\ &\leq d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r-1}) + d(x_{m_r-1}, x_{n_r}) \\ &< d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r-1}) + \varepsilon \\ &< d(x_r, x_{r-1}) + \varepsilon, \end{aligned}$$

thus, by using (5.3.3) and taking $\lim r \rightarrow +\infty$, we get

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) = \varepsilon. \quad (5.3.5)$$

Now, by using (5.2.5)

$$\begin{aligned} &d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r+1}) \\ &\leq \xi \left(d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}), d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r+1}), d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r+1}), \frac{d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r})}{2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have

$$\begin{aligned} &d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) \\ &\leq d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{n_r+1}, x_{n_r}) \\ &\leq d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r+1}) + d(x_{n_r+1}, x_{n_r}) + \\ &\quad \xi \left(d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}), d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r+1}), d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r+1}), \frac{d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r})}{2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by taking $\lim r \rightarrow +\infty$ on both sides and also using (5.3.3) and (5.3.5), we get

$$\varepsilon \leq 0 + 0 + \xi(\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon'),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon' &= \limsup_{r \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r})}{2} \\ &\leq \limsup_{r \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) + d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{m_r}) + d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r})}{2} \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon + 0 + 0 + \varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\varepsilon \leq \xi(\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon') < \max\{\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon'\} = \varepsilon$, a contradiction. Hence, $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, d) . Since (X, d) is a complete b -metric space, therefore, there exists $x \in X$ such that sequence $\{x_n\}$ converges to x .

Now, by using (5.2.5), we have

$$d(Tx_n, Tx) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x_n, x), d(x_n, Tx_n), d(x, Tx), \frac{d(x_n, Tx) + d(x, Tx_n)}{2s} \right),$$

which implies that

$$d(x_{n+1}, Tx) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x_n, x), d(x_n, x_{n+1}), d(x, Tx), \frac{d(x_n, Tx) + d(x, x_{n+1})}{2s} \right).$$

Taking $\liminf n \rightarrow +\infty$ on both sides and using Lemma 5.2.1, we get

$$\frac{1}{s} d(x, Tx) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi(0, 0, d(x, Tx), l),$$

that is,

$$d(x, Tx) \leq \xi(0, 0, d(x, Tx), l),$$

where

$$l = \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_n, Tx) + d(x, x_{n+1})}{2s} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{sd(x, Tx) + 0}{2s} = \frac{d(x, Tx)}{2}.$$

Hence,

$$d(x, Tx) \leq \xi(0, 0, d(x, Tx), l) < \max\{0, 0, d(x, Tx), l\} = d(x, Tx),$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore, $Tx = x$.

Let $Ty = y$ for some $y \in X$, and suppose that $x \neq y$. Then by using (5.2.5), we get

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, y) = d(Tx, Ty) &\leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty) + d(y, Tx)}{2s} \right) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), 0, 0, \frac{d(x, y)}{s} \right) \\ &< \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(x, y), 0, 0, \frac{d(x, y)}{s} \right\} \\ &= \frac{d(x, y)}{s}, \end{aligned}$$

a contradiction. Therefore, $x = y$. □

The following remark improves Theorem 5.3.1.

Remark 5.3.6. Theorem 5.3.1 is also valid if the term $\frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)}{2s}$ in (5.2.5) is replaced by $\frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)}{\delta s}$, where δ is a real number defined by

$$\delta = \begin{cases} 2, & \text{if } s = 1, \\ \delta', & \text{if } 1 < s \leq 2, \\ 1, & \text{if } s > 2, \end{cases}$$

where δ' is any number in $(\frac{2}{s}, 1 + \frac{1}{s})$.

The proof of next result goes in a similar manner as the proof of Theorem 5.3.1.

Theorem 5.3.2 *Let (X, d) be a complete b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $T : X \rightarrow X$ be an ξ -contractive mapping of type-II. Then T has a unique fixed point.*

Following remark improves Theorem 5.3.2.

Remark 5.3.7. Theorem 5.3.2 is also valid if the term $\frac{d(x, Ty)}{2s}$ in (5.2.7) is replaced by $\frac{d(x, Ty)}{\delta^s}$, where δ is the same as in Remark 5.3.6.

5.4. Consequences

This section presents some results which are consequences of the results presented in the previous section. Following results are consequences of Theorem 5.3.1.

Corollary 5.4.1 *Let (X, d) be a complete b-metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that there exists $q \in [0, \frac{1}{s})$ and*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq q \max \left\{ d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)}{2s} \right\}, \quad (5.4.1)$$

for all $x, y \in X$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $\xi \in \Xi_4$ be defined by $\xi(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4) = qs \max\{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}$. Then by Theorem 5.3.1, T has a unique fixed point. □

In the following example, it is seen that conditions of Theorem 5.3.1 are satisfied, but Corollary 5.4.1 is not applicable.

Example 5.4.2. Let $X = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} : n \in \mathbb{N} \right\} \cup \{0\}$. Define $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ by $d(x, y) = |x - y|^2$, for all $x, y \in X$. Then d is a b-metric on X with $s = 2$.

Define $T : X \rightarrow X$ by $T\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(n+1)}}$, for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$ and $T(0)=0$. Define

$$\xi(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4) = \begin{cases} \frac{\max\{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}}{1+t_1}, & \text{if } t_1 > 0; \\ \frac{1}{2} \max\{t_2, t_3, t_4\}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Then, for all $x, y \in X$, (5.2.5) is satisfied and hence the conditions of Theorem 5.3.1 are satisfied.

But, we see that if (5.4.1) is satisfied for all $x, y \in X$, then we have

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq qN(x, y),$$

for all $x, y \in X$, where $N(x, y) = \max \left\{ d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)}{2s} \right\}$.

So, in particular, we have

$$d \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2(n+1)}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(m+1)}} \right) \leq qN \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \right), \quad \text{for all } m, n \in \mathbb{N}, m \neq n;$$

that is,

$$\frac{\left| \frac{1}{\sqrt{n+1}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{m+1}} \right|^2}{N \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \right)} \leq 2q, \quad \text{for all } m, n \in \mathbb{N}, m \neq n.$$

Now take $\lim n, m \rightarrow +\infty$, we get $2q \geq 1$, a contradiction. Hence, Corollary 5.4.1 is not applicable for this example.

Remark 5.4.3. In view of Remark 5.3.6, Corollary 5.4.1 is also valid, if the term $\frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)}{2s}$ is replaced by $\frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)}{\delta s}$, where δ is the same as defined in Remark 5.3.6.

Corollary 5.4.2 *Let (X, d) be a complete b -metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \lambda_1 d(x, y) + \lambda_2 d(x, Tx) + \lambda_3 d(y, Ty) + \lambda_4 (d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)), \quad (5.4.4)$$

for all $x, y \in X$, where $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 + \delta s \lambda_4 < \frac{1}{s}$ and $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all $i = 1$ to 4. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $\xi \in \Xi_4$ be defined by $\xi(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4) = s(\lambda_1 t_1 + \lambda_2 t_2 + \lambda_3 t_3 + \delta s \lambda_4 t_4)$. Then by Theorem 5.3.1 and Remark 5.4.3, T has a unique fixed point. \square

Following results are consequences of Theorem 5.3.2.

Corollary 5.4.3 *Let (X, d) be a complete b-metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that there exists $q \in [0, \frac{1}{s})$ and*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq q \max \left\{ d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty)}{\delta s}, d(Tx, y) \right\}, \quad (5.4.5)$$

for all $x, y \in X$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $\xi \in \Xi_5$ be defined by $\xi(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5) = qs \max\{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5\}$. Then, by Theorem 5.3.2, T has a unique fixed point. \square

Corollary 5.4.4 *Let (X, d) be a complete b-metric space with $s \geq 1$ and $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \lambda_1 d(x, y) + \lambda_2 d(x, Tx) + \lambda_3 d(y, Ty) + \lambda_4 d(x, Ty) + \lambda_5 d(Tx, y), \quad (5.4.6)$$

for all $x, y \in X$, where $\lambda_1 + \lambda_2 + \lambda_3 + \delta s \lambda_4 + \lambda_5 < \frac{1}{s}$ and $\lambda_i \geq 0$ for all $i = 1$ to 5 .

Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $\xi \in \Xi_5$ be defined by $\xi(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4, t_5) = s(\lambda_1 t_1 + \lambda_2 t_2 + \lambda_3 t_3 + \delta s \lambda_4 t_4 + \lambda_5 t_5)$.

Then, by Theorem 5.3.2, T has a unique fixed point. \square

5.5. Application

As an application of Theorem 5.3.1, the following result is presented in this section.

Theorem 5.5.1 *Consider a system of linear equations*

$$Ax = b, \quad (5.5.1)$$

where $A = [a_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ is an $n \times n$ matrix and $b = [b_i]_{n \times 1}$ is a column vector of constants and $x = [x_i]_{n \times 1}$ is a column matrix of n unknowns. If for each $x = [x_i]_{n \times 1}$, $y = [y_i]_{n \times 1}$ and $i = 1$ to n ,

$$|(a_{ii} + 1)(x_i - y_i) + \sum_{j=1, j \neq i}^n a_{ij}(x_j - y_j)|(1 + \max_{k=1}^n |x_k - y_k|) \leq |x_i - y_i|, \quad (5.5.2)$$

then system has a unique solution.

Proof. Let $X = \{[x_i]_{n \times 1} \mid x_i \text{ is real for all } i = 1 \text{ to } n, n \text{ being fixed}\}$ and

$d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ be defined as :

$$d(x, y) = \max_{i=1}^n |x_i - y_i|,$$

for all $x = [x_i]_{n \times 1}$, $y = [y_i]_{n \times 1} \in X$. Then clearly (X, d) is a complete b -metric space with constant $s = 1$ (i.e., (X, d) is a complete metric space).

Now define a $n \times n$ matrix $C = [c_{ij}]_{n \times n}$ by

$$c_{ij} = \begin{cases} a_{ij} + 1, & \text{if } i = j, \\ a_{ij}, & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Then the given system (5.5.1) reduces to

$$x = Cx - b. \quad (5.5.3)$$

Condition (5.5.2) becomes

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}(x_j - y_j) \right| (1 + \max_{k=1}^n |x_k - y_k|) \leq |x_i - y_i|, \quad \text{for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \quad (5.5.4)$$

Now, define a mapping $T : X \rightarrow X$ by

$$T(x) = Cx - b, \quad \text{where } x \in X.$$

For $x = [x_i]_{n \times 1}$ and $y = [y_i]_{n \times 1}$, suppose that $Tx = u = [u_i]_{n \times 1}$ and $Ty = v = [v_i]_{n \times 1}$,

then

$$u_i = \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}x_j - b_i, \quad \text{for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

and

$$v_i = \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}y_j - b_i, \quad \text{for all } i = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

Define

$$\xi(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4) = \begin{cases} \frac{\max\{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}}{1+t_1}, & \text{if } t_1 > 0; \\ \frac{1}{2} \max\{t_2, t_3, t_4\}, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Now, using condition (5.5.4), we get

$$\begin{aligned} d(Tx, Ty) &= \max_{i=1}^n |u_i - v_i| \\ &= \max_{i=1}^n \left| \sum_{j=1}^n c_{ij}(x_j - y_j) \right| \\ &\leq \max_{i=1}^n \left(\frac{|x_i - y_i|}{1 + \max_{k=1}^n |x_k - y_k|} \right) \\ &\leq \xi \left(d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y)}{2s} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, it is straightforward to see that the hypothesis of Theorem 5.3.1 is satisfied.

Therefore, T has a unique fixed point, and hence system (5.5.1) has a unique solution.

□

Some Fixed Point Theorems in b -Metric-Like Spaces

6.1. Introduction

Partial metric spaces were introduced by Matthews [89] in 1992 as a generalization of metric spaces. In 2012, Harandi [60] generalized the concept of partial metric by establishing a new space named metric-like-space. It is noticed that in metric-like space, self-distance of a point may be greater than the distance of that point to any other point (see Example 1.2.15). Later on, Shukla [133] in 2014 gave the idea of partial b -metric as a generalization of partial metric and b -metric. Meanwhile, in 2013, Alghamdi *et al.* [8] introduced the concept of b -metric-like spaces that generalized the notions of partial b -metric space and metric-like space. Obviously, b -metric-like space generalizes all abstract spaces that are mentioned in this paragraph. For the sake of clarity, we recall the definitions of these abstract spaces.

Definition 6.1.1. [89] Let X be a non-empty set. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *partial metric* if, for all $x, y, z \in X$,

[†]Part of the contents of this chapter has been published in **Axioms**, **10(2)**, **2021**, **15** pages, **Article ID 55**, (SCIE).

$$(p1) \quad x = y \Leftrightarrow d(x, x) = d(x, y) = d(y, y);$$

$$(p2) \quad d(x, x) \leq d(x, y);$$

$$(p3) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(p4) \quad d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y) - d(z, z).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a *partial metric space*.

Definition 6.1.2. [60] Let X be a non-empty set. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *metric-like* if, for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(m_l1) \quad d(x, y) = 0 \Rightarrow x = y;$$

$$(m_l2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(m_l3) \quad d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y).$$

The pair (X, d) is called a *metric-like space*.

Definition 6.1.3. [133] Let X be a non-empty set. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *partial b-metric* if there exists a number $s \geq 1$ such that for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(p_b1) \quad x = y \text{ if and only if } d(x, x) = d(x, y) = d(y, y);$$

$$(p_b2) \quad d(x, x) \leq d(x, y);$$

$$(p_b3) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(p_b4) \quad d(x, y) \leq s(d(x, z) + d(z, y)) - d(z, z).$$

Such a pair (X, d) is called a *partial b-metric space*.

Definition 6.1.4. [8] Let X be a non-empty set. Then a mapping $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ is called a *b-metric-like* if there exists a number $s \geq 1$ such that for all $x, y, z \in X$,

$$(b_{ml}1) \quad d(x, y) = 0 \Rightarrow x = y;$$

$$(b_{ml}2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x);$$

$$(b_{ml}3) \quad d(x, y) \leq s(d(x, z) + d(z, y)).$$

Such a pair (X, d) is called a *b-metric-like space*.

Sen *et al.* [128] have presented the process diagram of the various classes of these abstract spaces as follows:

$$\begin{array}{ccccc} \text{Metric space} & \Rightarrow & \text{Partial Metric space} & \Rightarrow & \text{Metric-like space} \\ & & \Downarrow & & \Downarrow \\ & & \text{b-Metric space} & \Rightarrow & \text{Partial b-Metric space} & \Rightarrow & \text{b-Metric-like space} \end{array}$$

The aim of this chapter is to extend the main results of Chapter 5 in the framework of *b-metric-like spaces*. Also, some common fixed point theorems are presented for weakly compatible mappings. This chapter is organized as follows: In section 6.2, some basic concepts related to common fixed points have been presented. After that, some elementary definitions and results in context of *b-metric-like spaces* have been presented in this section. Section 6.3 consists of the main results of the chapter. Towards the end, some consequences of main results are deduced in section 6.4.

6.2. Preliminaries

Two self-mappings f and g on the set X have a *common fixed point* x in X if $fx = gx = x$. In 1976, Jungck [70] initiated the study of common fixed points. Jungck [70] generalized the Banach contraction principle by proving a common fixed point theorem for commuting maps. Sessa [129], in 1982, further generalized the concept of commutativity by giving the notion of weakly commuting mappings.

Definition 6.2.1. [129] Two self-mappings T and S on a metric space (X, d) are said to be *weakly commuting* if, $d(TSx, STx) \leq d(Tx, Sx)$, for all x in X .

In 1986, Jungck [71] coined the term compatible mappings in order to generalize the notion of weakly commutativity.

Definition 6.2.2. [71] Two self-mappings T and S on a metric space (X, d) are said to be *compatible* if, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(TSx_n, STx_n) = 0$ whenever $\{x_n\}$ is a sequence in X such that $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} Tx_n = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} Sx_n = t$, for some $t \in X$.

Further, Jungck and Rhoades [73] in 1998 weakened the concept of compatible mappings by giving the notion of weakly compatible mappings as:

Definition 6.2.3. [73] Two self-mappings T and S on a set X are said to be *weakly compatible* if, $TSx = STx$ whenever $Tx = Sx$, for some $x \in X$, i.e., if T and S commute at their coincidence point. Here, x is a *coincidence point* of T and S , and the common value (i.e., $Tx = Sx$) is called a *point of coincidence* of T and S .

Thereafter, many fixed point results have been obtained for weakly compatible mappings (see [1], [5], [35], [38], [69], [72], [73], [117]).

Proposition 6.2.1 [1] *If two self-mappings $f, g : X \rightarrow X$ are weakly compatible and have a unique point of coincidence $w = fx = gx$, then w is the unique common fixed point of f and g .*

On the other hand, in 2013, Alghamdi *et al.* [8] introduced the concepts of convergent sequence, Cauchy sequence, and completeness in the framework of *b*-metric-like space as:

Definition 6.2.4. [8] Let (X, d) be a b -metric-like space and let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence of points of X . A point $x \in X$ is said to be the *limit* of sequence $\{x_n\}$ if $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x, x_n) = d(x, x)$, and we say that the sequence $\{x_n\}$ is *convergent to x* and denote it by $x_n \rightarrow x$ as $n \rightarrow +\infty$.

Definition 6.2.5. [8] Let (X, d) be a b -metric-like space.

(i) A sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X is called a *Cauchy sequence* if $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m)$ exists and is finite.

(ii) (X, d) is said to be *complete* if every Cauchy sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X converges to $x \in X$ so that $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = d(x, x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x)$.

Alghamdi *et al.* [8] also proved the following proposition about the uniqueness of the limit of a sequence in a b -metric-like space.

Proposition 6.2.2 [8] Let (X, d) be a b -metric-like space with $s \geq 1$, and $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X such that for some $x \in X$, $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$. Then

(i) x is unique.

(ii) $\frac{1}{s}d(x, y) \leq \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, y) \leq sd(x, y)$, for all $y \in X$.

For Cauchy sequence in a b -metric-like space, the following lemma is presented by Sen *et al.* [128].

Lemma 6.2.3 [128] Let (X, d) be a b -metric-like space, and $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in X such that

$$d(x_n, x_{n+1}) \leq \lambda d(x_{n-1}, x_n),$$

for some $\lambda \in [0, 1)$ and for each $n \in \mathbb{N}$. Then $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence with

$$\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = 0.$$

6.3. Main Results

In this section, we present the main theorems of this chapter. The following theorem is an extended version of Theorem 5.3.1 in the framework of a b -metric-like space. Towards the end of this theorem, an example is provided to illustrate the result.

Theorem 6.3.1 *Let (X, d) be a complete b -metric-like space with $s \geq 1$. Let*

$T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that there exists $\xi \in \Xi_4$ and

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y) - d(y, y)}{2s} \right), \quad (6.3.1)$$

for all $x, y \in X$ with $d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y) \geq d(y, y)$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$. Define a sequence $\{x_n\}$ in X as

$$x_n = T(x_{n-1}), \text{ for all } n \in \mathbb{N}.$$

Assume that any two consecutive terms of the sequence $\{x_n\}$ are distinct, otherwise T has a fixed point. First, we prove that $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. For this, let $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

Now,

$$d(x_{n-1}, Tx_n) + d(Tx_{n-1}, x_n) = d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1}) + d(x_n, x_n) \geq d(x_n, x_n),$$

therefore, by using (6.3.1), we have

$$d(x_n, x_{n+1}) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x_{n-1}, x_n), d(x_{n-1}, x_n), d(x_n, x_{n+1}), \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1}) + d(x_n, x_n) - d(x_n, x_n)}{2s} \right) \quad (6.3.2)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&< \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(x_{n-1}, x_n), d(x_{n-1}, x_n), d(x_n, x_{n+1}), \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1})}{2s} \right\} \\
&= \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(x_{n-1}, x_n), \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1})}{2s} \right\} \\
&\leq \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(x_{n-1}, x_n), \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_n) + d(x_n, x_{n+1})}{2} \right\},
\end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$d(x_n, x_{n+1}) < \frac{1}{s} d(x_{n-1}, x_n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1. \quad (6.3.3)$$

Case 1: If $s > 1$, then by Lemma 6.2.3 and in view of (6.3.3), $\{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, d) and $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = 0$.

Case 2: If $s = 1$, then by (6.3.3), the sequence $\{d(x_n, x_{n+1})\}$ is monotonically decreasing and bounded below. Therefore, sequence $\{d(x_n, x_{n+1})\}$ converges to a real k , where $k \geq 0$. Suppose that $k > 0$. Now taking $\liminf n \rightarrow +\infty$ in (6.3.2), we have $k \leq \xi(k, k, k, k')$,

where

$$k' = \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_{n+1})}{2} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_{n-1}, x_n) + d(x_n, x_{n+1})}{2} = k.$$

Now, $k \leq \xi(k, k, k, k') < \max\{k, k, k, k'\} = k$, a contradiction, therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_{n+1}) = 0. \quad (6.3.4)$$

Also,

$$d(x_n, x_n) \leq d(x_n, x_{n+1}) + d(x_{n+1}, x_n),$$

taking $\lim n \rightarrow +\infty$, and using (6.3.4) we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_n) = 0, \quad (6.3.5)$$

Suppose that $\lim_{n,m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) \neq 0$, then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for any $r \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists $m_r > n_r \geq r$ such that

$$d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) \geq \varepsilon. \quad (6.3.6)$$

Also, assume that m_r is the smallest natural number greater than n_r such that (6.3.6) holds. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon &\leq d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) \\ &\leq d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r-1}) + d(x_{m_r-1}, x_{n_r}) \\ &< d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r-1}) + \varepsilon \\ &< d(x_r, x_{r-1}) + \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by using (6.3.4) and taking $\lim r \rightarrow +\infty$, we get

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) = \varepsilon. \quad (6.3.7)$$

Now, suppose that there exists infinitely many r such that

$$d(x_{m_r}, Tx_{n_r}) + d(Tx_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) < d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r}).$$

Taking $\lim r \rightarrow +\infty$, and using (6.3.5), we get

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} (d(x_{m_r}, Tx_{n_r}) + d(Tx_{m_r}, x_{n_r})) = 0,$$

this implies that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r+1}) = \lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r}) = 0.$$

Now,

$$\varepsilon = \lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) \leq \limsup_{r \rightarrow +\infty} (d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{n_r+1}, x_{n_r})) = 0,$$

a contradiction. Therefore, there exists $r_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $r \geq r_0$,

$$d(x_{m_r}, Tx_{n_r}) + d(Tx_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) \geq d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r}).$$

Thus, for all $r \geq r_0$, using (6.3.1), we get

$$\begin{aligned} & d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r+1}) \\ & \leq \xi \left(d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}), d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r+1}), d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r+1}), \frac{d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r}) - d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r})}{2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} & d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) \\ & \leq d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{n_r+1}, x_{n_r}) \\ & \leq d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r+1}) + d(x_{n_r+1}, x_{n_r}) + \\ & \quad \xi \left(d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}), d(x_{m_r}, x_{m_r+1}), d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r+1}), \frac{d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r}) - d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r})}{2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by taking $\liminf r \rightarrow +\infty$ on both sides, and also using (6.3.4) and (6.3.7),

we get

$$\varepsilon \leq 0 + 0 + \xi(\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon'),$$

where

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon' &= \limsup_{r \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{n_r}) - d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r})}{2} \\ &\leq \limsup_{r \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) + d(x_{n_r}, x_{n_r+1}) + d(x_{m_r+1}, x_{m_r}) + d(x_{m_r}, x_{n_r}) - 0}{2} \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon + 0 + 0 + \varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\varepsilon \leq \xi(\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon') < \max\{\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon'\} = \varepsilon$, a contradiction. Hence, $\{x_n\}$ is a

Cauchy sequence in (X, d) with $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = 0$. Since (X, d) is a complete

b-metric-like space; therefore, there exists $x \in X$ such that sequence $\{x_n\}$ converges to x and

$$d(x, x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x) = \lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(x_n, x_m) = 0.$$

Suppose that $Tx \neq x$. Then, by using (6.3.1), we have

$$d(Tx_n, Tx) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x_n, x), d(x_n, Tx_n), d(x, Tx), \frac{d(x_n, Tx) + d(x, Tx_n) - d(x, x)}{2s} \right),$$

that is,

$$d(x_{n+1}, Tx) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x_n, x), d(x_n, x_{n+1}), d(x, Tx), \frac{d(x_n, Tx) + d(x, x_{n+1})}{2s} \right).$$

Taking $\liminf n \rightarrow +\infty$ on both sides and using Proposition 6.2.2, we get

$$\frac{1}{s} d(x, Tx) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi(0, 0, d(x, Tx), l),$$

that is,

$$d(x, Tx) \leq \xi(0, 0, d(x, Tx), l),$$

where

$$l = \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(x_n, Tx) + d(x, x_{n+1})}{2s} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{sd(x, Tx) + 0}{2s} = \frac{d(x, Tx)}{2}.$$

Hence,

$$d(x, Tx) \leq \xi(0, 0, d(x, Tx), l) < \max\{0, 0, d(x, Tx), l\} = d(x, Tx),$$

which is a contradiction. Therefore, $Tx = x$.

Let $Ty = y$ for some $y \in X$, then by (6.3.1), $d(y, y) = 0$. Now, suppose that $x \neq y$.

Then by (6.3.1), we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, y) &= d(Tx, Ty) \\ &\leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty) + d(y, Tx) - d(x, x)}{2s} \right), \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty) + d(y, Tx)}{2s} \right), \\
&\leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), 0, 0, \frac{d(x, y)}{s} \right) \\
&< \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(x, y), 0, 0, \frac{d(x, y)}{s} \right\} \\
&= \frac{d(x, y)}{s},
\end{aligned}$$

a contradiction. Therefore, $x = y$. □

Example 6.3.8. Let $X = [0, +\infty)$. Define $d : X \times X \rightarrow [0, +\infty)$ by

$$d(x, y) = (x + y)^2, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X.$$

Then d is a b -metric-like on X with $s = 2$, but d is not a b -metric on X .

Define $T : X \rightarrow X$ by $T(x) = \frac{x}{2}$. Also, define $\xi(t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4) = \frac{1}{2} \max\{t_1, t_2, t_3, t_4\}$.

Then, for all $x, y \in X$ with $d(x, Ty) + d(Tx, y) \geq d(y, y)$, (6.3.1) in Theorem 6.3.1 is satisfied; and T has a unique fixed point 0.

Next, we prove some common fixed point results for weakly compatible mappings in the context of b -metric-like space.

Theorem 6.3.2 *Let (X, d) be a complete b -metric-like space with $s \geq 1$ and let $T, S : X \rightarrow X$ be two mappings such that $T(X) \subseteq S(X)$, one of these subsets is complete, and there exists $\xi \in \Xi_4$ and*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(Sx, Sy), d(Sx, Tx), d(Sy, Ty), \frac{d(Sx, Ty) + d(Tx, Sy) - d(Sy, Sy)}{2s} \right), \quad (6.3.9)$$

for all $x, y \in X$ with $d(Sx, Ty) + d(Tx, Sy) \geq d(Sy, Sy)$. If $d(Tz, Sz) = 0$ for some z in X , then z is the unique point of coincidence of T and S . If, moreover, the pair (T, S) is weakly compatible, then T and S have a unique common fixed point.

Proof. Since $d(Tz, Sz) = 0$, therefore, $Sz = Tz$, thus T and S have a point of coincidence $Tz = Sz = w$ (say). Let $Tz_1 = Sz_1 = w_1$ be another point of coincidence of T and S . Suppose that $d(Sz_1, Sz_1) \neq 0$.

Since $d(Sz_1, Tz_1) + d(Tz_1, Sz_1) = 2d(Sz_1, Sz_1) \geq d(Sz_1, Sz_1)$, so by using (6.3.9), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 & d(Sz_1, Sz_1) \\
 &= d(Tz_1, Tz_1) \\
 &\leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(Sz_1, Sz_1), d(Sz_1, Tz_1), d(Sz_1, Tz_1), \frac{d(Sz_1, Tz_1) + d(Sz_1, Tz_1) - d(Sz_1, Sz_1)}{2s} \right), \\
 &= \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(Sz_1, Sz_1), d(Sz_1, Sz_1), d(Sz_1, Sz_1), \frac{d(Sz_1, Sz_1) + d(Sz_1, Sz_1) - d(Sz_1, Sz_1)}{2s} \right), \\
 &< \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(Sz_1, Sz_1), d(Sz_1, Sz_1), d(Sz_1, Sz_1), \frac{d(Sz_1, Sz_1)}{2s} \right\} \\
 &= \frac{d(Sz_1, Sz_1)}{s},
 \end{aligned}$$

which is a contradiction, therefore, $d(Sz_1, Sz_1) = 0$. Next, suppose that $d(w, w_1) \neq 0$, and since $d(Sz, Tz_1) + d(Tz, Sz_1) \geq 0 = d(Sz_1, Sz_1)$, so by (6.3.9), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 & d(w, w_1) \\
 &= d(Tz, Tz_1) \\
 &\leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(Sz, Sz_1), d(Sz, Tz), d(Sz_1, Tz_1), \frac{d(Sz, Tz_1) + d(Sz_1, Tz) - d(Sz_1, Sz_1)}{2s} \right), \\
 &= \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(w, w_1), 0, 0, \frac{d(w, w_1) + d(w_1, w)}{2s} \right), \\
 &\leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(w, w_1), 0, 0, \frac{d(w, w_1)}{s} \right) \\
 &< \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(w, w_1), 0, 0, \frac{d(w, w_1)}{s} \right\} \\
 &= \frac{d(w, w_1)}{s},
 \end{aligned}$$

a contradiction. Therefore, $d(w, w_1) = 0$, i.e., $w = w_1$. Thus, by Proposition 6.2.1,

if T and S are weakly compatible, then T and S have a unique common fixed point. \square

Theorem 6.3.2 is still valid even if the condition “ $d(Tz, Sz) = 0$ for some z in X ” is removed as shown in the following theorem.

Theorem 6.3.3 *Let (X, d) be a complete b -metric-like space with $s \geq 1$. Let $T, S : X \rightarrow X$ be two mappings such that $T(X) \subseteq S(X)$, one of these subsets is complete, and there exists $\xi \in \Xi_4$ such that (6.3.9) holds for all $x, y \in X$ with $d(Sx, Ty) + d(Tx, Sy) \geq d(Sy, Sy)$. Then T and S have a unique point of coincidence. If, moreover, the pair (T, S) is weakly compatible, then T and S have a unique common fixed point.*

Proof. Consider $S(X)$ is complete. Let $x_0 \in X$. As $T(X) \subseteq S(X)$, so define a sequence $\{y_n\}$ in $S(X)$ by

$$y_n = Tx_n = Sx_{n+1}, \text{ for all } n \geq 0.$$

If $d(y_m, y_{m+1}) = 0$ for some m , then $d(Tz, Sz) = 0$, where $z = x_{m+1}$. Thus, by Theorem 6.3.2, proof is complete. We now prove the result when $d(y_m, y_{m+1}) \neq 0$ for each $m \in \mathbb{N}$. For this, we first prove that $\{y_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$, then we have

$$d(Sx_n, Tx_{n+1}) + d(Tx_n, Sx_{n+1}) = d(y_{n-1}, y_{n+1}) + d(y_n, y_n) \geq d(y_n, y_n) = d(Sx_{n+1}, Sx_{n+1}).$$

Therefore, by using (6.3.9), we have

$$d(Tx_n, Tx_{n+1}) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi(d(Sx_n, Sx_{n+1}), d(Sx_n, Tx_n), d(Sx_{n+1}, Tx_{n+1}), \frac{d(Sx_n, Tx_{n+1}) + d(Tx_{n+1}, Sx_{n+1}) - d(Sx_{n+1}, Sx_{n+1})}{2s}),$$

that is,

$$d(y_n, y_{n+1}) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(y_{n-1}, y_n), d(y_{n-1}, y_n), d(y_n, y_{n+1}), \frac{d(y_{n-1}, y_{n+1}) + d(y_n, y_n) - d(y_n, y_n)}{2s} \right) \quad (6.3.10)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &< \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(y_{n-1}, y_n), d(y_{n-1}, y_n), d(y_n, y_{n+1}), \frac{d(y_{n-1}, y_{n+1})}{2s} \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(y_{n-1}, y_n), \frac{d(y_{n-1}, y_{n+1})}{2s} \right\} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{s} \max \left\{ d(y_{n-1}, y_n), \frac{d(y_{n-1}, y_n) + d(y_n, y_{n+1})}{2} \right\}, \end{aligned}$$

which implies that

$$d(y_n, y_{n+1}) < \frac{1}{s} d(y_{n-1}, y_n), \quad \text{for all } n \geq 1. \quad (6.3.11)$$

Case 1: If $s > 1$, then by Lemma 6.2.3 and in view of (6.3.11), $\{y_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(S(X), d)$ and $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_n, y_m) = 0$.

Case 2: If $s = 1$, then by (6.3.11), the sequence $\{d(y_n, y_{n+1})\}$ is monotonically decreasing and bounded below. Therefore, sequence $\{d(y_n, y_{n+1})\}$ converges to a real k , where $k \geq 0$. Suppose that $k > 0$. Now taking $\liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty}$ in (6.3.10), we have $k \leq \xi(k, k, k, k')$,

where

$$k' = \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(y_{n-1}, y_{n+1})}{2} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(y_{n-1}, y_n) + d(y_n, y_{n+1})}{2} = k.$$

Now, $k \leq \xi(k, k, k, k') < \max\{k, k, k, k'\} = k$, a contradiction, therefore,

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_n, y_{n+1}) = 0. \quad (6.3.12)$$

Also

$$d(y_n, y_n) \leq d(y_n, y_{n+1}) + d(y_{n+1}, y_n).$$

Taking $\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty}$, and using (6.3.12), we get

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_n, y_n) = 0. \quad (6.3.13)$$

Suppose that $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_n, y_m) \neq 0$, then there exists $\varepsilon > 0$ such that for any $r \in \mathbb{N}$,

there exists $m_r > n_r \geq r$ such that

$$d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}) \geq \varepsilon. \quad (6.3.14)$$

Also, assume that m_r is the smallest natural number greater than n_r such that (6.3.14) holds. Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon &\leq d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}) \\ &\leq d(y_{m_r}, y_{m_r-1}) + d(y_{m_r-1}, y_{n_r}) \\ &< d(y_{m_r}, y_{m_r-1}) + \varepsilon \\ &< d(y_r, y_{r-1}) + \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by using (6.3.12) and taking $\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty}$, we get

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}) = \varepsilon. \quad (6.3.15)$$

Now, suppose that there exists infinitely many r such that

$$d(Sx_{m_r+1}, Tx_{n_r+1}) + d(Tx_{m_r+1}, Sx_{n_r+1}) < d(Sx_{n_r+1}, Sx_{n_r+1}) = d(y_{n_r}, y_{n_r}).$$

Taking $\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty}$, and using (6.3.13), we get

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} (d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r+1}) + d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{n_r})) = 0,$$

which gives that

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r+1}) = \lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{n_r}) = 0.$$

Now,

$$\varepsilon = \lim_{r \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}) \leq \limsup_{r \rightarrow +\infty} (d(y_{m_r}, y_{m_r+1}) + d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{n_r})) = 0,$$

a contradiction. Therefore, there exists $r_0 \in \mathbb{N}$ such that for all $r \geq r_0$,

$$d(Sx_{m_r+1}, Tx_{n_r+1}) + d(Tx_{m_r+1}, Sx_{n_r+1}) \geq d(Sx_{n_r+1}, Sx_{n_r+1}).$$

Thus, for all $r \geq r_0$, using (6.3.9), we have

$$\begin{aligned} & d(Tx_{m_r+1}, Tx_{n_r+1}) \\ & \leq \xi(d(Sx_{m_r+1}, Sx_{n_r+1}), d(Sx_{m_r+1}, Tx_{m_r+1}), d(Sx_{n_r+1}, Tx_{n_r+1}), \\ & \quad \frac{d(Sx_{m_r+1}, Tx_{n_r+1}) + d(Tx_{m_r+1}, Sx_{n_r+1}) - d(Sx_{n_r+1}, Sx_{n_r+1})}{2}), \end{aligned}$$

that is,

$$\begin{aligned} & d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{n_r+1}) \\ & \leq \xi \left(d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}), d(y_{m_r}, y_{m_r+1}), d(y_{n_r}, y_{n_r+1}), \frac{d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r+1}) + d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{n_r}) - d(y_{n_r}, y_{n_r})}{2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Now,

$$\begin{aligned} & d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}) \\ & \leq d(y_{m_r}, y_{m_r+1}) + d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{n_r+1}) + d(y_{n_r+1}, y_{n_r}) \\ & \leq d(y_{m_r}, y_{m_r+1}) + d(y_{n_r+1}, y_{n_r}) + \\ & \quad \xi \left(d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}), d(y_{m_r}, y_{m_r+1}), d(y_{n_r}, y_{n_r+1}), \frac{d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r+1}) + d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{n_r}) - d(y_{n_r}, y_{n_r})}{2} \right). \end{aligned}$$

Thus, by taking $\liminf r \rightarrow +\infty$ on both sides, and also using (6.3.12) and (6.3.15),

we get $\varepsilon \leq 0 + 0 + \xi(\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon')$, where

$$\begin{aligned} \varepsilon' &= \limsup_{r \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r+1}) + d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{n_r}) - d(y_{n_r}, y_{n_r})}{2} \\ &\leq \limsup_{r \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}) + d(y_{n_r}, y_{n_r+1}) + d(y_{m_r+1}, y_{m_r}) + d(y_{m_r}, y_{n_r}) - 0}{2} \\ &= \frac{\varepsilon + 0 + 0 + \varepsilon}{2} = \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\varepsilon \leq \xi(\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon') < \max\{\varepsilon, 0, 0, \varepsilon'\} = \varepsilon$, a contradiction. Hence, $\{y_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in $(S(X), d)$ with $\lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_n, y_m) = 0$. Since $(S(X), d)$ is a complete b -metric-like space, therefore, there exists $z \in X$ such that sequence $\{y_n = Tx_n = Sx_{n+1}\}$ converges to Sz , and

$$d(Sz, Sz) = \lim_{n \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_n, Sz) = \lim_{n, m \rightarrow +\infty} d(y_n, y_m) = 0.$$

Suppose that $d(Sz, Tz) \neq 0$. Now, by using (6.3.9), we have

$$d(Tx_n, Tz) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(Sx_n, Sz), d(Sx_n, Tx_n), d(Sz, Tz), \frac{d(Sx_n, Tz) + d(Sz, Tx_n) - d(Sz, Sz)}{2s} \right),$$

that is,

$$d(y_n, Tz) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(y_{n-1}, Sz), d(y_{n-1}, y_n), d(Sz, Tz), \frac{d(y_{n-1}, Tz) + d(Sz, y_n)}{2s} \right).$$

Taking $\liminf_{n \rightarrow +\infty}$ on both sides and using Proposition 6.2.2, we get

$$\frac{1}{s} d(Sz, Tz) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi(0, 0, d(Sz, Tz), l),$$

that is,

$$d(Sz, Tz) \leq \xi(0, 0, d(Sz, Tz), l),$$

where

$$l = \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{d(y_{n-1}, Tz) + d(Sz, y_n)}{2s} \leq \limsup_{n \rightarrow +\infty} \frac{sd(Sz, Tz) + 0}{2s} = \frac{d(Sz, Tz)}{2}.$$

Hence,

$$d(Sz, Tz) \leq \xi(0, 0, d(Sz, Tz), l) < \max\{0, 0, d(Sz, Tz), l\} = d(Sz, Tz),$$

which is a contradiction, therefore, $d(Sz, Tz) = 0$. Hence, by Theorem 6.3.2, proof is complete. \square

Theorem 6.3.4 *Let (X, d) be a complete *b*-metric-like space with $s \geq 1$. Let $T, S : X \rightarrow X$ be two mappings such that $T(X) \subseteq S(X)$, one of these subsets is complete, and there exists $\xi \in \Xi_5$ and*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(Sx, Sy), d(Sx, Tx), d(Sy, Ty), \frac{d(Sx, Ty)}{2s}, d(Tx, Sy) - d(Sy, Sy) \right),$$

for all $x, y \in X$ with $d(Tx, Sy) \geq d(Sy, Sy)$. Then T and S have a unique point of coincidence. If, moreover, the pair (T, S) is weakly compatible, then T and S have a unique common fixed point.

Proof. Proof of the theorem follows a similar line as in Theorem 6.3.3. \square

6.4. Consequences

Considering S be an identity mapping in Theorem 6.3.3 and Theorem 6.3.4, we obtained, respectively Theorem 6.3.1 and the following result

Corollary 6.4.1 *Let (X, d) be a complete *b*-metric-like space with $s \geq 1$. Let $T : X \rightarrow X$ be a mapping such that there exists $\xi \in \Xi_5$ and*

$$d(Tx, Ty) \leq \frac{1}{s} \xi \left(d(x, y), d(x, Tx), d(y, Ty), \frac{d(x, Ty)}{2s}, d(Tx, y) - d(y, y) \right),$$

for all $x, y \in X$ with $d(Tx, y) \geq d(y, y)$. Then T has a unique fixed point.

Remark 6.4.1. As $d(y, y) = 0$ in b -metric space, so Theorem 6.3.1 and Corollary 6.4.1 reduces to Theorem 5.3.1 and Theorem 5.3.2 respectively.

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