

Fixed Point Theorems and Generalizations of Dislocated Metric Spaces

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Abstract

In this note we discuss some topological properties and generalizations of dislocated metric space and establish some fixed point theorems. **Mathematics Subject Classification:** 47H10, 54H25.

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1. Introduction

The term *Distance Function* is customarily attributed to the metric associated with a metric space. However the study of the notion of a distance function on a set goes back to Frechet and Frink^{1,2}. In 2000, Hitzler and Seda³ proved fixed point theorems in complete dislocated metric spaces. Their theorems generalizes Banach contraction principle to dislocated metric spaces. Sarma⁴ introduced the topological aspects and completion of dislocated metric spaces and proved a coincidence theorem which generalizes Mathew's theorem. Moreover he proved a dislocated metric version of Seghal's fixed point theorem which ultimately implies to satisfy conditions analogous to those of Banach, Kannan, Bianchinl, Reitch and Rakotch. Ahmed⁵ introduced the concept of left (right) dislocated metric spaces and proved some fixed point theorems. In recent years many authors prove fixed point theorems in dislocated and dislocated quasi metric spaces(see for examples⁶⁻⁹). In this paper we introduce topological aspects of left (right) dislocated metric spaces which is different from Ahmed's conditions and prove some fixed point theorems.

2. Preliminaries and some Topological Properties

If X is a set, any mapping $d: X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a distance function. In order that we are able to derive some meaningful results that are consistent with the natural laws of distance that are familiar, it is but natural to impose some natural restrictions on a distance function. The following are some of the most reasonable conditions for a distance function d on a set X , which we consider in this note.

Definition 1. Let X be a nonempty set. A distance on X is a map $d: X \times X \rightarrow [0, \infty)$. A pair (X, d) is known distance space if d satisfies the following conditions

$$(d_1) \quad d(x, x) = 0$$

$$(d_2) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x) = 0 \Rightarrow x=y$$

$$(d_3) \quad d(x, y) = d(y, x)$$

$$(d_4) \quad d(x, z) \leq d(x, y) + d(y, z)$$

If d satisfies (d_1) - (d_4) then it is called a metric on X . If d satisfies (d_2) - (d_4) then it is called dislocated metric on X .

Definition 2. A distance function d is called right dislocated metric (rd-metric) or simply left dislocated metric (ld-

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metric) iff it satisfies (d_4) and the condition $d(x, y) = 0 \Rightarrow x = y \forall x, y \in X$ (resp. $d(y, x) = 0 \Rightarrow y = x$)

It is clear that any dislocated metric is rd-metric (resp. ld-metric) but the converse need not be true.

If $x \in X$ and $\epsilon > 0$ the set $\mathbb{B}_\epsilon^r(x) = \{y : d(x, y) < \epsilon\}$ (resp. $\mathbb{B}_\epsilon^l(x) = \{y : d(y, x) < \epsilon\}$) called the right open ball (resp. left open ball)

Notation: $V_\epsilon^r(x) = \{x\} \cup \mathbb{B}_\epsilon^r(x)$ (resp. $V_\epsilon^l(x) = \{x\} \cup \mathbb{B}_\epsilon^l(x)$)

Proposition 1. $\mathfrak{B} = \{V_\epsilon^r(x)/x \in X\}$ (resp. $\{V_\epsilon^l(x)/x \in X\}$) is a basis for a topology on X .

Proof. Clearly each $x \in X \exists V_\epsilon^r(x) \ni x \in V_\epsilon^r(x)$

If y is a point of $V_\epsilon^r(x)$ then there is a basis element $V_\delta^r(y)$ that contained in $V_\epsilon^r(x)$

$y \in V_\epsilon^r(x) = \mathbb{B}_\epsilon^r(x) \cup \{x\} \Rightarrow d(x, y) < \epsilon$

choose $\delta = \epsilon - d(x, y)$ then $V_\delta^r(y) \subset V_\epsilon^r(x)$

$z \in V_\delta^r(y) \Rightarrow d(y, z) < \delta = \epsilon - d(x, y) \Rightarrow d(x, z) < \epsilon \Rightarrow z \in V_\epsilon^r(x)$

Remark: Let $\mathfrak{J}_l^r$ (resp. $\mathfrak{J}_l^l$) be the topology induced by rd-metric (ld-metric)

Proposition 2. If $x \in X$, the condition $\{V_\epsilon^r(x)/x \in X\}$ (resp. $\{V_\epsilon^l(x)/x \in X\}$) is an open base at x , hence $\mathfrak{J}_d^r$ (resp. $\mathfrak{J}_d^l$) is first countable.

Definition 3. A sequence $\{x_n\} \subset X$ is right convergent (resp. ld-convergent) iff there exists a point $x \in X$ such that $\lim d(x, x_n) = 0$ (resp. $\lim d(x_n, x) = 0$). In this case x is said to be the rd-limit (ld-limit) of $\{x_n\}$

Notation: For $A \subset X$ we write $D_r(A) = \{x \in X/x \text{ is a right limit of } \{x_n\} \in A\}$ Similarly $D_l(A)$

Definition 4. V is rd-open (resp. ld-open) iff $\forall x \in V \exists \epsilon > 0 \ni V_\epsilon^r(x) \subset V$ (resp. $V_\epsilon^l(x) \subset V$)

Proposition 3. Let $A \subset X$ then $x \in D_r(A) \Leftrightarrow$ for every $\epsilon > 0 \mathbb{B}_\epsilon^r \cap A \neq \phi$ (resp. $\mathbb{B}_\epsilon^l \cap A \neq \phi$)

Proof: Routine.

In¹⁰ the authors introduced Dislocated symmetric spaces, highlighted some convergence axioms and proved some implications and non-implications among them. So we pick some convergence axioms from that article and prove some main theorems.

(C₁) for a sequence and $\{x_n\} \in X, x, y \in X, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, x) = 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x_n, y) = 0$ imply $x = y$.

(C₂) for a sequence $\{x_n\} \in X, x, y \in X, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x, x_n) = 0$ and $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(y, x_n) = 0$ imply $x = y$.

Definition 5. A sequence $\{x_n\} \in X$ is a Cauchy sequence if for every $\epsilon > 0$ there corresponds a positive integer N_0 such that $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$ whenever $n, m \geq N_0$.

Proposition 4. Let (X, d) be a rd-metric space (resp. ld-metric space) $X-A$ is rd-open (resp. ld-open) iff A is rd-closed (resp. ld-closed)

Proof. Let (X, d) be a rd-metric space. A is rd-closed.

Claim: $X-A$ is rd-open.

For $x \in X-A \exists r > 0 \ni V_\epsilon^r(x) \subseteq X-A$. Suppose for some $x \in X-A$ this does not hold, then $\forall n \geq 1, V_{1/n}^r(x) \not\subseteq X-A$.

So $\exists x_n \in V_{1/n}^r(x) \cap A \Rightarrow d(x, x_n) < 1/n$. Since A is rd-closed, x belongs to A .

which is a contradiction.

Conversely, suppose that $X-A$ is rd-open.

Claim: A is rd-closed.

Suppose $x \in X, x_n \in A$ & $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x, x_n) = 0$.

Let $x \notin A \Rightarrow \exists \epsilon > 0 \ni V_\epsilon^r(x) \not\subseteq X-A$. For this $\exists N_\epsilon \ni d(x, x_n) < \epsilon \forall n \geq N_\epsilon \Rightarrow x_n \notin A$ which is contradiction.

Definition 6. The pair (X, d) is said to be rd-complete (resp. ld-complete) if every cauchy sequence is rd-convergent (resp. ld-convergent)

Remark: rd-limit (resp. ld-limit) of a sequence in (X, d) is unique.

Proposition 5. $A \subset X$ is rd-closed (resp. ld-closed) iff A contains all its limit points.

Proof. Suppose that A is rd-closed.

$\Rightarrow X-A$ is rd-open. Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in $A \ni d(x, x_n) < \epsilon \forall n \geq N_\epsilon \dots (1)$

Claim: $x \in A$

Suppose $x \notin A \Rightarrow x \in X-A$. Since $X-A$ is rd-open $\exists \epsilon > 0 \ni V_\epsilon^r(x) \subseteq X-A$

From (1) $x_n \in V_\epsilon^r(x) \subseteq X-A$. Which is a contradiction.

Conversely Suppose that $X-A$ is not open.

$\exists x \in X-A \ni$ for every $\epsilon > 0, \mathbb{B}_\epsilon^l(x) \not\subseteq X-A$ i.e. $\mathbb{B}_\epsilon^l(x) \cap A \neq \phi$

So for every positive integer $n, \exists x_n \in \mathbb{B}_{1/n}^l(x) \cap A \Rightarrow d(x, x_n) < 1/n$

$x_n \in A, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} d(x, x_n) = 0$. x is a limit point of A and $x \notin A$ which is a contradiction

Definition 7. Let (X, d) be a rd-metric (resp. ld-metric) space and $f: X \rightarrow X$ is said to be right continuous or simply (rd-continuous) (resp. ld-continuous) at x iff $\forall \epsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0 \ni f(V_\delta^r(x)) \subseteq V_\epsilon^r(f(x))$ (resp. $f(V_\delta^l(x)) \subseteq V_\epsilon^l(f(x))$)

Definition 8. Let (X, d) be a rd-metric space and $f: X \rightarrow X$. If there is a number $0 < \alpha < 1$ such that $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq \alpha d(x, y) \forall x, y \in X$ then f is called a contraction.

Proposition 6. Let (X, d) be a rd-metric (resp ld-metric) space and f is a contraction then f is rd-continuous (resp ld-continuous).

Proof. Suppose f is not rd-continuous at $x \in X$.

$\exists \epsilon > 0 \forall n > 0; f(x_n) \not\subseteq_{\epsilon} (f(x))$
 $\Rightarrow \exists (x_n) \in X \ni d(x, x_n) < 1/n$ but $d(f(x), f(x_n)) \geq \epsilon$
 Since $d(f(x), f(x_n)) \leq \alpha d(x, x_n) < \alpha/n$; $\lim d(f(x), f(x_n)) = 0$
 So, $\exists N \ni d(f(x), f(x_n)) < \epsilon \forall n \geq N$. This is a contradiction
 Hence f is rd-continuous at x .
 Similarly f is ld-continuous.

Proposition 7. If $d(x, y) < \delta \Rightarrow d(y, x) < \delta$ then $\mathcal{J}_d^r$ coincides with $\mathcal{J}_d^l$ and this topology satisfies Hausdorff property.

Proof. if $d(x, y) < \delta \Rightarrow d(y, x) < \delta$ then,

$$d(x, y) < \delta \Leftrightarrow d(y, x) < \delta$$

So that $\mathbb{B}_\delta^r(x) = \mathbb{B}_\delta^l(x)$ Then the right topology $\mathcal{J}_d^r$ generated by d coincides with the left topology.

Now suppose, $x \neq y$, then $d(x, y) > 0$. Let $0 < \delta < d(x, y)/2$

If $\exists z \in V_\delta(x) \cap V_\delta(y)$ then $x \neq z \neq y$ and
 $d(x, z) < \delta$ and $d(y, z) < \delta \Rightarrow d(z, y) < \delta$

Hence $d(x, y) \leq d(x, z) + d(z, y) < d(x, z) + \delta < 2\delta < d(x, y)$:

Proposition 8. $\mathcal{J}_d^r$ (resp. $\mathcal{J}_d^l$) is T_1 space $\Leftrightarrow d$ satisfies $d(y, x) > 0$ (resp. $d(x, y) > 0$)

Proof. Assume that $\mathcal{J}_d^r$ is T_1 space.

Let $x \in X, y \in X$ and $x \neq y$. Since $\mathcal{J}_d^r$ is open, $X - \{x\}$ is open.

$$x \neq y \Rightarrow y \in X - x.$$

$$\Rightarrow \exists \delta > 0 \ni V_\delta^r \subseteq X - \{x\}$$

$$\Rightarrow x \notin V_\delta^r(y)$$

$$\Rightarrow d(y, x) \geq \delta > 0.$$

Conversely, suppose that the condition holds. We show that $X - \{x\}$ is open $\forall x \in X$

Let $y \in X - \{x\}$ since $y \neq x, d(y, x) > 0$

$$z \in V_\epsilon^r(y) \Rightarrow d(y, z) < \epsilon \Rightarrow z \neq x$$

$$z \in X - \{x\} \Rightarrow V_\epsilon^r(y) \subseteq (X - \{x\})$$

Hence $X - \{x\}$ is closed. Since this holds $\forall x \in X, (X, \mathcal{J}^r)$ is T_1 space.

3. Main Results

Theorem 1. Let (X, d) be a right complete (left complete) dislocated metric space with $C(2)$ and let f be a contraction

mapping on X . Then f has a unique fixed point.

Proof. let x, y be any two points of X . Since f is a contraction on X there exists a real number α with $0 \leq \alpha < 1$ such that $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq \alpha d(x, y)$

In fact, $d(f^2(x), f^2(y)) \leq \alpha d(f(x), f(y)) \leq \alpha^2 d(x, y)$

Then by induction, for any positive integer n ,

$$d(f^n(x), f^n(y)) \leq \alpha^n d(x, y) \forall x, y \in X$$

Now let, x_0 be any point of X , set for $n \geq 0$

$$x_1 = f(x_0), x_2 = f(x_1) = f^2(x_0) \dots, x_{n+1} = f(x_n)$$

$$x_n = f(x_{n-1}) = \dots = f^n(x_0)$$

Let $m, n (m > n)$ be any positive integer ≥ 1 , then we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_n, x_m) &\leq d(x_n, x_{n+1}) + d(x_{n+1}, x_{n+2}) + \dots + d(x_{m-1}, x_m) \\ &= d(f^n(x_0), f^{n+1}(x_0)) + \dots + d(f^{m-1}(x_0), f^m(x_0)) \\ &\leq (\alpha^n + \alpha^{n+1} + \dots + \alpha^{m-1}) d(x_0, x_1) \\ &= \alpha^n (1 + \alpha + \dots + \alpha^{m-n-1}) d(x_0, x_1) \\ &< \frac{\alpha^n}{1-\alpha} d(x_0, x_1) \end{aligned}$$

Since $0 \leq \alpha < 1, \{x_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence in (X, d) , hence right convergent

$$\text{i.e } \lim d(x, x_n) \rightarrow 0 \dots (1)$$

$$\text{Since 'f' is continuous, } \lim d(f(x), f(x_n)) \rightarrow 0 \dots (2)$$

from (1) and (2) $f(x) = x$

Uniqueness:

$$d(x, z) = d(f(x), f(z)) < \alpha d(x, z) \Rightarrow d(x, z) = 0 \Rightarrow x = z$$

Theorem 2. Let (X, d) be a right complete d-metric space and $f: X \rightarrow X$ be continuous. Assume that there exists a number 'a'; $0 \leq a < 1/2$ such that for each $x, y \in X$
 $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq a[d(x, f(x)) + d(y, f(y))]$ then f has a unique fixed point.

Proof. For any $x \in X$

$$d(f(x), f^2(x)) \leq a[d(x, f(x)) + d(f(x), f^2(x))]$$

$$\Rightarrow d(f(x), f^2(x)) \leq \frac{a}{1-a} d(x, f(x))$$

$$\Rightarrow d(f(x), f^2(x)) \leq \beta d(x, f(x)), \text{ where } \beta = \frac{a}{1-a}.$$

then by induction, let $m, n (m > n)$ be any positive integer ≥ 1

$$d(f^n(x), f^m(y)) \leq \beta^n (1 + \beta + \dots + \beta^{m-n-1}) d(x, f(x))$$

$$\leq \frac{\beta^n}{1-\beta} d(x, f(x))$$

Hence, $\{f^n(x)\}$ is Cauchy sequence in (X, d) .

Therefore right convergent $(x, f^n(x)) \rightarrow 0 \dots (1)$

Since f is continuous $d(f(x), f^n(x)) \rightarrow 0 \dots (2)$

from (1) and (2) $x = f(x)$.

Uniqueness:

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, z) &= d(f(x), f(z)) \\ &\leq a[d(x, f(x)) + d(z, f(z))] \\ &= a[d(x, x) + d(z, z)] \dots (3) \end{aligned}$$

But,

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, x) &\leq a[d(x, f(x)) + d(x, f(x))] \\ &= 2ad(x, f(x)) \\ &= 2ad(x, x) \end{aligned}$$

$d(x, x) = 0$; Similarly $d(z, z) = 0 \Rightarrow x = z$ (from (3)).

Theorem 3. *There exists a number 'a', $0 < a < 1/2$ such that for each $x, y \in X$*

$$d(f(x), f(y)) \leq a[d(x, f(y)) + d(y, f(x))]$$

Proof.

$$d(f(x), f^2(x)) \leq a[d(x, f^2(x)) + d(f(x), f(x))]\dots(1)$$

Now

$$\begin{aligned} d(f(x), f(x)) &\leq a[d(x, f(x)) + d(x, f(x))] \\ &= 2ad(x, f(x)) \end{aligned}$$

from (1)

$$\begin{aligned} d(f(x), f^2(x)) &\leq ad(x, f(x)) + ad(f(x), f^2(x)) + 2a^2d(x, f(x)) \\ \Rightarrow d(f(x), f^2(x)) &\leq \frac{a+2a^2}{1-a} d(x, f(x)) \\ \Rightarrow d(f(x), f^2(x)) &\leq \beta d(x, f(x)) \text{ where } \beta = \frac{a+2a^2}{1-a} \end{aligned}$$

Uniqueness:

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, z) &= d(f(x), f(z)) \\ &\leq a[d(x, x) + d(z, z)] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, x) &= d(f(x), f(x)) \\ &\leq 2ad(x, x) \end{aligned}$$

$d(x, x) = 0$, similarly $d(z, z) = 0$. Hence $x = z$

Theorem 4. *Let (X, d) be a right complete d-metric space and $f: X \rightarrow X$ be continuous. Assume that there exists a number h , $0 \leq h < 1$ such that for each $x, y \in X$*
 $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq h \max [d(x, f(x)), d(y, f(y))]$
then f has a unique fixed point.

Proof. For each $x \in X$,

$$d(f(x), f^2(x)) \leq hd(x, f(x)) : \text{ where } 0 \leq h < 1$$

therefore $\{f^n(x)\}$ is a Cauchy sequence. So $f(x) = x$

Uniqueness:

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, z) &= d(f(x), f(z)) \\ &\leq h \max [d(x, x), d(z, z)] \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, x) &= d(f(x), d(fx)) \\ &\leq h \max [d(x, x), d(x, x)] \\ &= hd(x, x) \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow d(x, x) = 0$, Similarly $d(z, z) = 0$. Hence $d(x, z) \Rightarrow x = z$

Theorem 5. *Let (X, d) be a right complete d-metric space and $f: X \rightarrow X$ be continuous. Assume that there exists non negative number a, b, c satisfying $a + b + c < 1$ such that for each $x, y \in X$*

$$d(f(x), f(y)) \leq ad(x, f(x)) + bd(y, f(y)) + cd(x, y))$$

then f has a unique fixed point.

Proof. For each $x \in X$

$$\begin{aligned} d(f(x), f^2(x)) &\leq ad(x, f(x)) + bd(f(x), f^2(x)) + cd(x, f(x)) \\ \Rightarrow d(f(x), f^2(x)) &\leq \frac{a+c}{1-b} d(x, f(x)) \\ \Rightarrow d(f(x), f^2(x)) &\leq \beta d(x, f(x)), 0 \leq \beta < 1 \end{aligned}$$

If we follow the same steps as in above theorem, we get $f(x) = x$

Uniqueness:

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, z) &= d(f(x), f(z)) \\ &\leq a d(x, f(x)) + b d(z, f(z)) + c d(x, z) \\ &= a d(x, x) + b d(z, z) + c d(x, z)\dots(1) \\ d(x, x) &= d(f(x), f(x)) \\ &\leq a d(x, f(x)) + b d(x, f(x)) + c d(x, x) \\ &\leq (a + b + c)d(x, x) \end{aligned}$$

Since, $(a + b + c) < 1 \Rightarrow d(x, x) = 0$. Similarly $d(z, z) = 0$

From (1), $d(x, z) \leq c d(x, z)$

$\Rightarrow (1 - c) d(x, z) \leq 0 \Rightarrow d(x, z) = 0$. Hence, $x = z$.

Theorem 6. *Let X be a non-empty set. Define (i) $D(x, y) = d(x, y) + d(y, x) \forall x, y \in X$. Then D is dislocated metric iff d is both rd-metric and ld-metric.*

(ii) $\mathfrak{J}_D = \mathfrak{J}_d^r \cap \mathfrak{J}_d^l$ where $\mathfrak{J}_D$ is topology induced by D .

Proof of (i) Clearly $D(x, y) \geq 0$ as $d(x, y) \geq 0$ and $d(y, x) \geq 0$
 $D(x, y) = D(y, x) = 0 \Rightarrow x = y$. Triangle inequality holds.
Hence D is a dislocated metric space.

Proof of (ii)

$$\mathfrak{J}_D = \mathfrak{J}_D^r \cap \mathfrak{J}_D^l$$

$$\text{Since } \mathbb{B}_{D \in} (x) \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^r (x) \cap \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^l (x)$$

$$\mathbb{B}_{d \in}^r (x) \cap \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^l (x) \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{D \in} (x)$$

$$\text{where } \mathbb{B}_{D \in} (x) = \{y/D(x, y) < \in\}$$

$$\mathbb{B}_{d \in}^r (x) = \{y/d(x, y) < \in\}$$

$$\mathbb{B}_{d \in}^l (x) = \{y/d(y, x) < \in\}$$

$$\mathbb{B}_{D \in} (x) \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^r (x) \cap \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^l (x)$$

$$\text{Let } y \in \mathbb{B}_{D \in} (x) \Rightarrow D(x, y) < \in$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x, y) + d(y, x) < \in$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x, y) < \in \text{ and } d(y, x) < \in$$

$$\Rightarrow y \in \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^r (x) \text{ and } y \in \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^l (x)$$

$$y \in \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^r (x) \cap \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^l (x)$$

$$\mathbb{B}_{d \in}^r (x) \cap \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^l (x) \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{D \in} (x)$$

$$y \in \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^r (x) \cap \mathbb{B}_{d \in}^l (x) \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{D \in} (x)$$

$$\begin{aligned}
d(x, y) &< \delta/2 \\
d(y, x) &< (\delta/2) \\
D(x, y) &< \delta \\
y &\in \mathbb{B}_{D\delta}(x)
\end{aligned}$$

Theorem 7. *A is closed in $\mathfrak{J}_D$ iff A is both right closed and left closed.*

Proof. Claim: A is closed in $\mathfrak{J}_D$

i.e. for every $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a positive integer $n_\epsilon \ni D(x_n, x) < \epsilon \forall n \geq n_\epsilon$

$$\Rightarrow d(x_n, x) + d(x, x_n) < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x_n, x) < \epsilon \text{ and } d(x, x_n) < \epsilon$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim d(x_n, x) = 0 \text{ and } \lim d(x, x_n) = 0$$

Since A is both right closed and left closed so $x \in A$.

Hence A is $\mathfrak{J}_D$ closed.

Assume that A is $\mathfrak{J}_D$ closed.

Claim : A is right closed and left closed

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a sequence in A and $x \in X$ such that $\lim d(x, x_n) = 0$ and

$\lim d(x_n, x) = 0$ i.e. for every $\delta > 0 \exists$ positive integers n_{δ_1} and $n_{\delta_2} \ni$

$$d(x, x_n) < \delta/2 \text{ and } d(x_n, x) < \delta/2$$

For $n \geq n_{\delta_1}$ and $n \geq n_{\delta_2}$ respectively

$$D(x_n, x) = d(x, x_n) + d(x_n, x) < \delta \Rightarrow D(x_n, x) < \delta \forall n \geq \min\{n_{\delta_1}, n_{\delta_2}\}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim D(x_n, x) = 0 \Rightarrow x \in A.$$

Theorem 8. *X is D-complete iff X is both right complete and left complete.*

Proof. Claim : X is D-complete

Assume that X is both right complete and left complete.

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a cauchy sequence in X with respect to D. For every $\epsilon > 0 \exists$ a positive integer $N_{\epsilon_1} \ni D(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon \forall n, m \geq N_{\epsilon_1}$

$$\Rightarrow d(x_n, x_m) + d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon_1$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon_1 \text{ and } d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon_1 \forall n, m \geq N_{\epsilon_1}$$

$\Rightarrow \min\{d(x_n, x_m), d(x_m, x_n)\} < \epsilon_1$. Since X is both left and right complete, $\lim d(x, x_n) = 0$ and $\lim d(x_n, x) = 0$. Note that $\lim D(x_n, x) = 0$. Since, $\lim D(x_n, x) = \lim d(x, x_n) + \lim d(x_n, x) \rightarrow 0$.

Conversely, assume that X is D-complete.

We have to prove that X is both right and left complete.

Let $\{x_n\}$ be a right Cauchy-sequence in X.

$$\min\{d(x_n, x_m), d(x_m, x_n)\} < \epsilon/2$$

For every $\epsilon > 0 \exists$ a positive integer $N_1 \ni d(x_m, x_n) < \epsilon/2 \forall m, n \geq N_1$. Similarly, $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon/2 \forall m, n \geq N_2$.

Hence, $D(x_n, x_m) = d(x_n, x_m) + d(x_m, x_n) \forall m, n \geq N$ where $N = \min\{N_1, N_2\}$.

So, $\{x_n\}$ is a D-Cauchy sequence.

since X is D-complete, $\lim D(x_n, x) = 0$ i.e. for every $\delta > 0$

$\exists$ a positive integer $N_\delta \ni D(x_n, x) < \delta \forall n \geq N_\delta$

$$\Rightarrow d(x_n, x) + d(x, x_n) < \delta \forall n \geq N_\delta$$

$$\Rightarrow d(x_n, x) < \delta \text{ and } d(x, x_n) < \delta$$

$$\Rightarrow \lim d(x_n, x) = 0 \text{ and } \lim d(x, x_n) = 0$$

X is both right and left complete.

Theorem 9 (Mathews Theorem) *Let (X, d) be a complete dislocated metric space. f: X → X be a contraction then f has a unique fixed point.*

Since (X, d) is a complete dislocated metric space. If (X, d) is both right complete and left complete and f: X → X be a contraction then from Mathews Theorem f has a unique fixed point.

4. References

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