

Application of Perove Type Fixed Point Theorem in Vector Valued B -Metric Spaces

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Abstract

In this paper, we extended the definition of b -metric spaces to encompass the vectorial scenario, wherein the distance is represented as a vector, and the constant in the triangle inequality axiom is substituted with a matrix. For these spaces, we present findings that are similar to those in the b -metric framework: fixed-point theorems, stability results, and a version of Ekeland's variational principle. Consequently, we also obtain a variation of Caristi's fixed-point theorem.

Keywords: triangle inequality axiom; b -metric space; variational principle; fixed point.

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1. Introduction

Various results from the classical theory of metric spaces have been extended to b -metric spaces, including fixed-point theorems, estimations, stability results, and variational principles. In [21], the metric was allowed to take vector values, and results analogous to those for b -metric spaces were established, with matrices converging to zero replacing the contraction constants, but not the constant b from the triangle inequality axiom. Throughout this paper, we consider \mathbb{R}^n -valued vector metrics ($n \geq 1$) on a set X , i.e., mappings $d : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+^n$. In the scalar case ($n = 1$), we use the special notation ρ to denote a standard metric or a b -metric. The classical definition of a b -metric reads as follows:

Definition 1.1. Let X be a set and let $b \geq 1$ be a given real number. A mapping $\rho : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+$ is said to be a b -metric if for all $x, y, z \in X$ the following conditions are satisfied: $\rho(x, y) \geq 0$, $\rho(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$, $\rho(x, y) = \rho(y, x)$ and $\rho(x, z) \leq b(\rho(x, y) + \rho(y, z))$. The pair (X, ρ) is called a b -metric space.

Definition 1.2. Let X be a set, $n \geq 1$ and let $B \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ be an arbitrary matrix. A mapping $d = (d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n) : X \times X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+^n$ is called a vector B -metric if for all $u, v, w \in X$, one has

(positivity): $d(u, v) \geq 0$ and $d(u, v) = 0$ if and only if $u = v$;

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(symmetry): $d(u, v) = d(v, u)$;

(triangle inequality): $d(u, w) \leq B(d(u, v) + d(v, w))$.

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

2. Preliminaries

In this section, the vectors in \mathbb{R}^n are looked as column matrices and ordering between them and, more generally, between matrices of the same size is understood by components. Likewise, the convergence of a sequence of vectors or matrices is understood componentwise.

The spaces of square matrices of size n with real number entries and nonnegative entries are denoted by $\mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}_+)$, respectively. An element of $\mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}_+)$ is referred as a *positive matrix*, while a matrix $M \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$ is called *inverse-positive* if it is invertible and its inverse M^{-1} is positive. A positive matrix M is said to be *convergent to zero* if its power M^k tends to the zero matrix 0_n as $k \rightarrow \infty$. One has the following characterizations of matrices which are convergent to zero.

Proposition 2.1. *Let $M \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}_+)$ and let I be the identity matrix of size n . The following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) M is convergent to zero.
- (b) The spectral radius $r(M)$ of matrix M is less than 1, i.e., $r(M) < 1$.
- (c) $I - M$ is invertible and $(I - M)^{-1} = I + M + M^2 + \dots$
- (d) $I - M$ is inverse-positive.

The following proposition collects the various properties equivalent to the notion of an inverse-positive matrix (see, e.g., [23,24]).

Proposition 2.2. *Let $M \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$. The following statements are equivalent:*

- (a) M is inverse-positive.
- (b) M is monotone, i.e., $Mx \geq 0$ ($x \in \mathbb{R}^n$) implies $x \geq 0$.
- (c) There exists a positive matrix \overline{M} and a real number $s > r(\overline{M})$ such that the following representation holds:

$$M = sI - \overline{M}.$$

A mapping $N : X \rightarrow X$ defined on a vector B -metric space (X, d) is said to be a Perov contraction mapping if there exists a matrix A convergent to zero such that

$$d(N(x), N(y)) \leq Ad(x, y) \tag{1}$$

for all $x, y \in X$.

The next proposition is about the relationship between vector B -metrics and both vector and scalar b -metrics.

Proposition 2.3.

- (1⁰) Any vector-valued b -metric d can be identified with a vector B_b -metric, where B_b is the diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are all equal to b .
- (2⁰) If d is a vector B -metric with an inverse-positive matrix B , then d is also a vector \underline{B} -metric with respect to the diagonal matrix \underline{B} that preserves the diagonal of B , as well as a vector-valued \tilde{b} -metric with $\tilde{b} = \max \{b_{ii} : 1 \leq i \leq n\}$. Here $B = (b_{ij})_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$.
- (3⁰) If d is a vector B -metric with a positive matrix B , then to each norm in \mathbb{R}^n one can associate a scalar b -metric, for example:

$$\begin{aligned} \rho_1(x, y) &:= \sum_{i=1}^n d_i(x, y), & \text{is a } b_1\text{-metric, } & b_1 := \sum_{i=1}^n \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} b_{ij}, \\ \rho_\infty(x, y) &:= \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} d_i(x, y), & \text{is a } b_\infty\text{-metric, } & b_\infty := \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \sum_{j=1}^n b_{ij}, \\ \rho_2(x, y) &:= \left(\sum_{i=1}^n d_i(x, y)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, & \text{is a } b_2\text{-metric, } & b_2 := \left(\sum_{i,j=1}^n b_{ij}^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, to any vector B -metric, one can associate different (scalar) b -metrics, depending on the chosen metric on \mathbb{R}^n .

If Y is a nonempty subset of a vector B -metric space (X, d) , we define the *diameter* of the set Y by

$$\text{diam}_d(Y) := \sup \{ \rho_1(x, y) : x, y \in Y \} = \sup \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n d_i(x, y) : x, y \in Y \right\}.$$

From this definition, it follows immediately that if $\text{diam}_d(Y) = a$, then $d(x, y) \leq ae$ for all $x, y \in Y$, where $e = (1, 1, \dots, 1) \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Conversely, if $d(x, y) \leq ae$ for all $x, y \in Y$, then $\text{diam}_d(Y) \leq na$.

We conclude this section by two examples of vector B -metrics.

Example 2.4. Let $d: \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+^2$ be given by

$$d(x, y) = \begin{pmatrix} |x_1 - y_1|^2 + |x_2 - y_2| \\ |x_2 - y_2| \end{pmatrix},$$

for $x = (x_1, x_2), y = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$. Then, (\mathbb{R}^2, d) is a vector B -metric space, where

$$B = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Here, the matrix B is inverse-positive, but not positive.

Example 2.5. Let

$$S = \{(t, t) : t \in \mathbb{R}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2,$$

and let $d: \mathbb{R}^2 \times \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+^2$ be given by

$$d(x, y) = \begin{cases} (0, 0) & \text{if } x = y, \\ (|x - y|^2, |x - y|) & \text{if } x, y \in S, \\ (|x - y|, |x - y|^2) & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

where $|z| = |(z_1, z_2)| = |z_1| + |z_2|$ is a norm on \mathbb{R}^2 . Note that d is a vector B_0 -metric, where

$$B_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Let us show that B_0 is the smallest matrix for which the triangle inequality holds for d . To this aim, let $B = (b_{ij})_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$ be any matrix for which the triangle inequality is satisfied. Then, for $x, y \in S$ and $z \notin S$, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} |x - y|^2 \\ |x - y| \end{pmatrix} \leq \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} (|x - z| + |z - y|) + b_{12} (|x - z|^2 + |z - y|^2) \\ b_{21} (|x - z| + |z - y|) + b_{22} (|x - z|^2 + |z - y|^2) \end{pmatrix}. \quad (2)$$

Let $t, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$, and set $x = (t, t) \in S$, $y = (0, 0) \in S$ and $z = (\alpha, 0) \notin S$. The first inequality in (2) yields,

$$4t^2 \leq b_{11} (|t - \alpha| + |t| + |\alpha|) + b_{12} ((|t - \alpha| + |t|)^2 + \alpha^2).$$

Clearly, taking $\alpha = t$ and the limit as $t \rightarrow \infty$, this inequality holds only if $b_{12} \geq 2$. Similarly, from the second inequality, we obtain

$$2|t| \leq b_{21} (|t - \alpha| + |t| + |\alpha|) + b_{22} ((|t - \alpha| + |t|)^2 + \alpha^2).$$

Setting $\alpha = \frac{t}{2}$, we find that

$$2|t| \leq 2b_{21}|t| + 5b_{22}\frac{t^2}{2}, \quad \text{or equivalently,} \quad 5b_{22}\frac{t^2}{2} + 2|t|(b_{21} - 1) \geq 0.$$

Clearly, this inequality required for all t implies $b_{21} \geq 1$. To determine the values of b_{11} and b_{22} , we apply the triangle inequality with $x, y, z \in S$ ($x \neq y \neq z \neq x$), which gives

$$\begin{pmatrix} |x - y|^2 \\ |x - y| \end{pmatrix} \leq \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} (|x - z|^2 + |z - y|^2) + b_{12} (|x - z| + |z - y|) \\ b_{21} (|x - z|^2 + |z - y|^2) + b_{22} (|x - z| + |z - y|) \end{pmatrix}$$

Similar arguments as above imply that $b_{11} \geq 2$ and $b_{22} \geq 1$. Thus, $B \geq B_0$ as claimed.

3. Generalized Perov Type Contraction in Vector B -Metric Spaces

Our first result is a version of generalized Perov type fixed point theorem (see, [26,27]) for such spaces.

Theorem 3.1. *Let (X, d) be a complete vector B -metric space, where B is either a positive or an inverse-positive matrix, and let $N: X \rightarrow X$ be an operator. Assume that there exists a convergent to zero matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}_+)$ such that*

$$d(N(x), N(y)) \leq A \min\{d(x, y), d(x, N(x)), d(y, N(y))\}, \quad \text{for all } x, y \in X, \quad (3)$$

i.e., N is a generalized Perov type contraction mapping. Then, N has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$, and recursively define $x_k = N(x_{k-1})$, for $k \geq 1$. Since the matrix A is convergent to zero, for each $\alpha > 0$, there exists $k_0 = k_0(\alpha)$ such that $A^{k_0} \leq \Lambda$, where Λ is the square matrix of size n whose entries are all equal to α . Let $k, p \geq 0$ and k_0 be such that $A^{k_0} \leq \Lambda$, for some $\alpha > 0$ to be specified later.

Case (a): B is inverse-positive. The triangle inequality yields

$$\begin{aligned} B^{-2}d(x_k, x_p) &\leq B^{-1}d(x_k, x_{k+k_0}) + B^{-1}d(x_p, x_{p+k_0}) \\ &\leq B^{-1}A^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + d(x_p, x_{p+k_0}) + d(x_{p+k_0}, x_{k+k_0}) \\ &\leq B^{-1}A^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + A^p d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + A^{k_0} d(x_k, x_p) \\ &\leq B^{-1}A^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + A^p d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + \Lambda d(x_k, x_p), \end{aligned}$$

which gives

$$(B^{-2} - \Lambda)d(x_k, x_p) \leq B^{-1}A^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + A^p d(x_0, x_{k_0}). \quad (4)$$

Given that the right-hand side of (4) is a vector that converges to zero as $k, p \rightarrow \infty$, our goal is to show that a linear combination of the components of the vector $d(x_k, x_p)$ is bounded above by the corresponding components of the right-hand side of (4). To this aim, we make the following notations

$$\begin{aligned} B^{-2} &= (\gamma_{ij})_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}, \\ B^{-1}A^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + A^p d(x_0, x_{k_0}) &= \varphi_{k,p} = (\varphi_{k,p}^i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}. \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_{k,p}^i \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } k, p \rightarrow \infty. \quad (5)$$

Under these notations, relation (4) gives

$$\sum_{j=1}^n (\gamma_{ij} - \alpha) d_j(x_k, x_p) \leq \varphi_{k,p}^i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n. \quad (6)$$

Summing in (6) over all $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$, we obtain

$$\sum_{i,j=1}^n (\gamma_{ij} - \alpha) d_j(x_k, x_p) \leq \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_{k,p}^i. \quad (7)$$

Since B^{-2} is invertible and positive, the sum of its elements in each column must be positive, i.e.,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{ij} > 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

If we denote

$$\gamma = \min \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{ij} : j = 1, 2, \dots, n \right\},$$

relation (7) implies that

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_{k,p}^i &\geq \sum_{i,j=1}^n \gamma_{ij} d_j(x_k, x_p) - n\alpha \sum_{j=1}^n d_j(x_k, x_p) \\ &= \sum_{j=1}^n \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \gamma_{ij} \right) d_j(x_k, x_p) - n\alpha \sum_{j=1}^n d_j(x_k, x_p) \\ &\geq (\gamma - n\alpha) \sum_{j=1}^n d_j(x_k, x_p). \end{aligned}$$

Choosing $\alpha < \gamma/n$, one has

$$\sum_{j=1}^n d_j(x_k, x_p) \leq \frac{1}{\gamma - n\alpha} \sum_{i=1}^n \varphi_{k,p}^i. \quad (8)$$

In (8), we observe that the factor $\frac{1}{\gamma - n\alpha}$ depends only on n and B , whence (5) yields

$$\sum_{j=1}^n d_j(x_k, x_p) \rightarrow 0 \quad \text{as } k, p \rightarrow \infty,$$

so the sequence (x_k) is Cauchy.

Case (b): B is positive. One has

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_k, x_p) &\leq Bd(x_k, x_{k+k_0}) + Bd(x_p, x_{p+k_0}) \\ &\leq BA^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + B^2 d(x_p, x_{p+k_0}) + B^2 d(x_{p+k_0}, x_{k+k_0}) \\ &\leq BA^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + B^2 A^p d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + B^2 A^{k_0} d(x_k, x_p) \\ &\leq BA^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + B^2 A^p d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + B^2 \Lambda d(x_k, x_p), \end{aligned}$$

which gives

$$(I - B^2 \Lambda) d(x_k, x_p) \leq BA^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + B^2 A^p d(x_0, x_{k_0}). \quad (9)$$

Note that since $\Lambda^k = (n\alpha)^{k-1} \Lambda$, if α is chosen to be smaller than one divided by the greatest element of B^2 multiplied with n , the matrix $B^2 \Lambda$ is convergent to zero. Consequently, $I - B^2 \Lambda$ is invertible and

$(I - B^2\Lambda)^{-1} \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}_+)$. Hence, (9) is equivalent to

$$d(x_k, x_p) \leq (I - B^2\Lambda)^{-1} \left(BA^k d(x_0, x_{k_0}) + B^2 A^p d(x_0, x_{k_0}) \right). \quad (10)$$

As the right-hand side of (10) converges to zero when $k, p \rightarrow \infty$, we conclude that (x_k) is Cauchy.

Therefore, in both cases, the sequence (x_k) is Cauchy and since X is complete, it has a limit x^* , that is, $d(x_k, x^*) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Then, from

$$d(N(x_k), N(x^*)) \leq A \min\{d(x_k, x^*), d(x_k, Nx_k), d(x^*, Nx^*)\},$$

it follows that $N(x_k) \rightarrow N(x^*)$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, while from $x_{k+1} = N(x_k)$, passing to the limit, one obtains $x^* = N(x^*)$. Hence N has a fixed point. To prove uniqueness, suppose that there exists another fixed point x^{**} . Then, from

$$d(x^*, x^{**}) = d(N(x^*), N(x^{**})) \leq A \min\{d(x^*, x^{**}), d(x^*, Nx^*), d(x^{**}, Nx^{**})\},$$

recursively, we obtain that

$$d(x^*, x^{**}) \leq A^k \min\{d(x^*, x^{**}), d(x^*, Nx^*), d(x^{**}, Nx^{**})\},$$

for all $k \geq 1$. Since $A^k \rightarrow 0_n$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, we deduce that $d(x^*, x^{**}) = 0$, i.e., $x^{**} = x^*$. \square

Theorem 3.2. Let (X, d) be a complete vector B -metric space, where B is either positive or inverse-positive, and let $N: X \rightarrow X$ be an operator. Assume there exists a convergent to zero matrix $A \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R}_+)$ such that

$$d(N(x), N^2(x)) \leq A \min\{d(x, N(x)), d(x, N(x)), d(N(x), N^2(x))\}, \text{ for all } x \in X. \quad (11)$$

Then, N has at least one fixed point.

Proof. Following the proof of Theorem 3.1, from any initial point x_0 , the sequence $x_k = N^k(x_0)$ is convergent to a fixed point x^* of N , which clearly depends on the starting point x_0 , but condition (11) is insufficient to guarantee the uniqueness. \square

The next result is a version for vector B -metric spaces of Maia's fixed point theorem.

Theorem 3.3. Let X be a set equipped with two \mathbb{R}^n -vector metrics, a B_1 -metric d_1 and a B_2 -metric d_2 , where B_2 is either positive or inverse-positive, and let $N: X \rightarrow X$ be an operator. Assume that the following conditions hold:

(i) (X, d_1) is a complete vector B_1 -metric space;

(ii) $d_1(x, y) \leq Cd_2(x, y)$ for all $x, y \in X$ and some matrix $C \in \mathcal{M}_{n \times n}(\mathbb{R})$;

(iii) There exists a matrix A convergent to zero such that

$$d_2(N(x), N(y)) \leq A \min\{d_2(x, y), d_2(x, Nx), d_2(y, Ny)\}, \text{ for all } x, y \in X; \quad (12)$$

(iv) The operator N is continuous in (X, d_1) .

Then, the operator N has a unique fixed point.

Proof. Let $x_0 \in X$ be fixed, and consider the iterative sequence $x_{k+1} = N(x_k)$ for $k \geq 0$. For any $k, k_0, p \geq 0$, applying the triangle inequality twice and using condition (iii), we derive either

$$(B_2^{-2} - A^{k_0})d_2(x_k, x_p) \leq B_2^{-1}A^k d_2(x_0, x_{k_0}) + A^p d_2(x_0, x_{k_0}),$$

in case that B_2 is inverse-positive, or

$$(I - B_2^2 A^{k_0})d_2(x_k, x_p) \leq B_2 A^k d_2(x_0, x_{k_0}) + B_2^2 A^p d_2(x_0, x_{k_0}),$$

if B_2 is positive. Arguing similarly to the proof of Theorem 3.1, we deduce that (x_k) is a Cauchy sequence in (X, d_2) . From (ii), it follows immediately that (x_k) is also a Cauchy sequence in (X, d_1) , hence (x_k) is convergent with respect the metric d_1 to some x^* , that is,

$$d_1(N(x_k), x^*) = d_1(x_{k+1}, x^*) \rightarrow 0, \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty,$$

while the continuity of N yields $d_1(N(x^*), x^*) = 0$, i.e., $N(x^*) = x^*$. To establish uniqueness, suppose that x^{**} is another fixed point of N , i.e., $N(x^{**}) = x^{**}$. Then, by (12), one has

$$(I - A)d_2(x^*, x^{**}) \leq 0.$$

Since A is convergent to zero, we necessarily have $d_2(x^*, x^{**}) = 0$, i.e., $x^* = x^{**}$. \square

3.1 Stability Results of the Perov Contraction Mappings in Vector B -Metric Spaces

We now present two stability properties of the Perov contraction mappings in vector B -metric spaces. The first property is in the sense of Reich and Zaslavski and generalizes the one obtained in [18] for b -metric spaces.

Theorem 3.4. Let (X, d) be a complete vector B -metric space, and let $N: X \rightarrow X$ be an operator such that (3) holds with a matrix A convergent to zero. In addition assume that either

(a) B and $B^{-1} - A$ are inverse-positive; or

(b) B is positive and $I - BA$ is inverse-positive.

Then, N is stable in the sense of Reich and Zaslavski, i.e., N has a unique fixed point x^* , and for every sequence $(x_k) \subset X$ satisfying

$$d(x_k, N(x_k)) \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty, \quad (13)$$

one has

$$x_k \rightarrow x^* \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty.$$

Proof. According to Theorem 3.1 the operator N has a unique fixed point x^* . In addition, for any sequence (x_k) satisfying (13), in case (a), we have

$$\begin{aligned} B^{-1}d(x_k, x^*) &\leq d(x_k, N(x_k)) + d(N(x_k), x^*) \\ &= d(x_k, N(x_k)) + d(N(x_k), N(x^*)) \\ &\leq d(x_k, N(x_k)) + Ad(x_k, x^*), \end{aligned}$$

that is,

$$d(x_k, x^*) \leq (B^{-1} - A)^{-1}d(x_k, N(x_k)),$$

while in case (b),

$$d(x_k, x^*) \leq (I - BA)^{-1} Bd(x_k, N(x_k)).$$

These estimates immediately yield the conclusion. \square

The second stability result is in the sense of Ostrowski and extends to vector B -metric spaces a similar property established in [18] for b -metric spaces.

Theorem 3.5. Let (X, d) be a complete vector B -metric space, and let $N: X \rightarrow X$ be an operator. Assume N satisfies (3) with a matrix A convergent to zero. In addition, assume that either

- (a) B and $I - \tilde{b}A$ are inverse-positive, where $\tilde{b} = \max\{b_{ii} : i = 1, 2, \dots, n\}$; or
- (b) B is positive and $I - BA$ is inverse-positive.

Then, N has the Ostrowski property, i.e., N has a unique fixed point x^* , and for every sequence $(x_k) \subset X$ satisfying $d(x_{k+1}, N(x_k)) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, one has $x_k \rightarrow x^*$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$.

Proof. As previously established, the operator N has a unique fixed point x^* . In case (a), we have

$$\begin{aligned} d(x_{k+1}, x^*) &\leq \tilde{b} d(x_{k+1}, N(x_k)) + \tilde{b} d(N(x_k), N(x^*)) \\ &\leq \tilde{b} d(x_{k+1}, N(x_k)) + \tilde{b}A d(x_k, x^*) \\ &\leq \dots \\ &\leq \tilde{b} \sum_{p=0}^k (\tilde{b}A)^p d(x_{k+1-p}, N(x_{k-p})) + (\tilde{b}A)^{k+1} d(x_0, x^*), \end{aligned}$$

while in case (b), similar estimation gives

$$d(x_{k+1}, x^*) \leq \sum_{p=0}^k (BA)^p B d(x_{k+1-p}, N(x_{k-p})) + (BA)^k B d(x_0, x^*).$$

Since $I - \tilde{b}A$ is inverse-positive and $\tilde{b}A$ is positive in the first case, and $I - BA$ is inverse-positive and BA is positive in the second case, the series $\sum_{p=0}^k (\tilde{b}A)^p$ and $\sum_{p=0}^k (BA)^p$ are convergent. Moreover, $(\tilde{b}A)^k$ and $(BA)^k$ converge to the zero matrix as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Therefore, using the Cauchy-Toeplitz lemma (see [?]), it follows that $d(x_{k+1}, x^*) \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$. \square

4. Conclusion

In this paper, we introduced the concept of a vector B -metric space. Several fixed-point theorems, analogous to those in scalar b -metric spaces as well as their classical counterparts, were presented. Lastly, it would be interesting to study the case where the matrix B is neither positive nor inverse-positive; for instance, when it has positive diagonal elements but contains both positive and negative entries elsewhere.

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