# A note on $\boldsymbol{h}$-convex functions 

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#### Abstract

In this work, we discuss the continuity of $h$-convex functions by introducing the concepts of $h$-convex curves ( $h$-cord). Geometric interpretation of $h$-convexity is given. The fact that for a $h$-continuous function $f$, is being $h$-convex if and only if is $h$-midconvex is proved. Generally, we prove that if $f$ is $h$-convex then $f$ is $h$-continuous. A discussion regarding derivative characterization of $h$-convexity is also proposed.


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## 1 Introduction

Let $I$ be a real interval. A function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called convex iff

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(t \alpha+(1-t) \beta) \leq t f(\alpha)+(1-t) f(\beta) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all points $\alpha, \beta \in I$ and all $t \in[0,1]$. If $-f$ is convex then we say that $f$ is concave. Moreover, if $f$ is both convex and concave, then $f$ is said to be affine.

In 1979, Breckner [3] introduced the class of $s$-convex functions (in the second sense), as follows:

Definition 1.1. Let $I \subseteq[0, \infty)$ and $s \in(0,1]$, a function $f: I \rightarrow[0, \infty)$ is $s$-convex function or that $f$ belongs to the class $K_{s}^{2}(I)$ if for all $x, y \in I$ and $t \in[0,1]$ we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(t x+(1-t) y) \leq t^{s} f(x)+(1-t)^{s} f(y) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

In the last years, among others, the notion of $s$-convex functions is discriminated and starred. In literature a few papers devoted to study this type of convexity. The building theories of $s$-convexity as geometric and analytic tools are still under consideration, development and examine. Due to Hudzik and Maligranda (1994) [15], two senses of $s$-convexity $(0<s \leq 1)$ of real-valued functions are known in the literature, and given below.

Definition 1.2. A function $f: \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, where $\mathbb{R}_{+}=[0, \infty)$, is said to be $s$ convex in the first sense if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(\alpha x+\beta y) \leq \alpha^{s} f(x)+\beta^{s} f(y) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x, y \in[0, \infty), \alpha, \beta \geq 0$ with $\alpha^{s}+\beta^{s}=1$ and for some fixed $s \in(0,1]$. This class of functions is denoted by $K_{s}^{1}$.

This definition of $s$-convexity, for so called $\varphi$-functions, was introduced by Orlicz in 1961 and was used in the theory of Orlicz spaces. A function $f: \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$ is said to be a $\varphi$-function if $f(0)=0$ and $f$ is nondecreasing and continuous. The symbol $\varphi$ stands for an Orlicz function, i.e., $\varphi$ is defined on the real line $\mathbb{R}$ with values in $[0,+\infty]$ and is convex, even, vanishing and continuous at zero. For further details see [15, 17, 18, 32].

Remark 1.3. We note that, it can be easily seen that for $s=1$, $s$-convexity (in both senses) reduces to the ordinary convexity of functions defined on $[0, \infty)$.

In general, a real-valued function $f$ defined on an open convex subset $C$ of a linear space is called Breckner $s$-convex if (2) holds for every $x, y \in C, \alpha, \beta \in$ $[0,1]$ with $\alpha+\beta=1$, where $s \in(0,1)$ is fixed. More preciously, Breckner considered an open convex subset $\mathbb{M}$ of a linear space $\mathbb{L}$ and defined $f: \mathbb{M} \subseteq$ $\mathbb{L} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, to be $s$-convex if (2) holds, for all $x, y \in \mathbb{M}$, $\alpha, \beta \in[0,1]$ with $\alpha+\beta=1$, where $s \in(0,1)$ is fixed. Also, Breckner considered a special case of $s$-convex functions which is so called rational $s$-convex, that is for all rational $\alpha, \beta \in[0,1]$ with $\alpha+\beta=1$ and points $x, y \in \mathbb{M}$, the inequality (2) holds. Furthermore, Breckner proved that for locally bounded above $s$-convex functions defined on open subsets of linear topological spaces are continuous and nonnegative.

In 1978, Breckner and Orbán [4] studied functions defined on a convex subset of complex Hausdorff topological linear space of dimension greater than 1 into an ordered topological linear space such that all its order-bounded subsets are bounded, and proved that Breckner $s$-convex functions with $s \in(0,1]$ are continuous on the interior of their domain.

In 1994, Breckner [5] (see also [6]) proved that for a rationally $s$-convex function continuity and local $s$-Hölder continuity are equivalent at each interior point of the domain of definition of the function. Furthermore, it is shown that a rationally $s$-convex function which is bounded on a nonempty open convex set is $s$-Hölder continuous on every compact subset of this set. Indeed, Breckner [4], showed that if a real-valued function defined on a convex subset of a linear space endowed with topology generated by a direct pseudonorm is continuous and rationally Breckner $s$-convex for an $s \in(0,1]$, then it is locally $s$-Hölder.

In 1994, Hudzik and Maligranda [15], realized the importance and undertook a systematic study of $s$-convex functions in both senses. They compared the notion of Breckner $s$-convexity with a similar one of [18]. A function $f$ is Orlicz $s$-convex if the inequality (3) is satisfied for all $\alpha, \beta$ such that $\alpha^{s}+\beta^{s}=1$. Hudzik and Maligranda, among others, gave an example of a non-continuous Orlicz s-convex function, which is not Breckner $s$-convex.

In 2001, Pycia [24] established a direct proof of Breckner's result that Breckner $s$-convex real-valued functions on finite dimensional normed spaces are locally $s$ Hölder. The same result was proved in [1] where different context was considered. For the same result regarding convexity see [7, 8].

In the 2008, Pinheiro [25] studied the class of $K_{s}^{1}$ of $s$-convex functions and explained why the first $s$-convexity sense was abandoned by the literature in the field. In fact, Pinheiro, proposed some criticisms to the current way of presenting the definition of $s$-convex functions. We may summarize Pinheiro criticisms in the following points:
(i) What is the 'true' difference between convex and $s$-convex in both senses.
(ii) So far, Pinheiro did not find references, in the literature, to the geometry of an $s$-convex function, what, once more, makes it less clear to understand the difference between an $s$-convex and a convex function whilst there are clear references to the geometry of the convex functions.

In the same paper [25], Pinheiro revised the class of $s$-convexity in the first sense. In [26], Pinheiro proposed a geometric interpretation for this type of functions.

Definition 1.4. Let $U$ be any subset of $[0, \infty)$. A function $f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, is said to be $s$-convex in the first sense if

$$
\begin{equation*}
f\left(\lambda x+\left(1-\lambda^{s}\right)^{1 / s} y\right) \leq \lambda^{s} f(x)+\left(1-\lambda^{s}\right) f(y) \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $x, y \in U$ and $\lambda \in[0,1]$.
The presented reason from Pinheiro to why $s$-convexity in the first sense got abandoned in the literature, is that, if one takes $x=y=\frac{1}{4}$ with $\alpha=\frac{1}{2}$ and $\beta=1$ for example, one gets that $\alpha x+\beta y=0.125+0.25=0.375$. So that, if $s=\frac{1}{2}$, then the value of $\alpha x+\beta y$ would lie outside of the interval $[x, y]$, on the contrary of this, the value of $\alpha x+\beta y$ would lie inside of the interval $[x, y]$ in case of convexity. With this the first sense of $s$-convexity becomes a close to the meaning of convexity and so the geometric explanation of $s$-convex function is easy to be
compared with the geometry of convex function if some further restrictions are imposed to it.
The proposed geometric description for $s$-convex curve in the first sense stated by Pinheiro [25-30] as follows:

Definition 1.5. A function $f: X \subset \mathbb{R}_{+} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called $s$-convex in the first sense if and only if one in two situations occur:

- $0<s_{1}<1, f$ then belonging to $K_{s}^{1}$, for $0<s \leq s_{1}$ : The graph of f lies below ( L ), which is a convex curve between any two domain points with minimum distance of $\left(2^{-1}-2^{-1 / s}\right)$ (domain points distance), that is, for every compact interval $J \subset I$, where length of $\mathbf{J}$ is greater than, or equal to $\left(2^{-1}-2^{-1 / s}\right)$ interval with boundary $\partial J$, it is true that

$$
\sup _{J}(L-f) \geq \sup _{\partial J}(L-f)
$$

and $L$ is such that it is continuous, smooth, and, for each point $x$ of $L$, defined in terms of ninety degrees intercepts with the straight line between the two points of the function, it is true that $1 \leq x \leq 2^{-1}+2^{-s}$, where 1 corresponds to the straight line height;

- $f$ is convex.

In general, the class of $s$-convex functions in the second sense would incomplete concept without a geometric interpretations for it is behavior. Recently, Pinheiro devoted her efforts to give a clear geometric definition for $s$-convexity in second sense. In [27] Pinheiro successfully proposed a geometric description for $s$-convex curve, as follows:

Definition 1.6. $f$ is called $s$-convex in the second sense if and only if one in two situations occur:

- $0<s_{1}<1, f$ then belonging to $K_{s}^{2}$, for $0<s \leq s_{1}$ : The graph of f lies below ( L ), which is a convex curve between any two domain points with minimum distance of $\left(2^{-s}-2^{-1}\right)$ (domain points distance), that is, for every compact interval $J \subset I$, where length of $\mathbf{J}$ is greater than, or equal to $\left(2^{-s}-2^{-1}\right)$ interval with boundary $\partial J$, it is true that

$$
\sup _{J}(L-f) \geq \sup _{\partial J}(L-f)
$$

and $L$ is such that it is continuous, smooth, and, for each point $x$ of $L$, defined in terms of ninety degrees intercepts with the straight line between the two
points of the function, it is true that $1 \leq x \leq 2^{1-s}$, where 1 corresponds to the straight line height;

- $f$ is convex.

More geometrically, an interpretation of $s$-convex functions is introduced as follows:

Definition 1.7. $f$ is called $s$-convex, $0<s<1, f \geq 0$, if the graph of $f$ lies below a 'bent chord' $L$ between any two points. That is, for every compact interval $J \subset I$, with boundary $\partial J$, it is true that

$$
\sup _{J}(L-f) \geq \sup _{\partial J}(L-f) .
$$

Indeed the geometric view for $s$-convex mapping of second sense is going through which Pinheiro called it 'limiting curve', which is going to distinguish curves that are $s$-convex of second sense from those that are not. After that, Pinheiro obtained how the choice of ' $s$ ' affects the limiting curve. In general a 'limiting curve' may be described by a bent chord joining $f(x)$ to $f(y)$-corresponding to the verification of the $s$-convexity property of the function $f$ in the interval $[x, y]$-forms representing the limiting height for the curve $f$ to be at, limit included, in case $f$ is $s$-convex. This curve is represented by $\lambda^{s} f(x)+(1-\lambda)^{s} f(y)$, for each $0<s<1$.
Some properties of the limiting curve such as: maximum height, length, and local inclination are considered in [26-29].

- Height. The maximum of the limiting $s$-curve is $2^{1-s}$.
- Length. Let $f(\lambda)=\lambda^{s} X+(1-\lambda)^{s} Y$, with $X=f(x)$, and $Y=f(y)$. The size of the limiting curve from $f(x)$ to $f(y)$ is

$$
L(\lambda)=\int_{0}^{1} \sqrt{1+s^{2} \lambda^{2 s-2}+s^{2}(1-\lambda)^{2 s-2}-2 s^{2} \lambda^{s-1}(1-\lambda)^{s-1}} d \lambda
$$

which shows that how bent is the limiting curve.

- Local inclination. The local inclination of the limiting curve may be founded by means of the first derivative, consider $f(\lambda)=\lambda^{s} f(x)+(1-\lambda)^{s} f(y)$, Therefore, the inclination is $f^{\prime}(\lambda)=s \lambda^{s-1} f(x)-s(1-\lambda)^{s-1} f(y)$ and varies accordingly to the value of $\lambda$.

In 1985, E. K. Godunova and V. I. Levin (see [13] or [20, pp. 410-433]) introduced the following class of functions:

Definition 1.8. We say that $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a Godunova-Levin function or that $f$ belongs to the class $Q(I)$ if for all $x, y \in I$ and $t \in(0,1)$ we have

$$
f(t x+(1-t) y) \leq \frac{f(x)}{t}+\frac{f(y)}{1-t}
$$

In the same work, the authors proved that all nonnegative monotonic and nonnegative convex functions belong to this class. For related works see [12, 19].

In 1999, Pearce and Rubinov [23], established a new type of convex functions which is called $P$-functions.

Definition 1.9. We say that $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $P$-function or that $f$ belongs to the class $P(I)$ if for all $x, y \in I$ and $t \in[0,1]$ we have

$$
f(t x+(1-t) y) \leq f(x)+f(y)
$$

Indeed, $Q(I) \supseteq P(I)$ and for applications it is important to note that $P(I)$ also consists only of nonnegative monotonic, convex and quasi-convex functions. A related work was considered in $[12,34]$.

In 2007, Varošanec [35] introduced the class of $h$-convex functions which generalize convex, $s$-convex, Godunova-Levin functions and $P$-functions. Namely, the $h$-convex function is defined as a non-negative function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ which satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(t \alpha+(1-t) \beta) \leq h(t) f(\alpha)+h(1-t) f(\beta) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $h$ is a non-negative function, $t \in(0,1) \subseteq J$ and $x, y \in I$, where $I$ and $J$ are real intervals such that $(0,1) \subseteq J$. Accordingly, some properties of $h$ convex functions were discussed in the same work of Varošanec. For more results; generalization, counterparts and inequalities regarding $h$-convexity see [2, 9-11, $14,16,22]$.

## 2 On $h$-convex functions

Throughout this work, $I$ and $J$ are two intervals subset of $(0, \infty)$ such that $(0,1) \subseteq$ $J$ and $[a, b] \subseteq I$ with $0<a<b$.

Definition 2.1. The $h$-cord joining any two points $(x, f(x))$ and $(y, f(y))$ on the graph of $f$ is defined to be

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(t ; h):=[f(y)-f(x)] h\left(\frac{t-x}{y-x}\right)+f(x) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

for all $t \in[x, y] \subseteq \mathcal{I}$. In particular, if $h(t)=t$ then we obtain the well known form of chord, which is

$$
L(t ; t):=\frac{f(y)-f(x)}{y-x}(t-x)+f(x)
$$

It's worth to mention that, if $h(0)=0$ and $h(1)=1$, then $L(x ; h)=f(x)$ and $L(y ; h)=f(y)$, so that the $h$-cord $L$ agrees with $f$ at endpoints $x, y$, and this true for all such $x, y \in I$.

The $h$-convexity of a function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ means geometrically that the points of the graph of $f$ are on or below the $h$-chord joining the endpoints $(x, f(x))$ and $(y, f(y))$ for all $x, y \in I, x<y$. In symbols, we write

$$
f(t) \leq[f(y)-f(x)] h\left(\frac{t-x}{y-x}\right)+f(x)=L(t ; h)
$$

for any $x \leq t \leq y$ and $x, y \in I$.


Figure 1. The graph of $h_{k}(t)=t^{k}, k=\frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}$ (green, black, blue), respectively, and $f(t)=t^{2}(\mathrm{red}), t \in[0,1]$.

Hence, (5) means geometrically that for a given three non-collinear points $P, Q$ and $R$ on the graph of $f$ with $Q$ between $P$ and $R$ (say $P<Q<R$ ). Let $h$ is super(sub)multiplicative and $h(\alpha) \geq(\leq) \alpha$, for $\alpha \in(0,1) \subset J$. A function $f$ is $h$-convex (concave) if $Q$ is on or below (above) the $h$-chord $\widehat{P R}$ (see Figure 1).

Caution: In special case, for $h_{k}(t)=t^{k}, t \in(0,1)$ the proposed geometric interpretation is valid for $k \in(-1,0) \cup(0, \infty)$. In the case that $k \leq-1$ or $k=0$ the geometric meaning is inconclusive so we exclude this case (and (and similar cases) from our proposal above.

Definition 2.2. Let $h: J \rightarrow(0, \infty)$ be a non-negative function. Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be any function. We say $f$ is $h$-midconvex ( $h$-midconcave) if

$$
f\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \leq(\geq) h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)[f(x)+f(y)]
$$

for all $x, y \in I$.
In particular, $f$ is locally $h$-midocnvex if and only if

$$
h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)[f(x+p)+f(x-p)]-f(x) \geq 0
$$

for all $x \in(x-p, x+p), p>0$.
A generalization of Jensen characterization of convex functions could be stated as follows:

Theorem 2.3. Let $h: J \rightarrow(0, \infty)$ be a non-negative function such that $h(\alpha) \geq \alpha$, for all $\alpha \in(0,1)$. Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$be a nonnegative continuous function. $f$ is $h$-convex if and only if it is $h$-midconvex; i.e., the inequality

$$
f\left(\frac{x+y}{2}\right) \leq h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)[f(x)+f(y)]
$$

holds for all $x, y \in I$.
Proof. The first direction follows directly by definition of $h$-convexity. To prove the second direction, suppose on the contrary that $f$ is not $h$-convex. Then, there exists a subinterval $[x, y]$ such that the graph of $f$ is not under the chord joining $(x, f(x))$ and $(y, f(y))$; that is,

$$
f(t) \geq[f(y)-f(x)] h\left(\frac{t-x}{y-x}\right)+f(x)=L(t ; h)
$$

for all such $x, y \in I \cap J$. In other words, the function

$$
g(t)=f(t)-[f(y)-f(x)] h\left(\frac{t-x}{y-x}\right)-f(x), \quad t \in I
$$

satisfies $M=\sup \{g(t): t \in[x, y]\}>0$. Since $h(0)=0$ and $h(1)=1$, then $L(x ; h)=f(x)$ and $L(y ; h)=f(y)$, so that the $h$-cord $L$ agrees with $f$ at endpoints $x, y$. Thus, $g$ is continuous and $g(x)=g(y)=0$, direct computation shows that $g$ is also mid $h$-convex. Setting $c=\inf \{t \in[x, y]: g(t)=M\}$, then necessarily $g(c)=M$ and $c \in(x, y)$. By the definition of $c$, for every $p>0$ for which $c \pm p \in(a, b)$, we have $g(c-p)<g(c)$ and $g(c+p)<g(c)$, so that since $h(\alpha) \geq \alpha$, for all $\alpha \in(0,1)$ we have

$$
g(c-p)+g(c+p)<2 g(c)=\frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}} g(c) \leq \frac{1}{h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)} g(c),
$$

which contradicts the fact that $g$ is mid $h$-convex.
Corollary 2.4. Let $h: J \rightarrow(0, \infty)$ be a non-negative function such that $h(\alpha) \leq$ $\alpha$, for all $\alpha \in(0,1)$. Let $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{+}$be a nonnegative continuous function. $f$ is $h$-concave if and only if it is $h$-midconcave.

We often need to know how fast limits are converging, and this allows us to control the remainder of a given function in a neighborhood of some point $x_{0}$. So that, we need to extend the concept of continuity. Fortunately, in control theory and numerical analysis, a function $h: J \subseteq[0, \infty) \rightarrow[0, \infty]$ is called a control function if
(i) $h$ is nondecreasing,
(ii) $\inf _{\delta>0} h(\delta)=0$.

A function $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is $h$-continuous at $x_{0}$ if $\left|f(x)-f\left(x_{0}\right)\right| \leq h\left(\left|x-x_{0}\right|\right)$, for all $x \in I$. Furthermore, a function is continuous in $x_{0}$ if it is $h$-continuous for some control function $h$.

This approach leads us to refining the notion of continuity by restricting the set of admissible control functions.

For a given set of control functions $\mathcal{C}$ a function is $\mathcal{C}$-continuous if it is $h$ continuous for all $h \in \mathcal{C}$. For example the Hölder continuous functions of order $\alpha \in(0,1]$ are defined by the set of control functions

$$
\mathcal{C}_{H}^{(\alpha)}(h)=\left\{\left.h|h(\delta)=H| \delta\right|^{\alpha}, H>0\right\} .
$$

In case $\alpha=1$, the set $\mathcal{C}_{H}^{(1)}(h)$ contains all functions satisfying the Lipschitz condition.

Theorem 2.5. Let $(0,1) \subseteq J, h: J \rightarrow(0, \infty)$ be a control function which is super multiplicative such that $h(\alpha) \geq \alpha$ for each $\alpha \in(0,1)$. Let I be a real interval, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}(a<b)$ with $a, b$ in $I^{\circ}$ (the interior of $I$ ). If $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is non-negative $h$-convex function on $[a, b]$, then $f$ is $h$-continuous on $[a, b]$.

Proof. Choose $\epsilon>0$ be small enough such that $(a-\epsilon, b+\epsilon) \subseteq I$ and let

$$
m_{\epsilon}:=\inf \{f(x), x \in(a-\epsilon, b+\epsilon)\}
$$

and

$$
M_{\epsilon}:=\sup \{f(x), x \in(a-\epsilon, b+\epsilon)\}
$$

such that $h(\epsilon)=M_{\epsilon}-m_{\epsilon}$. If $x, y \in[a, b]$, such that $x=y+\frac{\epsilon}{|y-x|}(y-x)$ and $\lambda_{\epsilon}=\frac{|y-x|}{\epsilon+|y-x|}$. Then for $z \in[a-\epsilon, b+\epsilon], y=\lambda_{\epsilon} z+\left(1-\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) x$, we have

$$
\begin{gathered}
f(y)=f\left(\lambda_{\epsilon} z+\left(1-\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) x\right) \leq \lambda_{\epsilon} f(z)+\left(1-\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) f(x) \\
\leq \lambda_{\epsilon}[f(z)-f(x)]+f(x) \leq h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)[f(z)-f(x)]+f(x)
\end{gathered}
$$

which implies that $y=\lambda_{\epsilon} z+\left(1-\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) x$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(y)-f(x) \leq h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)[f(z)-f(x)] & \leq h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)\left(M_{\epsilon}-m_{\epsilon}\right) \\
& <h\left(\frac{|y-x|}{\epsilon}\right)\left(M_{\epsilon}-m_{\epsilon}\right) \\
& <\frac{h(|y-x|)}{h(\epsilon)}\left(M_{\epsilon}-m_{\epsilon}\right) \\
& =h(|y-x|) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since this is true for any $x, y \in[a, b]$, we conclude that

$$
|f(y)-f(x)| \leq h(|y-x|)
$$

which shows that $f$ is $h$-continuous on $[a, b]$ as desired.

Another Proof. Alternatively, if one replaces the condition $h(\alpha)+h(1-\alpha) \leq 1$ for each $\alpha \in(0,1)$ instead of $h(\alpha) \geq \alpha$ in Theorem 2.5. Then by repeating the same steps in the above proof, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(y)=f\left(\lambda_{\epsilon} z+\left(1-\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) x\right) & \leq h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) f(z)+h\left(1-\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) f(x) \\
& \leq h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) f(z)+\left[1-h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)\right] f(x) \\
\left(\text { since } h\left(1-\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)\right. & \left.\leq 1-h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)\right) \\
& =h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)[f(z)-f(x)]+f(x),
\end{aligned}
$$

which implies that $y=\lambda_{\epsilon} z+\left(1-\lambda_{\epsilon}\right) x$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(y)-f(x) \leq h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)[f(z)-f(x)] & \leq h\left(\lambda_{\epsilon}\right)\left(M_{\epsilon}-m_{\epsilon}\right) \\
& <h\left(\frac{|y-x|}{\epsilon}\right)\left(M_{\epsilon}-m_{\epsilon}\right) \\
& <\frac{h(|y-x|)}{h(\epsilon)}\left(M_{\epsilon}-m_{\epsilon}\right) \\
& =h(|y-x|) .
\end{aligned}
$$

Since this is true for any $x, y \in[a, b]$, we conclude that $|f(y)-f(x)| \leq h(|y-x|)$, which shows that $f$ is $h$-continuous on $[a, b]$. Surely, this is can be considered as an alternative proof of Theorem 2.5.

It's well known that if $f$ is twice differentiable then $f$ is convex if and only if $f^{\prime \prime} \geq 0$. In a convenient way Pinheiro in [29] proposed that $f$ is an $s$-convex (in the second sense) if and only if $f^{\prime \prime} \geq 1-2^{1-s}$. Indeed, Pinheiro presented a "proof" to her result, however we can say without doubt that she introduced some good thoughts rather than formal mathematical proof. Following the same way in [29] and in viewing the presented discussion in the introduction we conjecture that:

Conjecture 2.6. Let $h: J \rightarrow(0, \infty)$ be a non-negative function such that $h(\alpha) \geq$ $\alpha$, for all $\alpha \in(0,1)$, and consider $f: I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a twice differentiable function. A function $f$ is $h$-convex if and only if $f^{\prime \prime}(x) \geq 1-2 h\left(\frac{1}{2}\right)$.

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