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VIRTUALLY STABLE MAPS AND THEIR CONVERGENCE SETS



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We generalize the concept of a virtually nonexpansive selfmap of a metric space by introducing the notion of a virtually stable selfmap of a Hausdorff space. We also prove that every virtually nonexpansive selfmap is virtually stable, and the fixed point set of a virtually stable selfmap is a retract of the convergence set. Some properties of the convergence set and the fixed point set of a virtually stable map are also investigated.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

In [1], P. Chaoha introduced the notion of virtually nonexpansive selfmaps of a metric space and proved that various types of nonexpansive maps are virtually nonexpansive. Moreover, for any virtually nonexpansive map  $f$ ,  $F(f)$  is a retract of  $C(f)$ . Hence, we can predict some topological properties of  $F(f)$  if we know the properties of  $C(f)$ . In particular, it has been shown in [2] that, for certain kinds of virtually nonexpansive maps, their convergence sets are star-convex and hence their fixed point sets are contractible.

In this thesis, we will extend the notion of virtually nonexpansive maps to virtually stable maps in a more general setting and explore some properties of their convergence sets to obtain topological properties of their fixed point sets.



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## CHAPTER II

### PRELIMINARIES

In this chapter, we recall some basic terminology and concepts used throughout the work. For more details, please consult [3], [4], [5], [6], [7], and [8].

**Definition 2.1.** Let  $X$  be a nonempty set and  $\mathcal{T}$  a collection of subsets of  $X$  such that

1.  $X \in \mathcal{T}$ , and  $\phi \in \mathcal{T}$ ;
2. any union of members of  $\mathcal{T}$  is also a member of  $\mathcal{T}$ ;
3. any finite intersection of members of  $\mathcal{T}$  is also a member of  $\mathcal{T}$ .

Then  $\mathcal{T}$  is called a **topology** on  $X$ , elements of  $\mathcal{T}$  are called **open sets** of  $X$ , and  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is called a **topological space**. Sometimes we omit specific mention of  $\mathcal{T}$  if no confusion will arise. A subset  $A$  of a topological space  $X$  is said to be **closed** in  $X$  if the set  $X - A$  is open in  $X$ . And, for  $x \in X$ , a **neighborhood** of  $x$  is an open set containing  $x$ .

**Definition 2.2.** Let  $X$  be a nonempty set and  $\mathcal{B}$  a collection of subsets of  $X$  such that

1. for each  $x \in X$ , there is  $U \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in U$ ;
2. for all  $U, V \in \mathcal{B}$ , if  $x \in U \cap V$ , then there is  $G \in \mathcal{B}$  such that  $x \in G \subseteq U \cap V$ .

Then  $\mathcal{B}$  is called a **basis** for a topology on  $X$ , and the set

$\{G \subseteq X : \forall g \in G, \exists U \in \mathcal{B} \text{ such that } g \in U \subseteq G\}$ , denoted by  $\langle \mathcal{B} \rangle$ , is a topology on  $X$  and we call it the **topology generated by  $\mathcal{B}$** .

Given a subset  $A$  of a topological space  $X$ , the **interior** of  $A$ , denoted by  $\text{Int}A$ , is defined as the union of all open sets contained in  $A$ , and the **closure** of  $A$ , denoted by  $\bar{A}$ , is defined as the intersection of all closed sets containing  $A$ . Obviously,  $\text{Int} A$  is an open set and  $\bar{A}$  is a closed set; furthermore,  $\text{Int} A \subseteq A \subseteq \bar{A}$ . If  $A$  is an open set,  $A = \text{Int} A$ ; while if  $A$  is closed,  $A = \bar{A}$ .

**Definition 2.3.** Let  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  be a topological space and  $Y$  a subset of  $X$ . Then the collection  $\mathcal{T}_Y = \{Y \cap U : U \in \mathcal{T}\}$  is a topology on  $Y$ , and we call it the **subspace topology**. In addition,  $(Y, \mathcal{T}_Y)$  is called a **subspace** of  $X$ .

**Definition 2.4.** A **metric** on a set  $X$  is a function  $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

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

Given a metric  $d$  on  $X$  and  $x, y \in X$ ,  $d(x, y)$  is often called the **distance** between  $x$  and  $y$  with respect to the metric  $d$ . Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , the set  $B_d(x, \epsilon) = \{y \in X : d(x, y) < \epsilon\}$  is called the  $\epsilon$  – **ball** centered at  $x$ . Let  $\mathcal{T}_d = \{G \subseteq X : \forall a \in G, \exists \epsilon > 0 \text{ such that } B_d(a, \epsilon) \subseteq G\}$ . Then  $\mathcal{T}_d$  is a topology on  $X$ . The topology  $\mathcal{T}_d$  is called the **topology induced by the metric**  $d$  and  $(X, d)$  is called a **metric space**. Sometimes we omit specific mention of  $d$  if no confusion will arise.

**Definition 2.5.** A topological space  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  is said to be **metrizable** if there exists a metric  $d$  on  $X$  such that  $\mathcal{T}$  is a topology induced by  $d$ , and in this case we can denote  $(X, \mathcal{T})$  by  $(X, d)$ .

**Example 2.6.** The **usual metric** on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the metric  $d$  defined by

$$d(x, y) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}, \text{ for } x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \text{ and } y = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^n.$$

**Definition 2.7.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces. We say that a function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is **continuous at a point**  $x$  in  $X$  if for each neighborhood  $U$  of  $f(x)$

there is neighborhood  $V$  of  $x$  such that  $f(V) \subseteq U$ . If  $f$  is continuous at every point  $x$  in  $A \subseteq X$ , then  $f$  is said to be **continuous on  $A$** . If  $f$  is continuous on  $X$ , then we simply say that  $f$  is **continuous**.

**Theorem 2.8** (Intermediate value theorem). Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be continuous on a closed interval  $[a, b]$  where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $a \leq b$ . If  $N$  is a real number between  $f(a)$  and  $f(b)$ , then there is  $c \in [a, b]$  such that  $f(c) = N$ .

**Definition 2.9.** Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $Y$  a nonempty subset of  $X$ .

We say that  $Y$  is **connected** if and only if there is no pair of subsets  $U, V$  of  $X$  such that

1.  $U \cup V = Y$ ;
2.  $U \cap Y \neq \phi$ , and  $V \cap Y \neq \phi$ ;
3.  $\bar{U} \cap V = \phi$ , and  $U \cap \bar{V} = \phi$ .

**Definition 2.10.** Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $Y$  a nonempty subset of  $X$ .

We say that  $Y$  is **path connected** if for each pair of points  $x, y$  in  $Y$ , there is a continuous map  $f : [a, b] \rightarrow X$  of some closed interval  $[a, b]$  in the real line into the subspace  $Y$  of  $X$  such that  $f(a) = x$  and  $f(b) = y$ .

**Remark 2.11.** Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then the relation on  $X$  defined by

$$x \sim y \text{ if } x \text{ and } y \text{ belong to the same (path-)connected subset of } X$$

is an equivalence relation. The equivalence classes of this relation are called the **(path-)components** of  $X$ .

**Theorem 2.12.** Let  $X$  be a topological space. Then every connected component of  $X$  is closed.

**Theorem 2.13.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces, and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  a continuous map. If  $A$  is a (path-)connected subspace of  $X$ , then  $f(A)$  is (path-)connected.

**Definition 2.14.** Let  $(X, d_X)$  and  $(Y, d_Y)$  be metric spaces. A family  $\mathcal{F}$  of continuous maps on  $X$  to  $Y$  is said to be **equicontinuous** at  $x \in X$  if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is  $\delta > 0$  such that for every  $u \in X$  and  $f \in \mathcal{F}$ ,  $d_Y(f(x), f(u)) < \epsilon$  whenever  $d_X(x, u) < \delta$ .

**Definition 2.15.** A subset  $A$  of a topological space  $X$  is said to be **dense** in  $X$  if  $\bar{A} = X$ .

**Example 2.16.** The set  $\mathbb{Q}$  of all rational numbers is dense in the space  $\mathbb{R}$ .

**Definition 2.17.** A subset  $A$  of a topological space  $X$  is called a  **$G_\delta$ -set** in  $X$  if it is an intersection of a countable collection of open subsets of  $X$ .

**Definition 2.18.** Given a set  $X$ , we define a **sequence** in  $X$  to be a function  $\mathbf{x} : \mathbb{N} \rightarrow X$ . We often denote the value of  $\mathbf{x}$  at  $i$  by  $x_i$  rather than  $\mathbf{x}(i)$ , and denote  $\mathbf{x}$  itself by the symbol  $(x_n)$ .

**Definition 2.19.** A sequence  $(x_n)$  of real numbers is called a **strictly increasing sequence** if  $x_n < x_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , and it is called a **strictly decreasing sequence** if  $x_n > x_{n+1}$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Definition 2.20.** Let  $X$  be a topological space. A sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $X$  is said to **converge** to a point  $y$  in  $X$  if for each neighborhood  $U$  of  $y$ , there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $x_n \in U$  whenever  $n \geq N$ . We denote this by  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = y$  or  $x_n \rightarrow y$ .

**Theorem 2.21.** Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be topological spaces, and  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  a continuous map. If  $(x_n)$  is a sequence in  $X$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x'$  for some  $x' \in X$ . Then  $f(x_n) \rightarrow f(x')$ .

**Definition 2.22** (Monotone convergence theorem). Let  $(x_n)$  be a strictly increasing sequence or a strictly decreasing sequence in an interval  $[a, b] \subseteq \mathbb{R}$  where  $a \leq b$ . Then  $(x_n)$  converges to some element in  $[a, b]$ .

**Definition 2.23.** Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space. A sequence  $(x_n)$  in  $X$  is said to be a **Cauchy sequence** if for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(x_n, x_m) < \epsilon$  whenever  $n, m \geq N$ .

**Definition 2.24.** A metric space  $(X, d)$  is said to be **complete** if every Cauchy sequence in  $X$  converges (to a point) in  $X$ .

**Example 2.25.** The space  $\mathbb{R}$  with the usual metric is a complete metric space, but its subspace  $\mathbb{Q}$  is not.

**Definition 2.26.** A topological space  $X$  is called a **Hausdorff space** if for each pair of distinct points  $x, y$  in  $X$ , there exist open sets  $U_x$  and  $U_y$  such that  $x \in U_x$ ,  $y \in U_y$ , and  $U_x \cap U_y = \phi$ .

**Definition 2.27.** Let  $X$  be a topological space such that one-point sets are closed in  $X$ . Then  $X$  is said to be **regular** if for each pair of a point  $x \in X$  and a closed set  $B \subseteq X$  disjoint from  $x$ , there exist disjoint open sets containing  $x$  and  $B$ , respectively.

**Theorem 2.28** (Urysohn metrization theorem). Every regular topological space  $X$  with a countable basis is metrizable.

**Definition 2.29.** Let  $X$  be a topological space. We say that  $X$  is **contractible** if there exist  $x \in X$  and a continuous map  $H : X \times [0, 1] \rightarrow X$  such that

1.  $H(y, 0) = y$  for all  $y \in X$ ;
2.  $H(y, 1) = x$  for all  $y \in X$ .

**Definition 2.30.** Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $A \subseteq X$ . A **retraction** of  $X$  onto  $A$  is a continuous map  $r : X \rightarrow A$  such that  $r|_A$  is the identity map of  $A$ . If such a map  $r$  exists, we say that  $A$  is a **retract** of  $X$ .

**Definition 2.31.** Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  a selfmap. The **convergence set** of  $f$  is defined to be the set

$$C(f) = \{x \in X : \text{the sequence } (f^n(x)) \text{ converges in } X\}$$

and the **fixed point set** of  $f$  is defined to be the set  $F(f) = \{p \in X : f(p) = p\}$ .

We call  $p \in F(f)$  a **fixed point** of  $f$ . If  $p \in F(f)$ , then we define

$C_p(f) = \{x \in X : f^n(x) \rightarrow p\}$ . Moreover, for each  $x \in C(f)$ , the continuity of  $f$  implies that

$$f(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f(f^n(x)) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x).$$

That is  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x) \in F(f)$  and hence we naturally obtain a well-defined map  $f^\infty : C(f) \rightarrow F(f)$  given by  $f^\infty(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x)$  for each  $x \in C(f)$ .

Note that for a Hausdorff space  $X$ , a continuous selfmap  $f : X \rightarrow X$  and a fixed point  $p$ ,  $F(f)$  is closed in  $X$ , but  $C(f)$  and  $C_p(f)$  need not be closed in  $X$ . For example, consider the map  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $g(x) = -x^3$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ , and the map  $h : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $h(x) = x^2$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $C(g) = (-1, 1]$  and  $C_0(h) = (-1, 1)$ . Since we always have  $f^\infty(x) = x$  for any  $x \in F(f)$ , the map  $f^\infty$  will be a retraction whenever it is continuous. Moreover, when  $f^\infty$  is continuous, any retraction from a superset of  $C(f)$  onto  $F(f)$  that satisfies a certain condition is simply a continuous extension of  $f^\infty$  by the following theorem.

**Theorem 2.32.** *Let  $X$  be a topological space and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  a continuous selfmap. Suppose  $f^\infty$  is continuous and  $R : C(f) \rightarrow F(f)$  is any retraction. If  $R \circ f = R$ , then  $R = f^\infty$ .*

*Proof.* See Theorem 1.1 in [1]. □

**Definition 2.33.** *Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space, and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  a continuous selfmap.*

- $f$  is called **nonexpansive** if  $d(f(x), f(y)) \leq d(x, y)$  for any  $x, y \in X$ .
- $f$  is called **quasi – nonexpansive** if  $d(f(x), p) \leq d(x, p)$  for any  $x \in X$  and  $p \in F(f)$ .
- $f$  is called **asymptotically nonexpansive** if there is a sequence  $(k_n)$  of real numbers converging to 1 such that  $d(f^n(x), f^n(y)) \leq k_n d(x, y)$  for any  $x, y \in X$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- $f$  is called **asymptotically quasi – nonexpansive** if there is a sequence  $(k_n)$  of real numbers converging to 1 such that  $d(f^n(x), p) \leq k_n d(x, p)$  for any  $x \in X$ ,  $p \in F(f)$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

- $f$  is called **virtually nonexpansive** if  $\{f^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is equicontinuous on  $C(f)$ .
- $f$  is called **periodic** if  $f^n = 1_X$  for some  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .
- $f$  is called **recurrent** if for each  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that for all  $x \in X$ ,  $d(f^n(x), x) < \epsilon$ .

Notice that

1. Nonexpansive maps, quasi-nonexpansive maps and asymptotically nonexpansive maps are asymptotically quasi-nonexpansive;
2. Periodic maps are recurrent.

**Theorem 2.34.** *An asymptotically quasi-nonexpansive map is virtually nonexpansive.*

*Proof.* See Theorem 1.9 in [1]. □

**Definition 2.35.** *A topological  $\mathbb{R}$  – linear space  $V$  is a vector space  $(V, +, \cdot)$  over a topological field  $\mathbb{R}$  which is endowed with a Hausdorff topology such that, the vector addition  $+ : V \times V \rightarrow V$  and scalar multiplication  $\cdot : \mathbb{R} \times V \rightarrow V$  are continuous functions.*

**Definition 2.36.** *Let  $V$  be a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space,  $v \in V$  and  $A$  a nonempty subset of  $V$ . We define  $A - v = \{a - v : a \in A\}$ .*

**Definition 2.37.** *Let  $V$  be a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space,  $X$  a nonempty subset of  $V$  and  $x_0 \in X$ . We say that  $X$  is  **$x_0$  – star – convex** if for each  $x \in X$ ,*

$$\{tx + (1 - t)x_0 : t \in [0, 1]\} \subseteq X$$

**Definition 2.38.** [2] Let  $X$  be a 0-star-convex subset of a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space,  $f : X \rightarrow X$  and  $\phi : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  continuous selfmaps. We will call  $f$  a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map, if for each  $t \in [0, 1]$  and  $x \in X$ ,

$$f(tx) = \phi(t)f(x).$$

**Proposition 2.39.** Let  $X$  be a 0-star-convex subset of a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space, and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  a non-constant  $\phi$ -homogeneous map. Then we have the followings:

1.  $\phi(st) = \phi(s)\phi(t)$  for all  $s, t \in [0, 1]$ ,
2.  $\{0, 1\} \subseteq F(\phi)$ ,
3.  $0 \in F(f)$ .

*Proof.* See Proposition 2.4 in [2]. □

**Theorem 2.40.** Let  $X$  be a 0-star-convex subset of a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space, and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with  $C(\phi) = [0, 1]$ . Then  $C(f)$  is 0-star-convex.

*Proof.* See Theorem 2.5 in [2]. □

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## CHAPTER III

### VIRTUALLY STABLE MAPS

From now on, if not otherwise state,  $X$  is a nonempty Hausdorff space and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  a continuous selfmap.

**Definition 3.1.** A fixed point  $x$  of  $f$  is said to be **virtually  $f$  – stable** if for each neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ , there exists a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers  $(k_n)$  and a neighborhood  $V$  of  $x$  satisfying  $f^{k_n}(V) \subseteq U$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We simply call  $f$  **virtually stable** if every fixed point of  $f$  is virtually  $f$ -stable.

**Definition 3.2.** A fixed point  $x$  of  $f$  is said to be **uniformly virtually  $f$  – stable** if there exists a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers  $(k_n)$  such that for each neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$ , there exists a neighborhood  $V$  of  $x$  with  $f^{k_n}(V) \subseteq U$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We simply call  $f$  **uniformly virtually stable** if every fixed point of  $f$  is uniformly virtually  $f$ -stable with respect to the same  $(k_n)$ .

Notice that a map  $f$  whose every fixed point is uniformly virtually  $f$ -stable may not be uniformly virtually stable, and any uniformly virtually stable map is virtually stable. Moreover, it is easy to see that a periodic map is uniformly virtually stable while a virtually nonexpansive map is uniformly virtually stable.

**Proposition 3.3.** A recurrent selfmap of a metric space is always uniformly virtually stable.

*Proof.* Let  $(X, d)$  be a metric space and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  a recurrent map. Since  $f$  is recurrent, the set

$$\{k \in \mathbb{N} : d(f^k(x), x) < \frac{1}{n} \text{ for all } x \in X\}$$

is infinite for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence there is a strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers  $(k_n)$  such that  $d(f^{k_n}(x), x) < \frac{1}{n}$  for all  $x \in X$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $x \in F(f)$ ,

$m \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $y \in B_d(x, \frac{1}{2(m+1)})$ . We will show that  $f^{k_n}(B_d(x, \frac{1}{2(m+1)})) \subseteq B_d(x, \frac{1}{m})$  for all  $n \geq 2(m+1)$ . For each  $n \geq 2(m+1)$ ,  $d(f^{k_n}(y), x) \leq d(f^{k_n}(y), y) + d(y, x) \leq \frac{1}{n} + \frac{1}{2(m+1)} \leq \frac{1}{2(m+1)} + \frac{1}{2(m+1)} < \frac{1}{m}$ . Since  $f^{k_i}$  is continuous for  $i = 1, \dots, 2m+1$ , there exists a neighborhood  $U$  of  $x$  such that  $f^{k_i}(U) \subseteq B_d(x, \frac{1}{m})$  for  $i = 1, \dots, 2m+1$ . Hence,  $B_d(x, \frac{1}{2(m+1)}) \cap U$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  such that  $f^{k_n}(B_d(x, \frac{1}{2(m+1)}) \cap U) \subseteq B_d(x, \frac{1}{m})$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . We have that  $x$  is uniformly virtually  $f$ -stable with respect to  $(k_n)$  and  $f$  is uniformly virtually stable with respect to  $(k_n)$  as desired.  $\square$

The next example shows that there exists a virtually stable map (indeed a periodic map) that is not virtually nonexpansive.

**Lemma 3.4.** *Suppose  $X$  is a topological space whose topology is generated by a basis  $\mathcal{A}$ . If every element of  $\mathcal{A}$  is closed in  $X$ , then  $X$  is regular.*

*Proof.* Let  $F$  be a closed subset of  $X$  and  $x \in F^c$ . Then there exists  $P \in \mathcal{A}$  such that  $x \in P \subseteq F^c$ . By assumption  $P$  is open and closed, it follows that  $P$  and  $P^c$  are disjoint neighborhoods of  $x$  and  $F$ , respectively. Hence  $X$  is regular.  $\square$

**Example 3.5.** *Let  $\mathcal{A} = \{[p, q] \subseteq \mathbb{R} : p, q \in \mathbb{Q} \text{ and } p < q\}$  and  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by  $f(x) = -x$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .*

*We will show that  $(\mathbb{R}, \langle \mathcal{A} \rangle)$  is metrizable by showing that  $\mathcal{A}$  is a countable basis for a topology on  $\mathbb{R}$ , and  $(\mathbb{R}, \langle \mathcal{A} \rangle)$  is regular. Clearly,  $\mathcal{A}$  is countable. For each  $r \in \mathbb{R}$ , there exist  $p, q \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $p < r < q$ ; i.e.,  $r \in [p, q] \in \mathcal{A}$ . For each  $x \in [p_1, q_1] \cap [p_2, q_2]$ , where  $[p_1, q_1], [p_2, q_2] \in \mathcal{A}$ , we have  $x \in [p_1, q_1] \cap [p_2, q_2] = [\max\{p_1, p_2\}, \min\{q_1, q_2\}] \in \mathcal{A}$ . Thus  $\mathcal{A}$  is a countable basis for a topology on  $\mathbb{R}$ . Clearly, one-pointed sets are closed. Let  $[p, q] \in \mathcal{A}$  and  $x \notin [p, q]$ .*

*If  $x \in (-\infty, p)$ , then there exist  $a, b \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $a < x < b < p$ ; i.e.,  $x \in [a, b] \subseteq (-\infty, p)$ .*

*If  $x \in [q, \infty)$ , then there exists  $c \in \mathbb{Q}$  such that  $x < c$ ; i.e.,  $x \in [q, c] \subseteq [q, \infty)$ . Therefore,  $[p, q]^c$  is open and, by Lemma 3.4,  $(\mathbb{R}, \langle \mathcal{A} \rangle)$  is regular. By Urysohn metrization theorem,  $(\mathbb{R}, \langle \mathcal{A} \rangle)$  is metrizable.*

*It is clear that  $f$  is periodic and hence recurrent. Thus  $f$  is uniformly virtually stable. We will prove that  $f$  is not virtually nonexpansive by showing that*

$\{f^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not equicontinuous at 0. Let  $E \in \mathcal{A}$  be a neighborhood of 0 and  $k \in E$  for some  $k \in \mathbb{R}^+$ . Let  $q \in \mathbb{Q}^+$ . Since  $f^{2n+1}(k) = -k \notin [0, q]$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f^{2n+1}(E) \not\subseteq [0, q]$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Thus  $\{f^n : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$  is not equicontinuous at 0.

The next theorem guarantees that  $f^\infty$  is always a retraction of  $C(f)$  onto  $F(f)$  whenever  $X$  is regular and  $f$  is virtually stable.

**Theorem 3.6.** *Suppose  $X$  be a regular space and  $f$  a virtually stable selfmap. Then  $f^\infty : C(f) \rightarrow F(f)$  is continuous and hence  $F(f)$  is a retract of  $C(f)$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $x \in C(f)$  and  $U$  a neighborhood of  $f^\infty(x)$  in  $F(f)$ . Since  $X$  is regular, so is  $F(f)$ . Then, there is a neighborhood  $W$  of  $f^\infty(x)$  in  $X$  such that  $W \cap F(f) \subseteq \overline{W} \cap F(f) \subseteq U$ . Now, by virtual stability, there exist a neighborhood  $V$  of  $f^\infty(x)$  in  $X$  and a strictly increasing sequence  $(k_n)$  of positive integers such that  $f^{k_n}(V) \subseteq W$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $V$  is a neighborhood of  $f^\infty(x)$ , there is  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f^N(x) \in V$ . Let  $K = f^{-N}(V) \cap C(f)$ . Then  $K$  is a neighborhood of  $x$  in  $C(f)$  such that

$$\begin{aligned} f^\infty(K) &= \left\{ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x) : x \in K \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(f^N(x)) : x \in K \right\} \\ &\subseteq \left\{ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x) : x \in V \cap C(f) \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^{k_n}(x) : x \in V \cap C(f) \right\} \\ &\subseteq \overline{W} \cap F(f) \\ &\subseteq U. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $f^\infty$  is continuous and  $F(f)$  is a retract of  $C(f)$ .  $\square$

To explore the connectedness of convergence sets and fixed point sets of virtually stable maps, we begin with Corollary 3.7.

**Corollary 3.7.** *Let  $X$  be a regular space. If  $f$  is virtually stable and  $C(f)$  is (path-)connected, then  $F(f)$  is (path-)connected.*

*Proof.* By Theorem 3.6,  $f^\infty : C(f) \rightarrow F(f)$  is continuous. Then  $F(f)$  is (path-)connected by Theorem 2.13.  $\square$

**Corollary 3.8.** *Let  $X$  be a regular space and  $f$  virtually stable. If  $F(f)$  is a finite set, then  $C(f)$  is disconnected.*

*Proof.* Let  $F(f)$  be a finite set. Since  $X$  is a Hausdorff space,  $F(f)$  is disconnected. If  $X$  is a finite set, then we are done. Now we consider the case that  $X$  is an infinite set. Suppose that  $C(f)$  is connected. By Theorem 3.6,  $F(f)$  is connected, which is a contradiction. Hence,  $C(f)$  is disconnected.  $\square$

The next example show that if  $f$  is not virtually stable, then the condition  $F(f)$  is a finite set does not guarantee that  $C(f)$  is disconnected.

**Example 3.9.** *Consider  $f : \mathbb{R}_0^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_0^+$  defined by  $f(x) = x^2$ . It is easy to show that 1 is not a virtually  $f$ -stable fixed point,  $C(f) = [0, 1]$ , and  $F(f) = \{0, 1\}$ .*

By considering the next example, we will face the fact that although  $f$  is nonexpansive, neither  $C(f)$  nor  $F(f)$  must be connected. Moreover,  $C_p(f)$ , where  $p \in F(f)$ , may not be connected.

**Example 3.10.** *Let  $L = \mathbb{R}^2 - \{(0, 0), (0, 1), (0, -1)\}$  and  $L$  be equipped with the usual metric. Now we consider the map  $g : L \rightarrow L$  defined by*

$$g(x, y) = \begin{cases} (-x, y), & \text{if } y < 0, \\ (-x, -y), & \text{if } y > 0 \end{cases}, \text{ for all } (x, y) \in L.$$

*It is easy to obtain the results that  $g$  is nonexpansive,*

*$C(g) = \{(x, y) \in L : x = 0\}$ ,  $F(g) = \{(x, y) \in L : x = 0 \text{ and } y < 0\}$ ,*

*and  $C_{(x,y)}(g) = \{(0, y), (0, -y)\}$  for all  $(x, y) \in F(g)$ .*

The next theorem provides sufficient conditions that can guarantee the connectedness of convergence sets.

**Theorem 3.11.** *Let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be a continuous map satisfying one of the following conditions:*

1.  $C_p(f)$  is connected for all  $p \in F(f)$ ,
2. for each component  $A$  of  $C(f)$  there is  $h_A \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f^{h_A}(A) \cap A \neq \phi$ .

If  $F(f)$  is connected, then  $C(f)$  is connected.

*Proof.* Let  $f$  satisfies (1) and  $F(f)$  is connected. Suppose on the contrary that  $C(f)$  is not connected. Then  $F(f) \subseteq A$  for some component  $A$  of  $C(f)$  and there exists component  $B$  of  $C(f)$  such that  $B \cap A = \phi$ . Let  $x \in B$ . Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x) = p$  for some  $p \in F(f)$ . Since  $C_p(f) \cap A \neq \phi$  and  $C_p(f) \cap B \neq \phi$ , then  $C_p(f)$  is not connected. This contradicts to the assumption.

Assume that (2) is true and  $F(f)$  is connected. Since  $F(f)$  is connected,  $F(f) \subseteq A$  for some component  $A$  of  $C(f)$ . Suppose that  $C(f)$  is not connected. Hence, there exists the component  $B$  of  $C(f)$  such that  $B \cap A = \phi$ . Since  $f^{h_B}(B) \cap B \neq \phi$  and  $f^{h_B}(B)$  is connected, we get that  $f^{nh_B}(B) \subseteq B$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^{nh_B}(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x) \in F(f) \subseteq C(f)$  for all  $x \in B$  and, by Theorem 2.12,  $B$  is closed in  $C(f)$ , we have  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^{nh_B}(x) \in B$  for all  $x \in B$ . Hence  $F(f) \cap B \neq \phi$ , which is a contradiction.  $\square$

**Lemma 3.12.** *Let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be continuous. If  $C_p(f)$  is path connected for all  $p \in F(f)$  and  $F(f)$  is path connected, then  $C(f)$  is path connected.*

*Proof.* Suppose on the contrary that  $C(f)$  is not path connected. Then  $F(f) \subseteq A$  for some path component  $A$  of  $C(f)$  and there exists path component  $B$  of  $C(f)$  such that  $B \cap A = \phi$ . Let  $x \in B$ . Then  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} f^n(x) = p$  for some  $p \in F(f)$ . Since  $C_p(f) \cap A \neq \phi$  and  $C_p(f) \cap B \neq \phi$ , then  $C_p(f)$  is not path connected. This contradicts to the assumption.  $\square$

Some properties of convergence sets of virtually stable maps can be seen in the following results.

**Lemma 3.13.** *For each  $x \in X$ , we have  $x \in C(f)$  if and only if the sequence  $(f^n(x))$  has a subsequence  $(f^{n_k}(x))$  converging to a fixed point of  $f$  and*

$$\sup \{n_{k+1} - n_k : k \in \mathbb{N}\} < \infty.$$

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Obvious.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) Let  $\sup \{n_{k+1} - n_k : k \in \mathbb{N}\} = h$  and  $1 \leq i \leq h$ . Suppose  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{n_k}(x) = p \in F(f)$ . Since  $f$  is continuous, we have  $p = f^i(p) = f^i(\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{n_k}(x)) = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{i+n_k}(x)$ . To show that  $f^n(x) \rightarrow p$ , we let  $U$  be a neighborhood of  $p$ . Since  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{i+n_k}(x) = p$  and  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^{n_k}(x) = p$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f^{i+n_l}(x) \in U$  and  $f^{n_l}(x) \in U$  for all  $l \geq N$ . Let  $j \geq n_{N+1}$ . Then there exists  $r' \geq N + 1$  such that  $n_{N+1} \leq n_{r'} \leq j \leq n_{r'+1}$ . Hence  $j = n_{r'} + s$  for some  $0 \leq s \leq h$  and we have  $f^j(x) \in U$  for all  $j \geq n_{N+1}$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 3.14.** *Let  $p$  be a uniformly virtually  $f$ -stable fixed point with respect to  $(k_n)$  and  $x \in X$ . Suppose there exist  $r, h \in \mathbb{N}$  with  $k_{r+i} = k_i + h; i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $x \in C_p(f)$  if and only if there exists a sequence of natural numbers  $(r_n)$  such that for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  there exists  $m \in \mathbb{N}$  with*

$$r_n = k_{i+m-1} + r_1 - k_i, \forall i \in \mathbb{N} \text{ and } f^{r_n}(x) \rightarrow p.$$

*Proof.* ( $\Rightarrow$ ) Since  $f^n(x) \rightarrow p$ ,  $f^{nh}(x) \rightarrow p$ . By the assumption,  $k_i + h = k_{i+r}$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence  $k_i + nh = k_{i+(n-1)r} + h$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . By letting,  $r_n = nh$  and  $m = (n-1)r + 1$ , we are done.

( $\Leftarrow$ ) To show that  $f^n(x) \rightarrow p$ , let  $U$  be a neighborhood of  $p$ . Then there exists a neighborhood  $V$  of  $p$  such that  $f^{k_n}(V) \subseteq U$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $f^{r_n}(x) \rightarrow p$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f^{r_N}(x) \in V$ . Thus  $f^{r_N+k_i}(x) \in U$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . By the assumption, there exists  $M \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $k_i + r_N = k_{i+M-1} + r_1$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $f^{k_i+r_1}(x) \in U$  for all  $i \geq M$ . Hence  $f^{k_n+r_1}(x) \rightarrow p$ . Since  $k_{i+nr} = k_i + nh$  for all  $i > 0, n \geq 0$ , we have  $k_{nr+i+1} - k_{nr+i} = k_{i+1} - k_i$  for all  $1 \leq i \leq r$  and  $n \geq 0$ . Thus  $\sup \{k_{n+1} - k_n : n \in \mathbb{N}\} = \sup \{k_{n+1} - k_n : 1 \leq n \leq r\}$ . By Lemma 3.13,  $f^n(x) \rightarrow p$ .  $\square$

**Corollary 3.15.** *Suppose  $(X, d)$  is a metric space,  $f$  is virtually nonexpansive,  $x \in X$  and  $p \in F(f)$ . Then,  $x \in C_p(f)$  if and only if  $(f^n(x))$  has a subsequence converging to  $p$ . Hence,  $C_p(f) = \{x \in X : d(O(f, x), p) = 0\}$ , where  $O(f, x) = \{f^n(x) : n \in \mathbb{N}\}$ .*

*Proof.* All notations follow Theorem 3.14. Since  $f$  is virtually nonexpansive, we can set  $k_n = n$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $h = 1$  and  $r = 1$ . Let  $(r_n)$  be any strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers such that  $f^{r_n}(x) \rightarrow p$  and  $n' \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $r_{n'} = i + (r_{n'} - r_1 + 1) - 1 + r_1 - i = k_{i+(r_{n'}-r_1+1)-1} + r_1 - k_i$  for all  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Hence we get the result by Theorem 3.14.  $\square$

**Theorem 3.16.** *Suppose  $(X, d)$  is a metric space,  $p$  is a uniformly virtually  $f$ -stable fixed point with respect to the sequence  $(nh)$  for some  $h \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $x \in C_p(f)$ . Then for each  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  with  $f^{nh}(B_d(x, \delta)) \subseteq B_d(f^{nh}(x), \epsilon)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $\epsilon > 0$ . By uniform virtual stability, there exists  $r \in (0, \frac{\epsilon}{2})$  such that, for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $f^{nh}(B_d(p, r)) \subseteq B_d(p, \frac{\epsilon}{2})$ . Since  $x \in C_p(f)$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $f^{nh}(x) \in B_d(p, r)$  for all  $n \geq N$ . By the continuity of  $f^h, \dots, f^{Nh}$ , there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that  $f^{Nh}(B_d(x, \delta)) \subseteq B_d(p, r)$  and  $f^{nh}(B_d(x, \delta)) \subseteq B_d(f^{nh}(x), \epsilon)$  for  $n \leq N$ . Thus, for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $y \in B_d(x, \delta)$ , we consider the following 2 cases:

**Case 1 :**  $n \leq N$ .

By the property of  $\delta$  above, we have  $f^{nh}(B_d(x, \delta)) \subseteq B_d(f^{nh}(x), \epsilon)$ .

**Case 2 :**  $n > N$ .

Suppose  $n = N + i$  for some  $i \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} d(f^{nh}(y), f^{nh}(x)) &= d(f^{(N+i)h}(y), f^{(N+i)h}(x)) \\ &\leq d(f^{(N+i)h}(y), p) + d(p, f^{(N+i)h}(x)). \end{aligned}$$

Since  $f^{Nh}(x), f^{Nh}(y) \in B_d(p, r)$ ,  $d(f^{nh+Nh}(y), p) < \frac{\epsilon}{2}$  for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

Thus  $d(f^{(N+i)h}(x), p) + d(p, f^{(N+i)h}(y)) < \frac{\epsilon}{2} + \frac{\epsilon}{2} = \epsilon$ . Hence, we get the result.  $\square$

The next theorem generalizes Theorem 1.2 in [2].

**Theorem 3.17.** *Suppose  $(X, d)$  is a complete metric space and  $f$  is uniformly virtually stable with respect to the sequence  $(nh)$  for some  $h \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then  $C(f)$  is a  $G_\delta$ -set.*

*Proof.* By Theorem 3.16, for every  $x \in C(f)$  and  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists  $\delta_{x,m} > 0$  such that  $f^{nh}(B_d(x, \delta_{x,m})) \subseteq B_d(f^{nh}(x), \frac{1}{m})$  for every  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $K = \bigcap_{m \in \mathbb{N}} \bigcup_{x \in C(f)} B_d(x, \delta_{x,m})$ . Clearly,  $K$  is a  $G_\delta$ -set. We will show that  $K = C(f)$ . It is clear that  $C(f) \subseteq K$ . To show that  $K \subseteq C(f)$ , we let  $k \in K$  and  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Then there exist  $x \in C(f)$  and  $\delta_{x,4n} > 0$  such that  $d(k, x) < \delta_{x,4n}$ . Hence,  $d(f^{mh}(k), f^{mh}(x)) < \frac{1}{4n}$  for all  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $x \in C(f)$ , there is  $p_n \in F(f)$  and  $N_n \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(f^{mh}(x), p_n) < \frac{1}{4n}$  for all  $m > N_n$ . Then  $d(f^{mh}(k), p_n) \leq d(f^{mh}(k), f^{mh}(x)) + d(f^{mh}(x), p_n) < \frac{1}{4n} + \frac{1}{4n} = \frac{1}{2n}$  for every  $m > N_n$ , and  $d(f^{m'h}(k), f^{mh}(k)) \leq d(f^{m'h}(k), p_n) + d(p_n, f^{mh}(k)) < \frac{1}{2n} + \frac{1}{2n} = \frac{1}{n}$  for all  $m', m > N_n$ . Hence,  $(f^{nh}(k))_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a Cauchy sequence and  $f^{nh}(k) \rightarrow p'$  for some  $p' \in X$ . We will prove that  $p' \in F(f)$  by showing that  $p_n \rightarrow p'$ . Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $l \geq n$ . Then  $d(f^{mh}(k), p_l) < \frac{1}{2l}$  for all  $m \geq N_l$ . Since  $f^{nh}(k) \rightarrow p'$ , there is  $M_l \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $M_l > N_l$  and  $d(f^{M_l h}(k), p') < \frac{1}{2l}$ . Hence,

$$d(p_l, p') \leq d(p_l, f^{M_l h}(k)) + d(f^{M_l h}(k), p') < \frac{1}{2l} + \frac{1}{2l} = \frac{1}{l} \leq \frac{1}{n}.$$

Since  $F(f)$  is closed,  $p' \in F(f)$ . By Lemma 3.13,  $k \in C(f)$ . □

**Corollary 3.18.** *Let  $(X, d)$  be a complete metric space and  $f$  virtually nonexpansive. Then  $C(f)$  is a  $G_\delta$ -set.*

**Theorem 3.19.** *Suppose  $(X, d)$  is a complete metric space and  $f$  is asymptotically nonexpansive. Then  $C(f)$  is closed.*

*Proof.* To show that  $C(f)$  is closed, let  $x \in X$  and  $(x_n)$  be a sequence in  $C(f)$  such that  $x_n \rightarrow x$ . We will show that  $(f^n(x))$  is a Cauchy sequence. Let  $m \in \mathbb{N}$ . Since  $f$  is asymptotically nonexpansive, there exists  $K > 1$  such that  $d(f^n(y), f^n(z)) < Kd(y, z)$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $y, z \in X$ . Since  $x_n \rightarrow x$ , there exists  $M \in \mathbb{N}$  such that

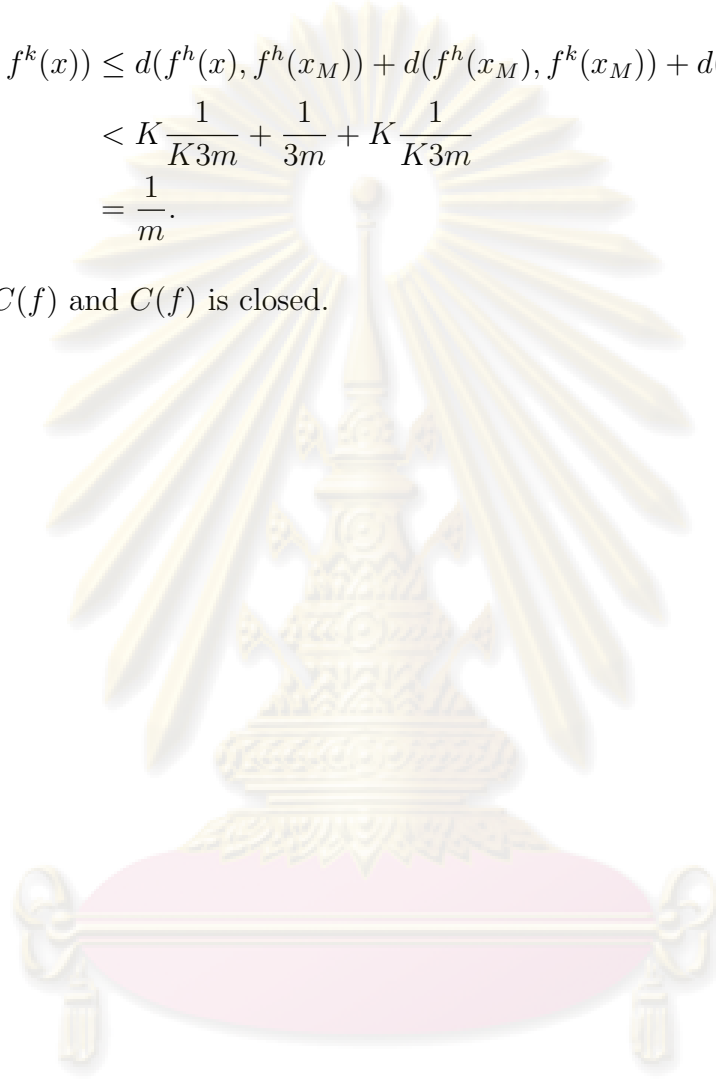


$d(x, x_M) < \frac{1}{K3m}$ . Since  $x_M \in C(f)$ ,  $(f^n(x_M))$  is a Cauchy sequence. Hence there exists  $M' \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $d(f^h(x_M), f^k(x_M)) < \frac{1}{3m}$  for all  $h, k \geq M'$ .

Then, for  $h, k \geq M'$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} d(f^h(x), f^k(x)) &\leq d(f^h(x), f^h(x_M)) + d(f^h(x_M), f^k(x_M)) + d(f^k(x_M), f^k(x)) \\ &< K \frac{1}{K3m} + \frac{1}{3m} + K \frac{1}{K3m} \\ &= \frac{1}{m}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $x \in C(f)$  and  $C(f)$  is closed. □



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# CHAPTER IV

## APPLICATION TO

### $\phi$ -HOMOGENEOUS MAPS

In this chapter, we will investigate some properties of  $\phi$ -homogeneous maps, their convergence sets, and their fixed point sets. We begin this chapter by extending some notions introduced in [2].

**Definition 4.1.** *Let  $X$  be an  $x_0$ -star-convex subset of a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space, and  $f : X \rightarrow X$  and  $\phi : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  continuous selfmaps. We will call  $f$  a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to  $x_0$ , if for each  $t \in [0, 1]$  and  $x \in X$*

$$f(tx + (1 - t)x_0) = \phi(t)f(x) + (1 - \phi(t))x_0.$$

**Example 4.2.** *Note that  $\mathbb{C}$  is a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space. So it is certainly 1-star-convex. Consider  $f : \mathbb{C} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$  defined by  $f(z) = |z - 1|^2 + 1$ . Then  $f(tz + (1 - t)) = |(tz + (1 - t)) - 1|^2 + 1 = |tz - t|^2 + 1 = t^2|z - 1|^2 + 1 = t^2(|z - 1|^2 + 1) + (1 - t^2) = t^2f(z) + (1 - t^2)$ . Hence,  $f$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to 1 where  $\phi : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  is a continuous selfmap defined by  $\phi(x) = x^2$  for all  $x \in [0, 1]$ .*

**Example 4.3.** *Let  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $A \neq 1$ . Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space, it is certainly  $\frac{B}{1-A}$ -star-convex. Consider  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = Ax + B$ . Then  $f$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to  $\frac{B}{1-A}$  where  $\phi$  is the identity map.*

**Example 4.4.** *Consider  $f : \mathbb{R}_0^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_0^+$  defined by  $f(x) = x^3$ . It is easy to show that  $f$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to 0 where  $\phi(t) = t^3$ ,  $f$  is not virtually stable,  $C(f) = [0, 1]$ , and  $F(f) = \{0, 1\}$  which is not 0-star-convex.*

From Definition 4.1, notice that

1. When  $x_0 = 0$ , the definition coincides with  $\phi$ -homogeneous map in [2];

2. If  $\phi$  is the identity map, then  $F(f)$  is  $x_0$ -star-convex;
3. Although  $\phi$  is the identity map and  $X$  is a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space,  $f$  need not be linear.

**Example 4.5.** Since  $\mathbb{R}$  is a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space, it is certainly 1-star-convex. Consider  $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $f(x) = |x - 1| + 1$ . We have that  $f(tx + (1 - t)) = |tx + (1 - t) - 1| + 1 = t|x - 1| + 1 = t|x - 1| + t - t + 1 = t(|x - 1| + 1) + (1 - t) = tf(x) + (1 - t)$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Then  $f$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to 1. But  $f$  is not linear since  $f(1 - 1) = f(0) = 2 \neq 4 = f(1) + f(-1)$ .

**Example 4.6.** Recall that  $L^2([-1, 1])$  is a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space. So it is 0-star-convex. Consider  $T : L^2([-1, 1]) \rightarrow L^2([-1, 1])$  defined by

$$T(f)(x) = \sqrt{\int_{-1}^x (f(y))^2 dy} .$$

It is easy to show that  $T$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to 0.

Let  $g$  be the identity map on  $[-1, 1]$ . Then  $-g \in L^2([-1, 1])$  and

$$T(g + (-g))(x) = \sqrt{\int_{-1}^x (y - y)^2 dy} = 0, \text{ but}$$

$$(T(g) + T(-g))(x) = \sqrt{\int_{-1}^x (y)^2 dy} + \sqrt{\int_{-1}^x (-y)^2 dy} = 2\sqrt{\frac{x^3+1}{3}}.$$

Hence,  $T$  is not linear.

From now on, let  $X$  be an  $x_0$ -star-convex subset of a topological  $\mathbb{R}$ -linear space,  $f : X \rightarrow X$  and  $\phi : [0, 1] \rightarrow [0, 1]$  continuous selfmaps. Furthermore, we define  $f' : X - x_0 \rightarrow X - x_0$  by  $f'(x) = f(x + x_0) - x_0$  for all  $x \in X - x_0$ .

**Lemma 4.7.** Let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to  $x_0$ . Then  $f' : X - x_0 \rightarrow X - x_0$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map,  $C(f') + x_0 = C(f)$ , and  $F(f') + x_0 = F(f)$ .

*Proof.* We will show that  $f'$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map. Clearly,  $X - x_0$  is an

0-star-convex set. Let  $t \in [0, 1]$  and  $x \in X - x_0$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 f'(tx) &= f(tx + x_0) - x_0 \\
 &= f(t(x + x_0) + (1 - t)x_0) - x_0 \\
 &= (\phi(t)f(x + x_0) + (1 - \phi(t))x_0) - x_0 \\
 &= \phi(t)(f(x + x_0) - x_0) \\
 &= \phi(t)f'(x).
 \end{aligned}$$

To show that  $C(f') + x_0 = C(f)$ , we observe that  $(f')^n(x) = (f')^{n-1}(f(x + x_0) - x_0) = (f')^{n-2}(f^2(x + x_0) - x_0) = \dots = f^n(x + x_0) - x_0$  for all  $x \in X - x_0$  and  $n \geq 2$ . Hence, for each  $x \in X - x_0$ , we have  $x \in C(f')$  if and only if  $x + x_0 \in C(f)$ . Moreover, by the definition of  $f'$ ,  $x \in F(f')$  if and only if  $x + x_0 \in F(f)$ .  $\square$

**Lemma 4.8.** *If  $f : X \rightarrow X$  is a non-constant  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to  $x_0$ , we have the followings:*

1.  $\phi(st) = \phi(s)\phi(t)$  for all  $s, t \in [0, 1]$ ;
2.  $\{0, 1\} \subseteq F(\phi)$ ;
3.  $x_0 \in F(f)$ ;
4. If  $\phi(x) = 0$ , then  $x = 0$ ;
5. If  $\phi(x) = 1$ , then  $x = 1$ ;
6.  $\phi$  is a strictly increasing function;
7.  $C(\phi) = [0, 1]$ .

*Proof.* By Lemma 4.7,  $f'$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map. Then (1), (2), and the fact that  $0 \in F(f')$  are results from Proposition 2.39. Again, by Lemma 4.7,  $x_0 \in F(f)$ .

We will show (4). By (2),  $t = \sup \{x \in [0, 1] : \phi(x) = 0\} < 1$  exists. Since  $\phi$  is continuous,  $\phi(t) = 0$ . Suppose on the contrary that  $t > 0$ . Then, by (1),  $\phi(t) = \phi(\sqrt{t}\sqrt{t}) = \phi(\sqrt{t})\phi(\sqrt{t})$ . Since  $\sqrt{t} > t$ , we have  $\sqrt{t} > 0$ . Hence,  $0 = \phi(t) =$

$\phi(\sqrt{t})\phi(\sqrt{t}) > 0$ , which is a contradiction.

We will prove (5). It is similar to (4) that there exists  $t = \inf \{x \in [0, 1] : \phi(x) = 1\}$  such that  $\phi(t) = 1$ . Suppose on the contrary that  $t < 1$ . Since  $t^2 < t$ ,  $\phi(t^2) < 1$ . Then  $1 = \phi(t)\phi(t) = \phi(t^2) < 1$ , which is a contradiction.

To show (6), let  $s, t \in [0, 1]$  be such that  $s < t$ . Then  $\frac{s}{t} < 1$ , so  $\phi(\frac{s}{t}) < 1$ . We get that  $\phi(s) = \phi(t(\frac{s}{t})) = \phi(t)\phi(\frac{s}{t}) < \phi(t)$ .

To show (7), let  $x \in [0, 1]$ . If  $x = \phi(x)$ , we are done. If  $x < \phi(x)$ , then for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $\phi^n(x) < \phi^{n+1}(x)$  by (6). We obtain that  $(\phi^n(x))$  is a strictly increasing sequence in  $[0, 1]$ . The monotone convergence theorem guarantees that  $x \in C(\phi)$ . If  $\phi(x) < x$ , we get that  $(\phi^n(x))$  is a strictly decreasing sequence in  $[0, 1]$ . Again, we have  $x \in C(\phi)$ .  $\square$

**Theorem 4.9.** *Let  $f : X \rightarrow X$  be a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to  $x_0$ . Then  $C(f)$  is  $x_0$ -star-convex.*

*Proof.* If  $f$  is a constant function, we are done. Otherwise, by Theorem 2.40 and Lemma 4.8,  $C(f')$  is 0-star convex. Moreover, by Lemma 4.7,  $C(f) = C(f') + x_0$ . Hence,  $C(f)$  is  $x_0$ -star-convex.  $\square$

The next example shows that the fixed point set of a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to  $x_0$  need not be  $x_0$ -star-convex.

**Example 4.10.** *Consider  $g : \mathbb{R}_0^+ \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_0^+$  defined by  $g(x) = x^2$ . It is easy to show that  $g$  is a  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to 0 where  $\phi(t) = t^2$ ,  $C(g) = [0, 1]$ , and  $F(g) = \{0, 1\}$  which is not 0-star-convex.*

The next theorem improves and generalizes Theorem 3.3 in [2].

**Theorem 4.11.** *If  $f : X \rightarrow X$  is a virtually stable  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to  $x_0$  that fixes more than one point, then  $\phi(t) = t$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ .*

*Proof.* By the assumption and Lemma 4.8, there is  $x_1 \in F(f) - \{x_0\}$ . Suppose on the contrary that there exists  $t_0 \in (0, 1)$  such that  $\phi(t_0) \neq t_0$ . Then we consider the following 2 cases:

**Case 1 :**  $\phi(t_0) > t_0$ .

By Lemma 4.8,  $0 \in F(\phi)$ . Thus  $\sup \{t \in [0, t_0) : \phi(t) = t\}$  exists. Let  $t' = \sup \{t \in [0, t_0) : \phi(t) = t\}$ . Since  $F(\phi)$  is closed,  $t'$  must be a fixed point. Then  $\phi(t') = t' < t_0 < \phi(t_0)$ . By intermediate value theorem and the property of  $t'$ , there exists  $t_1 \in (t', t_0)$  such that  $\phi(t') = t' < t_1 < \phi(t_1) = t_0$ . Similarly, there exists  $t_2 \in (t', t_1)$  such that  $\phi(t') = t' < t_2 < \phi(t_2) = t_1$ . By continuing this process, we obtain, for each  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ , there exists  $t_n \in (t', t_{n-1})$  such that  $\phi(t') = t' < t_n < \phi(t_n) = t_{n-1}$  and  $\phi^n(t_n) = t_0$ . Hence,  $(t_n)$  is a strictly decreasing sequence in  $[t', t_0]$ . By monotone convergence theorem, there exists  $t'' \in [t', t_0]$  such that  $t_n \rightarrow t''$ . Since  $\phi$  is continuous,  $\phi(t'') = \phi(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \phi(t_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} t_{n-1} = t''$ . Therefore,  $t'' = t'$ . Because  $x_1 \in F(f)$  and  $t' \in F(\phi)$ , we have  $f(t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0) = \phi(t')f(x_1) + (1-\phi(t'))x_0 = t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0$ , that is  $t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0 \in F(f)$ . Moreover,  $t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0 \neq \phi(t_0)x_1 + (1-\phi(t_0))x_0$  since  $\phi(t_0) > t'$  and  $x_1 \neq x_0$ . Then there is a neighborhood  $U$  of  $t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0$  such that  $\phi(t_0)x_1 + (1-\phi(t_0))x_0 \notin U$ . We will show that the fixed point  $t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0$  is not virtually  $f$ -stable and obtain a contradiction. Since  $t_n \rightarrow t'$ , we have  $t_n x_1 + (1-t_n)x_0 \rightarrow t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0$ . It follows that, for each neighborhood  $V$  of  $t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0$ , there exists  $N \in \mathbb{N}$  such that  $t_n x_1 + (1-t_n)x_0 \in V$  for all  $n \geq N$ . Then  $\phi(t_0)x_1 + (1-\phi(t_0))x_0 = \phi^{n+1}(t_n)x_1 + (1-\phi^{n+1}(t_n))x_0 = f^{n+1}(t_n x_1 + (1-t_n)x_0) \in f^{n+1}(V)$  for all  $n \geq N$ . Thus,  $f^{n+1}(V)$  can not be a subset of  $U$  for each  $n \geq N$ . Hence,  $U$  is a neighborhood of  $t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0$  having the property that for all neighborhood  $V$  of  $t'x_1 + (1-t')x_0$ , there is no strictly increasing sequence of natural numbers  $(k_n)$  that  $f^{k_n}(V) \subseteq U$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ .

**Case 2 :**  $\phi(t_0) < t_0$ .

By Lemma 4.8,  $1 \in F(\phi)$ . We can let  $t' = \inf \{t \in (t_0, 1] : \phi(t) = t\} \in F(\phi)$ . It is similar to case 1 that there exists a strictly increasing sequence  $(t_n)$  in  $[t_0, t']$  such that  $t_n \rightarrow t'$  and  $\phi^n(t_n) = t_0$  for all  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Moreover, by imitating the process in case 1, we obtain a contradiction that  $f$  is not virtually stable.

Hence,  $\phi(t) = t$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$ . □

**Corollary 4.12.** *If  $f : X \rightarrow X$  is a virtually stable  $\phi$ -homogeneous map with respect to  $x_0$ , then  $F(f)$  is  $x_0$ -star-convex.*

*Proof.* If  $f$  has only one fixed point, then we are done. Otherwise, by Theorem 4.11, we immediately have  $f(tx + (1 - t)x_0) = tf(x) + (1 - t)x_0 = tx + (1 - t)x_0$  for all  $t \in [0, 1]$  and  $x \in F(f)$ . Therefore  $F(f)$  is  $x_0$ -star-convex as desired.  $\square$



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