RELATIVE HYPERBOLICITY AND BOUNDED COHOMOLOGY

IGOR MINEYEV AND ASLI YAMAN

ABSTRACT. Let Γ be a finitely generated group and $\Gamma' = \{\Gamma_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a family of its subgroups. We utilize the notion of $tuple(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ that makes the statements and arguments for the pair (Γ, Γ') parallel to the non-relative case, and define the $snake\ metric\ d_{\varsigma}$ on the set of edges of a simplicial complex. The language of tuples and snake metrics seems to be convenient for dealing with relative hyperbolicity.

For tuples, the properties of being finitely generated, finitely presented (cf. [28, 29]), of type \mathcal{F}_n , of type \mathcal{F}_n , and of having fine triangles are defined. Fine triangles are the ones that are "thin with respect to the snake metric". Call a pair (Γ, Γ') hyperbolic if there is a finitely generated tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ with fine triangles and with $X^{(1)}$ fine. We give a definition of relative hyperbolicity of Γ with respect to Γ' which slightly generalizes the definition of Bowditch, and show that this notion coincides with hyperbolicity of the pair (Γ, Γ') .

We describe the snake resolution $\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma')$, or the relative standard projective resolution. It is used to define both relative cohomology and relative bounded cohomology.

We generalize the argument in [22, 23] to show that if (Γ, Γ') is hyperbolic then $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V. The same holds for bounded $\mathbb{R}\Gamma$ -modules, bounded $\mathbb{C}\Gamma$ -modules, and Banach modules. Moreover, this statement extends to several characterizations of hyperbolicity of the pair (Γ, Γ') .

A classifying space (Y, Y') for a pair (Γ, Γ') is naturally defined. We prove that each non-zero real (relative) cycle of dimension at least 2 for a hyperbolic pair (Y, Y') has positive simplicial (semi)norm.

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1. Introduction.

Since the introduction of the notion of relative hyperbolicity by Gromov [17] there has been a lot of progress in the area [14, 15, 6, 29, 12, 31, 10, 13]. When dealing with relative hyperbolicity one is lead to work with the Cayley graph of Γ , and its coned-off graph defined by Farb [14], i.e. the graph obtained by coning-off left cosets of peripheral subgroups. One of the goals of this paper is to set up a convenient language to deal with relative hyperbolicity. This is of importance, since the proofs of theorems about relatively hyperbolic groups tend to be long and technical. It is especially so when one is considering relative hyperbolicity with respect to a family of subgroups, rather just to one subgroup. The following terms that we use in the paper seem to be convenient: fine triangle, snake metric, tuple, hyperbolic tuple, hyperbolic pair, ideal complex, ideal tuple. In the homological part of the paper, the snake resolution and the relative cone are used. Those are relative versions of, respectively, a resolution and a cone.

We propose a natural framework to deal with relative hyperbolicity: a graph tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{V}')$. Here Γ is a group, Γ' is a family of its subgroups, \mathcal{G} is a graph, and \mathcal{V}' is a distinguished set of vertices in \mathcal{G} . The vertices of \mathcal{V}' correspond to the peripheral subgroups, i.e. the conjugates of elements of Γ' . A priori we do not assume that Γ' is finite; this will be a consequence of other conditions. When the graph \mathcal{G} is replaced with a simplicial (or cell) complex, the notion of a graph tuple generalizes to a tuple.

Let \mathcal{E} be the set of edges in \mathcal{G} . We work with the path metric (= the word metric) d on \mathcal{G} , and introduce the snake metric d_{ς} on \mathcal{E} in 2.5. $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ is the graph obtained by taking \mathcal{E} as its vertex set and formally connecting e to e' by an edge if their d_{ς} -distance is at most L. When $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ is connected and locally finite, it plays the role of a Cayley graph of Γ .

Take two copies of an ideal triangle (i.e. a triangle with all its vertices at infinity) in a hyperbolic plane and identify their corresponding boundaries. The result is a 2-sphere with three punctures, and three cusps with respect to the hyperbolic metric induced from the metrics on the triangles. The universal cover of this space is the hyperbolic plane triangulated into ideal triangles, and we forget about the metric and remember only the simplicial structure. An ideal complex X associated with a hyperbolic pair (Γ, Γ') generalizes the above example. (See Theorem 41 and Definition 42.) The name comes from an important feature of this complex: its vertices exactly correspond to the left cosets of the peripheral subgroups, that is, all the simplices of X are "ideal". Analogously, one naturally talks about an ideal tuple. The name also reflects the fact that such a complex and a tuple are ideal for our purposes (this property is used in 10.1 and after).

The notion of fine triangles uses both metrics, as follows. Any geodesic (with respect to the word metric d) triangle in \mathcal{G} has a canonical map onto a tripod. We call a geodesic triangle in \mathcal{G} δ -fine if, for any two edges e and e' in the triangle sent to the same edge in the tripod, one has $d_{\varsigma}(e,e') \leq \delta$.

Throughout the paper we consistently use the prime ' for peripheral things, and "the snake" ς (\varsigma) for things "in between".

The use of tuples, the snake metric and the fine triangles property streamline the "relative language" and make statements and arguments about relative hyperbolicity parallel to those in the non-relative case. What before were statements about groups and spaces, now can be

easily translated to statements about tuples. The notion of tuple also allows for generalizations to spaces other than simplicial complexes.

Another advantage is that tuples allow defining the usual, i.e. non-relative, isoperimetric function, which is well known and understood, and to use it to describe hyperbolicity in the relative setting (see Definition 31, propositions 32 and 33). This also allows easy definition of higher-dimensional isoperimetric functions (in combinatorial, topological, or homological terms): just take the non-relative version as the definition and use it for relative things.

Many statements in this paper are parallel to the non-relative case (and this has been the goal), but their proofs are often not. The main reason is that one has to deal with locally infinite graphs, so usual finiteness considerations do not apply. To give a simple example, in a Cayley graph of a finitely generated group, it is the case that there are only finitely many edge loops of a given length, up to the group action. This property fails in the relative case for the coned-off graph, so finer arguments are often required.

One can naturally talk about finitely generated tuples, and more generally, tuples of type \mathcal{F}_n and of type \mathcal{F} (see 4.2). We say that a pair (Γ, Γ') is hyperbolic if there exists a finitely generated fine graph tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{V}')$ with fine triangles (Definition 38). This notion of hyperbolicity allows some peripheral subgroups to be finite. We show that this notion of hyperbolicity for pairs is equivalent to a version of Bowditch's relative hyperbolicity (Definition 35).

We describe the snake resolution $\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma')$ (= the relative standard projective resolution) and other notions (sections 7 and 8) and use them to define both relative cohomology and relative bounded cohomology.

Then we generalize the cohomological characterization of hyperbolic groups in [22, 23] to the relative case:

Theorem 59. Let Γ be a group and Γ' be a family of its subgroups. The following statements are equivalent.

- (a) (Γ, Γ') is hyperbolic as in 5.1.
- (b) There exists a finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function (for edge-loops), and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V.
- (b') There exists a finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function (for edge-loops), and the map $H_b^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V and all $n \geq 2$.
- (c) There exists a fine finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V.
- (c') There exists a fine finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ and the map $H_b^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V and all $n \geq 2$.
- (d) There exists a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function (for edge-loops), and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V.
- (d') There exists a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function (for edge-loops), and the map $H_b^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V and all $n \geq 2$.

- (e) There exists a fine tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V.
- (e') There exists a fine tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} and the map $H_b^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V and all $n \geq 2$.

Bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules in this statement can be replaced with bounded $\mathbb{R}\Gamma$ -modules, bounded $\mathbb{C}\Gamma$ -modules, or Banach modules.

We show that for hyperbolic pairs "the simplicial norm is indeed a norm":

Theorem 60. Let (Γ, Γ') be a hyperbolic pair and (Y, Y') be a classifying space for (Γ, Γ') as in 9.1. Then for any $k \geq 2$ and any non-zero $z \in H_k(Y, Y'; \mathbb{R})$, the (relative) simplicial (semi)norm of z is positive.

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2. Graphs and complexes.

2.1. Simplicial graphs. If \mathcal{G} is a graph, we denote its set of vertices by \mathcal{V} and its set of edges by \mathcal{E} . We will always assume in this work that no two edges in a graph have the same end points, i.e. that \mathcal{G} is a simplicial graph. Hence there exists, if any, a unique edge connecting any two vertices.

The valence of a vertex is the number (in $\mathbb{N} \cup \{\infty\}$) of edges containing this vertex. We denote by \mathcal{V}_{∞} the vertices of infinite valence.

The edges in \mathcal{E} , unless mentioned otherwise, are assumed to be non-oriented. For $e \in \mathcal{E}$ with vertices a, b we use the notations (a, b) for non oriented edge. In this notation the order of vertices is not important. For any adjacent vertices a, b, since there are no multiple edges, e = (a, b) is unique.

The edges of \mathcal{G} are assigned length 1. This determines the *length* of any simplicial path α in \mathcal{G} , denoted $\ell(\alpha)$, which the number of times it passes over edges. Let d be the path metric on \mathcal{G} , defined as the infimum of the lengths of the edge paths connecting two points in \mathcal{G} .

For $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$ we measure also the d-distance between e and e', considering them as subsets in the graph \mathcal{G} , i.e. $d(e_1, e_2) := \inf\{d(x_1, x_2) \mid x_1 \in e_1 \text{ and } x_2 \in e_2\}$. This is the same as the minimal distance between the end points of e_1 and e_2 . Similarly $d(e, y) := \inf\{d(x, y) \mid x \in e\}$. for $e \in \mathcal{E}$ and $x \in \mathcal{V}$.

In a graph, a *simple path* is an injective edge path and a ray is an infinite simple path. A *loop* is a closed simplicial path. A *circuit* is an injective loop.

Given a path α in \mathcal{G} we denote by $\mathcal{V}(\alpha)$ its set of vertices and by $\mathcal{E}(\alpha)$ its set of edges.

For a path α and two vertices a, b on α , $\alpha_{[a,b]}$ is the subpath of α connecting a and b, and if α is an infinite path starting at x we denote by $\alpha_{[a)}$ the subpath of α remaining after removing $\alpha_{[x,a]}$.

A geodesic path in \mathcal{G} is an injective simplicial path which has the shortest length among all the paths connecting its endpoints. We will always parameterize a path α by the interval

 $[0, \ell(\alpha)]$. For vertices $a, b \in \mathcal{V}$, Geod(a, b) will denote the set of all geodesic paths in \mathcal{G} going from a to b.

We say that two vertices $u, v \in \mathcal{G}$ are adjacent if they lie on a same edge, and that an edge e is incident to $x \in \mathcal{V}$ if x is an end point for e.

Let $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}$. We say that the pair (e_1, e_2) is admissible (or the edges e_1, e_2 are admissible) if e_1 and e_2 share a common vertex a. Clearly for $e \in \mathcal{E}$ the pair (e, e) is admissible. A sequence of edges e_0, \ldots, e_n in \mathcal{E} is admissible if each pair (e_{i-1}, e_i) is admissible. Note that with this definition it is possible in an admissible sequence to have edge repetitions and two admissible edges that are not consecutive in the sequence.

Given \mathcal{G} we define a graph \mathcal{G}^n as follows. $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}^n) := \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G})$ and distinct x, y in $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}^n)$ are connected by an edge if and only if either $(x, y) \in \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{G})$ or x, y lie in some circuit of length at most n. Clearly $\mathcal{G} \subseteq \mathcal{G}^n$.

2.2. **Complexes.** We will work in the category of simplicial complexes. If needed, the results of this paper can be stated in the more general category of combinatorial cell complexes, described as follows. A cellular map between cell complexes is *combinatorial* if it maps each open cell homeomorphically onto an open cell. A *combinatorial cell complex* is obtained inductively on dimension using combinatorial attaching maps (see for example [8, 1.8A]).

Given a simplicial complex X, \mathcal{G} will always denote the 1-skeleton of X, so accordingly, \mathcal{V} and \mathcal{E} will mean the sets of vertices and edges in X. In a simplicial complex, if x_1, \ldots, x_n are the vertices of an n-simplex, then (x_1, \ldots, x_n) denotes this simplex.

Given a simplex σ in X, the star of σ , $Star_X(\sigma)$, is the union of the interiors of the simplices of X having σ as a face and the closed star of σ , $\overline{Star}_X(\sigma)$, is the union of the (closed) simplices of X having σ as a face. The link $Link_X(\sigma)$ of σ in X is $\overline{Star}_X(\sigma) \setminus Star_X(\sigma)$.

2.3. **Angles.** Let \mathcal{G} be a graph. Given two admissible edges $e_1 = (a, b)$ and $e_2 = (a, c)$, the angle, ang_a(e_1, e_2), between e_1 and e_2 at vertex a is the length of a shortest path from b to c in $\mathcal{G} \setminus \{a\}$ ($+\infty$ if there are none).

We will frequently omit the subscript a since there is no ambiguity at which vertex the angle is defined.

One can similarly define the angle between two paths α_1 and α_2 sharing an endpoint a. Suppose $e \in \alpha_1$, $e' \in \alpha_2$ are the first edges on these paths sharing the vertex a. Then the angle, $\operatorname{ang}_a(\alpha_1, \alpha_2)$, between α_1 and α_2 at the vertex a, is $\operatorname{ang}_a(e, e')$. Given a path α connecting b, c in \mathcal{G} and a vertex a in α , the angle at the vertex a, $\operatorname{ang}_a(\alpha)$ is $\operatorname{ang}_a(\alpha_{[a,b]}, \alpha_{[a,c]})$. The maximal angle of α , maxang(α), is the maximum of the angles between pairs of consecutive edges of α .

The following remarks will be useful.

Proposition 1. Given three admissible edges e_1, e_2, e_3 all adjacent to a vertex a in a graph \mathcal{G} , one has

- $\operatorname{ang}_a(e_1, e_2) = \operatorname{ang}_a(e_2, e_1),$
- $\operatorname{ang}_a(e_1, e_3) \le \operatorname{ang}_a(e_1, e_2) + \operatorname{ang}_a(e_2, e_3).$

Proposition 2. Given $l \geq 2$, any circuit of length l has a maximal angle at most l-2.

Proof. If (e_1, e_2) is an admissible pair in the circuit, the circuit itself gives a path of length $\mu - 2$ connecting the end points of e_1, e_2 .

2.4. Thin triangles. We will say that \mathcal{G} has thin triangles if there exists a constant $\delta \geq 0$ such that all the geodesic triangles in \mathcal{G} are δ -thin in the following sense: if $[a,b] \in \text{Geod}(a,b)$, $[b,c] \in \text{Geod}(b,c)$, and $[c,a] \in \text{Geod}(a,c)$ for $a,b,c \in \mathcal{V}$, and if points $\bar{a} \in [b,c]$, $v,\bar{c} \in [a,b]$, $w,\bar{b} \in [a,c]$ satisfy

$$d(b, \bar{c}) = d(b, \bar{a}), \quad d(c, \bar{a}) = d(c, \bar{b}), \quad d(a, v) = d(a, w) \le d(a, \bar{c}) = d(a, \bar{b}),$$

then $d(v, w) \leq \delta$. Having thin triangles is equivalent to \mathcal{G} being Gromov-hyperbolic.

One can equivalently formulate this in terms of the *Gromov product* in (\mathcal{G}, d) which is defined by

$$(a|b)_c := \frac{1}{2} (d(a,c) + d(b,c) - d(a,b)), \qquad a,b,c \in \mathcal{G}.$$

 \mathcal{G} is hyperbolic if there exists a constant $\delta \geq 0$ such that for all $a,b,c \in \mathcal{V}$, if $[a,b] \in \text{Geod}(a,b)$, $[a,c] \in \text{Geod}(a,c)$ and if $u \in [a,b]$ and $v \in [a,c]$ satisfy $d(a,u) = d(a,v) \leq (b|c)_a$, then $d(u,v) \leq \delta$.

Given a geodesic $\gamma \in \mathcal{G}$, $\mathcal{V}(\gamma)$ and $\mathcal{E}(\gamma)$ denote the set of vertices and edges that occur in γ . The following lemma is a collection of known results proved and elaborated in different languages by people working on relative hyperbolicity. Here in order to complete the presentation we give an explicit proof of the statements.

Lemma 3. Let \mathcal{G} be a graph with the path metric d having δ -thin triangles. There exists a constant κ depending only on δ such that given vertices a, b, c, and geodesics $\alpha \in \text{Geod}(b, c)$, $\beta \in \text{Geod}(a, c)$ and $\gamma \in \text{Geod}(a, b)$, we have the following:

- (1) If $\operatorname{ang}_{z}(\alpha) > \kappa$ for some $z \in \alpha$ distinct from b and c, then $z \in \beta$ or $z \in \gamma$.
- (2) If $z \in \alpha$, $d(c, z) < (a|b)_c$ and $\arg_z(\alpha) > \kappa$, then $z \in \beta$.
- (3) If $\operatorname{ang}_c(\alpha, \beta) > \kappa$, then $c \in \gamma$.
- (4) If b = a i.e. γ is a null geodesic, then $\operatorname{ang}_c(\alpha, \beta) \leq \kappa$.

Proof. We set $\kappa = 100\delta + 100$

(1) We will show that if z is in α and not in β or γ then $\arg_z(\alpha) \leq \kappa$. Without loss of generality we suppose that $d(c,z) \leq (a|b)_c$.

Consider $x', x'' \in \mathcal{V}(\alpha)$ with $d(z, x') = d(z, x'') = 2\delta + 1$ and d(c, x'') < d(c, x'). If there are no such vertices then set x' = b and x'' = c. Similarly consider y', y'' on β with d(c, y') = d(c, x') and d(c, y'') = d(c, x''), if there are no such vertices then set y' = a and y'' = c. Note that $d(x'', c) = d(y'', c) \le (a|b)_c$.

Now by hyperbolicity we have $d(x'', y'') \leq \delta$, and if $\gamma'' \in \text{Geod}(x'', y'')$ then $z \notin \gamma''$, since otherwise one has either $d(z, x'') \leq \delta$, or x'' = c = z, depending on whether γ'' is an empty path or not. Either case gives a contradiction to the choice of x'', since $d(z, x'') = 2\delta + 1$ and $z \neq c \ (\notin \beta)$. Moreover, either $d(x', y') \leq \delta$ or there exist x_1, y_1 on γ such that $d(x', x_1) \leq \delta$ and $d(y', y_1) \leq \delta$.

In the first case pick $\gamma' \in \text{Geod}(x', y')$. Note that $z \notin \gamma'$, since otherwise either $d(z, x') \leq \delta$ or z = x' = b, depending on whether γ' is an empty path or not; either case gives a contradiction

with $d(z, x') = 2\delta + 1$ and $c \neq b \ (\notin \gamma)$. Consider the loop $\alpha_{[x'', x']} \cdot \gamma' \cdot \beta_{[y', y'']} \cdot \gamma''$ that has length at most $10\delta + 4$, containing z. We know that z does not belong twice to these loop. Hence we can find a circuit of length at most $10\delta + 4 \leq \kappa$ containing z, that controls the angle at z of α .

In the second case we consider the geodesic segments $\gamma_1 \in \text{Geod}(x', x_1)$ and $\gamma_2 \in \text{Geod}(y', y_1)$. Again we see that γ_1 and γ_2 do not contain z since otherwise we would have $d(z, x') \leq \delta$ or z = x' = b and $d(z, y') \leq \delta$ or z = y' = a, which, by the argument similar to the above, contradicts the choice of x' and y'. Now consider the loop $\gamma'' \cdot \alpha_{[x'',x']} \cdot \gamma_1 \cdot \gamma_{[x_1,y_1]} \cdot \gamma_2 \cdot \beta_{[y',y'']}$, which has length at most $22\delta + 8$. It does not pass through z twice and thus there is a circuit of length at most $22\delta + 8 \leq \kappa$ controlling the angle at z of α .

- (2) If $\operatorname{ang}_z(\alpha) > K$ then by the first part of the lemma we know that $z \in \beta \cup \gamma$. Clearly if $d(c,z) < (a|b)_c$ then $z \notin \gamma$.
- (3) In the above arguments we set c = z, and consider the vertices x', y' as in the proof of (1). We see that either the loop $\alpha_{[c,x']} \cdot \gamma' \cdot \beta_{[y',c]}$ that has length at most $5\delta + 2$ or the loop $\alpha_{[c,x']} \cdot \gamma_1 \cdot \gamma_{[x_1,y_1]} \cdot \gamma_2 \cdot \beta_{[y',c]}$ that has length at most $12\delta + 4$ does not pass through c twice. Hence $ang_c(\alpha,\beta) \leq 12\delta + 4 \leq \kappa$.

(4) is a direct corollary of (3). \Box

Corollary 4. Let \mathcal{G} be a graph with the path metric d having δ -thin triangles and $\kappa = \kappa(\delta)$ the constant given by Lemma 3. Let a, b, c be vertices in \mathcal{G} , $\alpha \in \text{Geod}(b, c)$, $\beta \in \text{Geod}(a, c)$ and $\gamma \in \text{Geod}(a, b)$, then we have

$$\max(\gamma) \le \max\{\max(\alpha) + \max(\beta) + 3\kappa, \arg_c(\alpha, \beta) + 2\kappa\}.$$

Proof. If $ang_z(\gamma) > \kappa$, then by Lemma 3(1) either $z \in \alpha$ or $z \in \beta$.

Suppose that $z \in \alpha$ and $z \neq c$, then $\operatorname{ang}_z(\gamma) \leq \operatorname{ang}_z([b,z]_{\alpha},[b,z]_{\gamma}) + \operatorname{ang}_z(\alpha) + \operatorname{ang}_z([c,z]_{\alpha},[z,a]_{\gamma})$. By Lemma 3(4) $\operatorname{ang}_z([b,z]_{\alpha},[b,z]_{\gamma}) \leq \kappa$. Moreover if $\operatorname{ang}_z([c,z]_{\alpha},[z,a]_{\gamma} > \kappa$, by (3) applied to $[c,z]_{\alpha}$ and $[z,a]_{\gamma}$ instead of α,β says that $z \in \beta$. Thus $\operatorname{ang}_z([c,z]_{\alpha},[z,a]_{\gamma} \leq \operatorname{ang}_z([c,z]_{\alpha},[c,z]_{\beta}) + \operatorname{ang}_z(\beta) + \operatorname{ang}_z([a,z]_{\gamma},[a,z]_{\beta})$. Again Lemma 3(4) gives that $\operatorname{ang}_z([c,z]_{\alpha},[c,z]_{\beta})$ and $\operatorname{ang}_z([a,z]_{\gamma},[a,z]_{\beta})$ are both at most than κ . Thus we have $\operatorname{ang}_z(\gamma) \leq \operatorname{maxang}(\alpha) + \operatorname{maxang}(\beta) + 3\kappa$

If $z \in \beta$ and $z \neq c$, the same argument is applied by echanging the roles of α and β .

Now if z = c then $\arg_z(\gamma) \le \arg_z([z, b]_{\gamma}, \alpha) + \arg_z(\alpha, \beta) + \arg_z(\beta, [z, a]_{\gamma}) \le \arg_z(\alpha, \beta) + 2\kappa$ by Lemma 3(4).

The following result could also be rephrased in terms of the snake metric, which will be defined in the next subsection. Thus this lemma 5 says that two edges satisfying the conditions of the lemma remain at uniformly bounded distance from each other with respect to the snake metric.

Lemma 5. Let \mathcal{G} be a graph with the path metric d having δ -thin triangles and $\kappa = \kappa(\delta)$ the constant given by Lemma 3. Let $\alpha \in \text{Geod}(c,b)$, $\beta \in \text{Geod}(c,a)$, $\gamma \in \text{Geod}(a,b)$ and $x \in \mathcal{V}(\alpha)$, $e \in \mathcal{E}(\alpha)$, $x' \in \mathcal{V}(\beta)$, $e' \in \mathcal{E}(\beta)$ with $d(c,x) = d(c,e) = d(c,x') = d(c,e') < (a|b)_c$, and $\omega \in \text{Geod}(x,x')$. Then $\max (\omega) \leq \kappa$.

Moreover,

- if $x \neq x'$, then $\arg_x(\omega, e) \leq \kappa$ and $\arg_x(\omega, e') \leq \kappa$;
- if x = x', then $ang_x(e, e') \le \kappa$.

Proof. First suppose that $z \neq z'$. We prove that $\arg_x(\omega, e) \leq \kappa$. Now if $\arg_x(\omega, e) > \kappa$ then by Lemma 3(2) x belongs to a geodesic connecting x' to b. In particular the path $\omega \cdot [x, b]_{\alpha}$ is actually a geodesic. Now again since $\arg_x(\omega, e) > \kappa$, by Lemma 3(2), $x \in \beta$ or γ . In either case we have a contradiction since if $x \in \beta$ then x = x' and if $x \in \gamma$ then $d(c, x) \geq (a|b)_c$. Similarly one shows that $\arg_x(\omega, e') \leq \kappa$.

Now we suppose x = x'. If $\operatorname{ang}_x(e, e') > \kappa$ then again by Lemma 3(2), $x \in \gamma$ which gives the contradiction with $d(c, x) < (a|b)_c$.

It remains to prove that $\max(\omega) \leq \kappa$. If x = x', there is nothing to prove. So suppose $x \neq x'$. Note that if $\arg_u(\omega) > \kappa$ then $u \in [c, x]_{\alpha}$ or $[c, x']_{\beta}$. Let u, u' be the vertices in $\alpha \cap \omega$ and $\beta \cap \omega$ such that d(x, u) and d(x', u') are maximal with $\arg_u(\omega) > \kappa$ and $\arg_{u'}(\omega) > \kappa$.

Denote by α' the path $[c, u]_{\alpha}$. $[u, x]_{\omega}$. $[x, b]_{\alpha}$ and by β' the path $[c, u']_{\beta}$. $[u', x']_{\omega}$. $[x', a]_{\beta}$. Clearly these are geodesics in \mathcal{G} . Let $c' \in \alpha' \cap \beta'$ with $d(c, c') \leq d(c, x)$ maximal.

If $u \neq u'$ then by choice $\max \arg([u, u']_{\omega}) \leq \kappa$. Moreover, the argument as in the first and second paragraphs shows that if $u \neq u'$ then $\arg([u, u']_{\omega}, [u, x]_{\omega})$ and if u = u' then $\arg([u, x]_{\omega}, [u, x']_{\omega})$ are all at most κ .

It remains to show that $\max([u,x]_{\omega})$ and $\max([u,x']_{\omega})$ are at most κ . If for $z \in [u,x]_{\omega}$ distinct from u and x, we have $\max([u,x]_{\omega}) > \kappa$, then $z \in \beta'$ by Lemma 3(1). Since d(x',z) > d(u,x') > d(u',x'), $z \notin [u',x']_{\omega}$. Note also $z \notin [x',a]_{\beta}$, since if not $d(c,z) < d(c,x) = d(c,x') \le d(c,z)$. Finally we see that $x \notin [c,u']_{\beta}$, since x = u otherwise. This gives a contradiction.

2.5. The snake metric d_{ς} . Given a graph \mathcal{G} with its metric d, let e_0, \ldots, e_n be an admissible sequence in \mathcal{E} (see 2.1). The angle length of an admissible sequence is $\sum_{i=1}^n \operatorname{ang}(e_{i-1}, e_i)$. For an arbitrary $e, e' \in \mathcal{E}$ let $d_{\varsigma}(e, e')$ be the minimal angle length of an admissible sequence with $e_0 = e$ and $e_n = e'$. d_{ς} is a metric on the set \mathcal{E} . $(d_{\varsigma}$ takes infinite values on pairs that cannot be connected by an admissible sequence, but we will not bother calling d_{ς} a "generalized metric"). It seems reasonable to call d_{ς} a snake metric, and to call an admissible sequence (e_0, \ldots, e_n) with $d_{\varsigma}(e_i, e_{i+1}) = 1$ realizing the snake distance between e_0 and e_n a snake geodesic. The names come from the obvious picture one can draw to illustrate the definition.

Any edge path in \mathcal{G} can be viewed as an admissible sequence of edges, so the notion of angle length, or total angle, makes sense for paths in \mathcal{G} : this is the sum of all angles along the path.

Lemma 6. For any $e, e' \in \mathcal{E}$, $d(e, e') \leq d_{\varsigma}(e, e')$.

Proof. Given e, e' edges we consider an admissible sequence e_1, \ldots, e_n that realizes $d_{\varsigma}(e, e')$. If n = 1, then $d(e, e') = d_{\varsigma}(e, e') = 0$, so we assume $n \geq 2$. Since a subset of this sequence gives a simple path from an end point of e to an end point of e' we clearly have $d(e, e') \leq n - 2$. Moreover since for all i, $ang(e_{i-1}, e_i) \geq 1$ we also have $d_{\varsigma}(e, e') = \sum_{i=1}^{n} ang(e_{i-1}, e_i) \geq n - 1$. Thus $d(e, e') \leq d_{\varsigma}(e, e') - 1 < d_{\varsigma}(e, e')$.

2.6. Fineness and fineness at some scale. Fineness was introduced by Bowditch in [6] where he gives several equivalent formulations of the notion. A graph \mathcal{G} is fine if for any given integer n there is $K \in [0, \infty)$ such that for any edge e in \mathcal{G} the cardinality of the circuits of length n that contain e is at most K; or equivalently if for each vertex x in \mathcal{G} the set of vertices

adjacent to x in \mathcal{G} are locally finite in $\mathcal{G} \setminus \{x\}$. (Here $\mathcal{G} \setminus \{x\}$ is considered with its induced metric and a set $S \subseteq \mathcal{G} \setminus \{x\}$ is called *locally finite* if for all $x \in S$ and for all r > 0, the intersection of S with the ball centered at x of radius r in $\mathcal{G} \setminus \{x\}$ is finite.)

We consider a weaker version of the notion. A graph \mathcal{G} is fine at scale n if there is $K \in [0, \infty)$ such that for any edge e in \mathcal{G} the number of circuits of length at most n that contain e is at most K.

A collection \mathcal{A} of subgraphs of \mathcal{G} is edge-finite if $\{A \in \mathcal{A} \mid e \in L\}$ is finite for each edge $e \in \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{G})$. Let \mathcal{A} be a set of simple paths in \mathcal{G} . Consider the graph $\mathcal{G}[\mathcal{A}]$ with vertex set $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}[\mathcal{A}]) = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G})$, and edge set $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{G}[\mathcal{A}]) = \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{G}) \cup \{(x,y) \mid x,y \text{ are endpoints of } \alpha \in L\}$. The following has been proven in [6].

Lemma 7 ([6, Lemma 2.3]). If \mathcal{G} is a fine graph and \mathcal{A} is an edge-finite collection of simple paths of bounded length in \mathcal{G} , then the graph $\mathcal{G}[\mathcal{A}]$ is also fine.

The following proposition shows that hyperbolicity strengthens the condition of fineness at some scale to fineness at all scales. The proof of the result uses an adaptation of linear isoperimetric inequality using the thin triangle property for graphs (see for example [7], [8] Chapter III.H Proposition 2.7). A complete proof of the claim can be found in [6] as Proposition 8.1.

Proposition 8. For any $\delta \geq 0$ there exists $n = n(\delta) \geq 0$ such that if \mathcal{G} is a graph with δ -thin triangles, and it is fine at scale n, then \mathcal{G} is fine. Moreover $n(\delta)$ can be taken to be linear in terms of δ .

2.7. Fine triangles. Given a geodesic γ , $\mathcal{E}(\gamma)$ will denote the set of edges that occur in γ .

Definition 9. A graph \mathcal{G} is said to have fine triangles if there exists $\delta \in [0, \infty)$ depending only on \mathcal{G} with the following property. If $\alpha \in \text{Geod}(c, b)$, $\beta \in \text{Geod}(c, a)$, $e_1 \in \mathcal{E}(\alpha)$, $e_2 \in \mathcal{E}(\beta)$, and $d(c, e_1) = d(c, e_2) < (a|b)_c$, then $d_{\varsigma}(e_1, e_2) \leq \delta$.

While working on this paper we learned that Osin, in a language different from the one we use here, shows that the BCP property together with hyperbolicity ensures the fine triangles condition; he uses the metric in the Cayley graph and considers the fine triangles property up to an additional constant σ [28], so our notion of fine triangles is slightly stronger. It is well known in the theory of relatively hyperbolicity that the BCP property is equivalent to the fineness property of \mathcal{G} (under assumption of weak hyperbolicity) [12, 29].

Proposition 10. \mathcal{G} is a graph with thin triangles if and only if it is a graph with fine triangles.

Proof. We first show that having thin triangles implies having fine triangles. Thus we need to show that there exits a constant δ' depending only on the hyperbolicity constant δ such that if $\alpha \in \text{Geod}(c,b)$, $\beta \in \text{Geod}(c,a)$, $e \in \mathcal{E}(\alpha)$, $e' \in \mathcal{E}(\beta)$, and $d(c,e) = d(c,e') < (a|b)_c$, then $d_{\varsigma}(e,e') \leq \delta'$.

Let $x \in \mathcal{V}(\alpha)$ and $y \in \mathcal{V}(\beta)$ be respectively the end points of e and e' such that d(c,x) = d(c,y) = d(c,e). Clearly $d(c,x) = d(c,y) < (a|b)_c$. Let ω be a geodesic realizing d(x,y) which is at most δ by thinness. By Lemma 5 we see that $\max(\omega)$, $\max_x(e,\omega)$, $\max_y(e',\omega)$ are all at most κ . In particular, $d_{\varsigma}(e,e') \leq \max_x(e,\gamma) + \sum_{i=1}^n \max(e_{i-1},e_i) + \max_y(e',\gamma)$, where

 e_1, \ldots, e_n are the consecutive edges of γ viewed as an admissible sequence in \mathcal{G} . Thus we have $d_{\varsigma}(e, e') \leq \delta' := (\delta + 1)\kappa$, which is a constant depending only on δ .

The other direction follows from Lemma 6. Since $d(e, e') \leq d_{\varsigma}(e, e')$, the thin triangles condition follows from the fine triangles condition.

2.8. The edge graph $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$. Let \mathcal{G} be a graph. For $L \in [0, \infty)$, the L-edge graph, or the edge graph of \mathcal{G} , is the graph $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ defined as follows. The vertex set of $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ is \mathcal{E} . Two vertices $e, e' \in \mathcal{E}$ of $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ are connected by an edge in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ if $\{e, e'\}$ is an admissible pair of edges in \mathcal{G} with $d_{\varsigma}(e, e') \leq L$. The length of each edge (e_1, e_2) in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ is set to be 1, and $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ is given the corresponding path metric.

The language of edge graphs and snake metrics makes it easier to deal with relative hyperbolicity. An edge path γ in \mathcal{G} can be thought of as a sequence of edges in \mathcal{G} , therefore a sequence of vertices in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$; this allows working with the two metrics simultaneously. It might also happen that all the vertices of \mathcal{G} correspond to peripheral subgroups (see Section 5); as we will see later, such graphs \mathcal{G} are useful for giving a cohomological characterization of relative hyperbolicity. The language of edge graphs can be conveniently used in this case. All the known results about relative hyperbolicity can be equivalently restated in this language.

An L-graph is generally neither connected nor locally finite. However, the following lemmas give sufficient hypotheses for this to hold.

Lemma 11. If G is a graph fine at scale L+2, then the balls in the edge graph G_L^{ς} are uniformly finite.

Proof. It suffices to prove that the valence of vertices in connected components of $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ are uniformly bounded. Let e be a vertex in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$. If e' is a vertex adjacent to e in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$, then by definition there is an admissible sequence of edges e_i with $e_0 = e$ and $e_n = e'$ such that $d_{\varsigma}(e, e') = \sum_{i=1}^n \arg(e_{i-1}, e_i) \leq L$. In particular $\arg(e_{i-1}, e_i) \leq L$ for all i. Since \mathcal{G} is fine at scale L, there is a constant K independent of the choice of e_i such that there are at most K circuits in \mathcal{G} of length L + 2 containing e_i , hence at most KL possibilities for e'.

Lemma 12. If \mathcal{G} is a graph with δ -fine triangles and it is fine at scale $\delta + 2$, then Geod(u, v) is finite for all $u, v \in \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G})$.

Proof. Suppose \mathcal{G} has δ -fine triangles. For edges e, e' on geodesics $\alpha, \beta \in \text{Geod}(u, v)$ with d(u, e') = d(u, e) we have $d_{\varsigma}(e, e') \leq \delta$. Consider the δ -graph $\mathcal{G}^{\varsigma}_{\delta}$. Clearly any such two edges e, e' are on a same connected component of $\mathcal{G}^{\varsigma}_{\delta}$. Since \mathcal{G} is fine at scale $\delta + 2$, by Lemma 11 we obtain that $\mathcal{G}^{\varsigma}_{\delta}$ is uniformly locally finite, hence there are only finitely many such pairs of edges $\{e, e'\}$. In particular, the number of such edges depends only on δ since the bounds on the cardinality of the balls are uniform.

Given a vertex v in \mathcal{G} and an edge graph $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$, we denote by $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ the full subgraph of $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ whose vertices are all the edges in \mathcal{G} containing v, i.e in $\overline{Star}_{\mathcal{G}}(v)$.

Lemma 13. Let X be a simplicial complex with the following properties.

- X is simply connected.
- $X \setminus \{v\}$ is connected for each $v \in \mathcal{V} = X^{(0)}$.

Then for all $L \geq 1$, $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ is connected for all $v \in \mathcal{V}$. In particular if \mathcal{G} is the 1-skeleton of X then the edge graph $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ is connected.

Proof. Given an admissible pair of edges e = (v, x), e' = (v, y) in \mathcal{G} , there exists a path α connecting x to y in $X \setminus \{v\}$. Since X is simply connected, we can assume that α lies in the full subgraph of \mathcal{G} with vertex set $Link_{\mathcal{G}}(v)$ (definition in 2.2). In other words, there exists an admissible sequence of edges $e = e_1, \ldots, e_n = e'$ such that $e_i = (v, x_i)$, where x_i are vertices of α in $Link_{\mathcal{G}}(v)$ and $ang(e_i, e_{i+1}) \leq 1$. Thus e_i and e_{i+1} are connected by an edge in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$, hence in $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$, for $L \geq 1$.

To see that $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ is connected it suffices to remark that \mathcal{G} is connected, and there is a path in \mathcal{G} connecting any two given edges. Thus we consider this path as an admissible sequence, and for each pair of edges that are consecutive in the sequence and incident to a vertex v we connect them in $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ to obtain the result.

2.9. Complexes associated to (Γ, Γ') . In the case when a group Γ is torsion-free, relatively hyperbolic with respect to a subgroup C and the subgroup admits a finite-dimensional classifying space, Dahmani showed the existence of a locally finite finite-dimensional contractible complex for Γ [11, Lemma 2.1, Definition 2.1, Theorem 2.1]. He also states in [11, Theorem 6.2], quoting an observation of Bowditch, that a similar argument gives, without the assumption on the subgroup, a complex which is locally finite everywhere except at the vertices, and whose vertex stabilizers are the conjugates of the subgroup C.

Below we exhibit a finite-dimensional contractible complex, associated to a group relatively hyperbolic with respect to a family of subgroups. The group is not assumed to be torsion-free and it acts with finite stabilizers of edges. Our construction uses the fineness property rather than the BCP property. The existence of such a complex is independent of the group structure; it can be constructed using only the fineness property and hyperbolicity for a given graph.

Definition 14. Let \mathcal{G} be a fine graph with δ -thin triangles, and μ be a constant. A μ -path in \mathcal{G} is a path in \mathcal{G} whose both maximal angle and length are at most μ .

To each subset $S \subseteq \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G})$ of cardinality n+1 such that any pair of its points can be joined by a geodesic μ -path in \mathcal{G} , associate an n-simplex $\sigma(S)$.

The complex associated to \mathcal{G} and μ , $X = X(\mathcal{G}, \mu)$, is the one obtained from this set of simplices by gluing along the face maps $\sigma(S) \hookrightarrow \sigma(T)$ that correspond to inclusions $S \subseteq T$.

Note that there is a natural bijection between the 0-skeleta of \mathcal{G} and of X, so we will always identify them. Also there is a natural injection of \mathcal{G} into the 1-skeleton of X.

The above definition of X can be equivalently restated as follows. First one defines the graph \mathcal{G}_0 by taking $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G})$ as the vertex set and by connecting two vertices by an edge whenever they can be joined by a geodesic μ -path in \mathcal{G} . Then inductively on $n \geq 2$ glue an n-simplex for each subgraph of \mathcal{G}_0 with n+1 vertices which is a complete graph.

Recall that we write (a_1, \ldots, a_n) to refer to the simplex $\sigma(\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\})$ in X. For the rest of the section d will denote the path metric on \mathcal{G} . Let $\kappa = 100\delta + 100$ be the constant given by Lemma 3. For each edge e = (a, b) in the 1-skeleton $X^{(1)}$ of X, a geodesic μ -path in \mathcal{G} connecting a to b will be referred to as a geodesic representing e in \mathcal{G} .

Lemma 15. Given $a, b \in \mathcal{V}(X)$ connected by an edge in X, there are only finitely many $c \in \mathcal{V}(X)$ connected both to a and to b by edges in X.

Proof. Let $c \in \mathcal{V}(X)$ be connected to a and b by edges in $X^{(1)}$ and let α , β and γ be geodesics representing in \mathcal{G} the edges (b, c), (a, c) and (a, b), respectively.

We first show that α , β , γ can be chosen so that $\operatorname{ang}_c(\alpha, \beta)$, $\operatorname{ang}_b(\alpha, \gamma)$ and $\operatorname{ang}_a(\beta, \gamma)$ are all at most $\lambda = \max\{\mu, \kappa\}$. Indeed, if $\operatorname{ang}_c(\alpha, \beta) > \kappa$ then by Lemma 3(3) we have $c \in \gamma$. Thus we can let $\alpha = [c, a]_{\gamma}$ and $\beta = [c, b]_{\gamma}$ be geodesics representing in \mathcal{G} the edges (a, c) and (b, c) of $X^{(1)}$.

Now since the maximal angle of γ is at most μ , we have the required result as follows. If e, e' are two edges lying on any of the geodesics representing the edges (b, c), (a, c) and (a, b) and chosen as above, then they satisfy $d_{\varsigma}(e, e') \leq 2\lambda^2$, since the representing geodesics provide admissible sequences between them. Hence they all lies in a ball of the L-edge graph $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ where $L > 2\lambda^2$. This completes the proof since the balls in the L-edge graph are finite by Lemma 11.

In particular we obtain the following results.

Corollary 16. If K is a subgraph of $X^{(1)}$ and K is complete, then $\mathcal{V}(K)$ is finite.

Corollary 17. Given an edge e in X, there are only finitely many simplices in X that contain e. In particular X is finite dimensional.

We prove that X is contractible using a significant modification of the argument used by Rips in the non-relative (hyperbolic) case and an adaptation of Dahmani's Rips complex construction [11] for the relatively hyperbolic case.

Lemma 18. Let K be a finite subcomplex of X. Given an edge e = (x, y) in K, let α be a geodesic representing in \mathcal{G} the edge e and suppose that there exists $z \in \mathcal{V}(\alpha)$ such that $\operatorname{ang}_z(\alpha) > \kappa$. Choose z so that d(z, x) is minimal among all $z \in \mathcal{V}(\alpha)$ satisfying $\operatorname{ang}_z(\alpha) > \kappa$. Then K is homotopic in X to a subcomplex K' of X with $\mathcal{V}(K') = \mathcal{V}(K) \cup \{z\}$ and $\mathcal{E}(\overline{Star}_{K'}(x)) = (\mathcal{E}(\overline{Star}_K(x)) \setminus \{e\}) \cup \{(x, z)\}$.

This lemma says that we can homotop K to another subcomplex where the edge e of K is replaced by two edges (x, z) and (z, y).

Proof. Note first that (x, y, z) is a 2-simplex of X; we denote it s. For all $w \neq z$ in $X^{(0)}$, if (x, y, w) is a 2-simplex in X, then (x, y, w, z) is a 3-simplex in X. Indeed, if β and γ are geodesics in \mathcal{G} representing the edges (x, w) and (w, y), respectively, then since $\operatorname{ang}_z(\alpha) > \kappa$, by Lemma 3(1) $z \in \beta$ or $z \in \gamma$. Thus there is a geodesic μ -path, namely a subsegment of β or γ , connecting z to w. In other words, $\overline{Star}_X(e) = \overline{Star}_X(s)$.

When $z \notin K$, let N(s) be the complex whose simplices are $(z, x = a_1, y = a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_n)$ whenever $(x = a_1, y = a_2, a_3, \ldots, a_n)$ is a simplex in $\overline{Star}_K(e)$. The remark above shows that N(s) is indeed a subcomplex of X. When $z \in K$ we set $N(s) := \overline{Star}_K(e)$. Denote $K' := (K \cup N(s)) \setminus Star_X(e)$ and $M := N(s) \setminus Star_X(e)$. Thus $K' = (K \setminus Star_K(e)) \cup M$. We claim that M and $\overline{Star}_K(e)$ are homotopic in X, which would imply that K and K' are

homotopic. By definition $\overline{Star}_K(e) = N(s) \setminus Star_X(z)$. So we will show that the inclusions of $\overline{Star}_K(e)$ and M in N(s) are homotopic in X by proving that they are all null-homotopic in X.

By definition when $z \notin K$, N(s) can be seen as the complex obtained by coning off all simplices of the subcomplex $\overline{Star}_K(e)$ to z, hence both N(s) and $\overline{Star}_K(e)$ are null-homotopic since they can be contracted to z in X. When $z \in K$, this statement is true by definition.

To see that M is null-homotopic we first note that each simplex in M contains either the edge (x,z) or (y,z). Now we run induction on the dimension of M. Let σ be a simplex of maximal dimension in M. If σ has dimension 1 then M is the union of edges (x,z) and (z,y) hence contractible on z. For higher dimension n we consider $\overline{M \setminus \sigma}$, whose simplices contain either (x,z) or (y,z), and we contract σ onto $\sigma \cap \overline{(M \setminus \sigma)}$. This intersection is contained in the boundary of σ and has dimension n-1. We perform this for each maximal simplex of highest dimension in M, and apply the induction hypothesis to prove the claim.

Theorem 19. Let $\kappa = 100\delta + 100$ be the constant given by Lemma 3. If $\mu \geq 3\kappa$ then the complex $X = X(\mathcal{G}, \mu)$ is contractible.

Proof. It suffices to take any finite subcomplex K of X and to show that it is contractible in X. Fix a base point $v \in \mathcal{V}(K)$. Let x be a vertex in K maximizing the distance in \mathcal{G} of v to vertices of K, i.e l := d(v, x) is maximal. We argue by induction on l. At each induction step we apply the same argument to each x that maximize d(x, v), in order to decrease l. Since K is finite, at each step there are only finitely many such x.

For l=1, let $x \in \mathcal{V}(K)$ be such that d(x,v)=1. Now for all $y \in \mathcal{V}(K)$ distinct from v, d(y,v)=1 since d(x,v) is maximal. Since K is finite it is contractible to v in finitely many steps.

Suppose $l \geq 1$. Consider a geodesic γ in \mathcal{G} connecting x to v and the vertex $u \in \gamma$ such that either

- $d(u,x) = \mu/2$ with maxang $([x,u]_{\gamma}) \leq \kappa$ and ang $_u(\gamma) \leq \kappa$, or
- $d(u,x) \le \mu/2$ and d(u,x) is minimal among all u satisfying $ang_u(\gamma) > \kappa$.

Note that by definition there exists an edge in X connecting x to u, since $[x, u]_{\gamma}$ is a μ -path. We want to contract x to u. We must check that for each edge (x, y) in K, there is a simplex (x, y, u) in X, i.e that y and u are connected by an edge in X.

Let α be a geodesic μ -path representing (x, y) in \mathcal{G} . Suppose there is $z \in \mathcal{V}(\alpha)$ with $\operatorname{ang}_z(\alpha) > \kappa$; we pick z so that d(z, x) minimal among all such z. Then by Lemma 18, K can be homotoped to another complex K' with

$$\mathcal{V}(K') = \mathcal{V}(K) \cup \{z\}$$
 and $\mathcal{E}(\overline{Star}_{K'}(x)) = (\mathcal{E}(\overline{Star}_{K}(x)) \setminus \{e\}) \cup \{(x,z)\}.$

Since by our choice $\max ([x,z]_{\alpha}) \leq \kappa$, the edge (x,z) is represented by a geodesic with angles at most κ . Moreover if β is a geodesic connecting y to v, since $\arg_z(\alpha) > \kappa$ we see by Lemma 3(1) that either $z \in \beta$, hence $d(z,v) < d(v,y) \leq d(v,x) = l$, or $z \in \gamma$, hence d(z,v) < d(v,x) = l.

Repeating this argument finitely many times (there are only finitely many edges adjacent to x in K) for each new complex, i.e replacing an edge (x, y) whose geodesic representative has angles at most κ by the procedure described above we obtain a complex, that we continue to

denote by K, for which all the edges adjacent to x have geodesic representatives in \mathcal{G} with maximal angle at most κ . Clearly the final complex K might have more vertices than the initial one, but it remains finite. Moreover, the maximal distance l of vertices of K to v and the set of vertices that realize the maximal distance to v in both complexes remain the same. We therefore suppose that in K all the edges adjacent to x can be represented by geodesics paths with maximal angles at most κ and length at most μ . We first note that $\arg_x(\alpha, \gamma) \leq \kappa$. Indeed, if not, by Lemma 3(3), $x \in \beta$. Since $d(y,v) \leq d(x,v)$, we must have x = y, which contradicts the choice of y. We treat the two possible cases for the choice of u separately.

Case I $d(u, x) = \mu/2$ with maxang $([x, u]_{\gamma}) \le \kappa$ and ang $u(\gamma) \le \kappa$.

By thin triangles condition on \mathcal{G} we have either $d(u,q) \leq \delta$ for some $q \in \alpha$ with d(x,q) = d(x,u) or $d(u,p) \leq \delta$ for some $p \in \alpha$ with d(v,q) = d(v,u). In the first case, $d(y,u) \leq \mu - \mu/2 + \delta \leq \mu$. In the second case, $d(v,x) \leq d(v,y) - d(y,p) + \delta + \mu/2 \leq d(v,x) - d(y,p) + \delta + \mu/2$. Thus $d(y,u) \leq d(y,p) + \delta \leq \mu/2 + 2\delta \leq \mu$.

We want to find a geodesic in \mathcal{G} connecting y to u with maximal angle at most μ . Let β' a geodesic path connecting u, y in \mathcal{G} . If $\max(\beta') \leq \kappa(\leq \mu)$ then we have the required result. So suppose there is a point p on β' with $\arg_p(\beta') > \kappa$, hence by Lemma 3(1) we would have $p \in [y, x]_{\alpha}$ or $p \in [u, x]_{\gamma}$. Denote p_1 the furthest point from y on $\beta' \cap \alpha$ with $\arg_{p_1}(\beta') > \kappa$, and p_2 be the furthest point from u on $\beta' \cap \gamma$ with $\arg_{p_2}(\beta') > \kappa$. We prove that $[y, p_1]_{\alpha} \cdot [p_1, p_2]_{\beta'} \cdot [p_2, u]_{\gamma}$ is a geodesic with required properties. First, $\max([y, p_1]_{\alpha}) \leq \kappa$ and $\max([p_2, u]_{\gamma}) \leq \kappa$ by hypothesis. Assume $p_1 \neq p_2$. By the choice of p_1 and p_2 we have $\arg_p([p_1, p_2]_{\beta'}) \leq \kappa$. Moreover, $\arg_{p_1}([y, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, p_2]_{\beta'}) \leq \arg_{p_1}(\alpha) + \arg_{p_1}([x, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, p_2]_{\beta'})$, but $\arg_{p_1}([x, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, p_2]_{\beta'}) \leq \kappa$, since if not, by Lemma 3(2), $p_1 \in [x, p_2]_{\gamma}$, and hence $p_1 = p_2$ by the definition of p_2 , which contradicts the assumption $p_1 \neq p_2$. Thus we have $\arg_{p_1}([y, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, p_2]_{\beta'}) \leq 2\kappa$. Similarly $\arg_{p_2}([u, p_2]_{\gamma}, [p_1, p_2]_{\beta'}) \leq \arg_{p_2}(\gamma) + \arg_{p_2}([x, p_2]_{\gamma}, [p_1, p_2]_{\beta'}) \leq 2\kappa$. If $p_1 = p_2$ then $[p_1, p_2]_{\beta'}$ is a null path and we have $\arg_{p_1}([x, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, x]_{\gamma}) \leq \kappa$ by Lemma 3(4), hence $\arg_{p_1}([y, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, u]_{\gamma}) \leq \arg_{p_2}(\alpha) + \arg_{p_1}([x, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, x]_{\gamma}) \leq \kappa$ by Lemma 3(4), hence $\arg_{p_1}([y, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, u]_{\gamma}) \leq \arg_{p_2}(\alpha) + \arg_{p_1}([x, p_1]_{\alpha}, [p_1, x]_{\gamma}) + \arg_{p_1}(\gamma) \leq 3\kappa$.

Case II $d(u,x) \le \mu/2$ and d(u,x) is minimal among all u satisfying $\arg_u(\gamma) > \kappa$.

Since $\arg_u(\gamma) > \kappa$, we have either $u \in \alpha$, in which case $d(y, u) \leq \mu$ and the geodesic $[y, u]_{\alpha}$ satisfies the properties required by hypothesis, or $u \in [y, v]_{\beta}$ and $d(y, u) \leq d(x, u) \leq \mu$ since $d(x, v) \geq d(y, v)$. The same argument as in Case I works to find a geodesic with all angles at most μ .

In either case, moving x to u defines a homotopy of K onto another finite complex that does not contain x. If $\{x_i\}_{i=1,\dots,r}$ are the vertices of K that realize the maximal distance l, the same argument can be applied to each x_i consecutively to decrease l.

3. Group actions on graphs and complexes

3.1. Finitely generated actions. Given a group Γ , let \mathcal{G} be a graph with a simplicial Γ -action. This is equivalent to saying that Γ acts on \mathcal{G} by isometries with respect to the word metric d.

Definition 20. The action of Γ on \mathcal{G} is finitely generated, or is an \mathcal{F}_1 -action, if the following properties hold.

• G is connected.

- $\mathcal{G} \setminus \{v\}$ is connected for each $v \in \mathcal{V}$.
- There are only finitely many Γ -orbits in \mathcal{V} and in \mathcal{E} .
- The stabilizers of the edges in \mathcal{E} are finite.

Lemma 21. If the action of a group Γ on a graph \mathcal{G} is finitely generated, then \mathcal{G} is fine at scale n, as in 2.6, if and only if there are only finitely many orbits of circuits of length at most n in \mathcal{G} .

Proof. Suppose \mathcal{G} is fine at scale n and there are infinitely many circuits l_i of length $m \leq n$ in different orbits in \mathcal{G} . Since there are only finitely many Γ -orbits in \mathcal{E} , without loss of generality we can assume that the loops are all distinct and that they all contain a fixed edge e. This contradicts fineness at scale n.

For the other direction, suppose there are only finitely many orbits of circuits of length at most n in \mathcal{G} . If there are distinct circuits l_i of length $m \leq n$ all containing an edge e, we can suppose after passing to a subsequence that $l_i = \gamma_i l$ for $\gamma_i \in \Gamma$ all distinct, and hence $e = \gamma_i e'$, where e' is an edge in l. This contradicts the fact that the stabilizers of edges are finite in \mathcal{G} . \square

A pair stabilizer is the intersection of the stabilizers of two distinct vertices. The following lemma is proved in [6]. It shows that in a fine graph, the finite edge stabilizers condition can be replaced by finite pair stabilizers.

Lemma 22 ([6, Lemma 4.3]). If the action of a group Γ on a fine graph \mathcal{G} is finitely generated then all the pair stabilizers are finite.

Recall that for $v \in \mathcal{V}$, $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ is the full subgraph of $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ whose vertices are all the edges in \mathcal{G} incident to v.

Lemma 23. If the action of a group Γ on the graph \mathcal{G} is finitely generated, then for any $L \geq 0$, Γ acts on the edge graph $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ by isometries with the following properties.

- There are only finitely many orbits of vertices in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$.
- The stabilizers of the vertices and the edges in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ are finite.
- For each $v \in \mathcal{V}$, its stabilizer Stab(v) acts on $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ with finite quotient.

Proof. Since Γ acts on \mathcal{G} by isometries, it clearly also acts on an L-graph $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ by isometries. Moreover, since there are only finitely many orbits of edges in \mathcal{G} , there are only finitely many orbits of vertices in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$. By definition, the stabilizers of vertices in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ are finite. Now if the stabilizer of an edge (e, e') in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ was infinite, then the stabilizers of the edges $e, e' \in \mathcal{G}$ would be infinite, which would give a contradiction.

For all $v \in \mathcal{V}$, $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ is invariant under Stab(v). Suppose this action does not have finite quotient. Then there exists an infinite sequence of vertices e_i in $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ in distinct Stab(v)-orbits. Since there are only finitely many Γ -orbits of vertices in $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$, we can suppose that $e_i = \gamma_i e$ for distinct $\gamma_i \in \Gamma$ and some vertex e in $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$. Moreover, after passing to a subsequence and translating by an element of Γ , we can also assume that $\gamma_i \in Stab(v)$, which gives a contradiction.

3.2. Finitely presented actions.

Definition 24. An action of Γ on a complex X is finitely presented, or is an \mathcal{F}_2 -action, if the following properties hold.

- The action of Γ on the 1-skeleton $X^{(1)}$ is finitely generated.
- X is simply connected.
- There are only finitely many orbits of 2-simplices.

Note that when X is a simplicial complex the last condition is equivalent to saying that there are only finitely many orbits of 3-circuits in X, hence by Lemma 21 equivalent to saying that $X^{(1)}$ is fine at scale 3.

We denote by \mathcal{G} the 1-skeleton and by $\mathcal{V}(X)$ the 0-skeleton of X.

Lemma 25. If the Γ -action on a simplicial complex X is finitely presented then for all L > 1the following hold.

- for all $v \in \mathcal{V}(X)$, $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ is connected,
- \$\mathcal{G}_L^{\sigma}\$ is connected, and
 \$\mathcal{G}_1^{\sigma}\$ is uniformly locally finite.

Proof. Lemma 13 implies the first and second statements since X is simply connected and $\mathcal{G}\setminus\{v\}$ is connected for each $v\in\mathcal{V}(X)$. Moreover \mathcal{G} is fine at scale 3, thus Lemma 11 says that balls in $\mathcal{G}_1^{\varsigma}$ are uniformly finite.

Lemma 26. If the Γ -action on a simplicial complex X is finitely presented, then for each $v \in \mathcal{V}$, its stabilizer Stab(v) is finitely generated.

Proof. Consider the edge graph $\mathcal{G}_1^{\varsigma}$ and the subgraph $Link_1^{\varsigma}(v)$ for $v \in \mathcal{V}(X)$. $Link_1^{\varsigma}(v)$ is connected locally finite by Lemma 25. Moreover, Stab(v) acts on $Link_1^{\varsigma}(v)$ with finite quotient and with finite edge stabilizers (Lemma 23), which completes the proof.

4. Tuples

4.1. Graph tuples and tuples.

Definition 27. A graph tuple is a list $(\Gamma, \Gamma', \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{V}')$ with the following properties.

- Γ is a group.
- $\Gamma' = \{\Gamma_i \mid i \in I\}$ is a family of subgroups of Γ , possibly with repetitions, i.e. we allow $\Gamma_i = \Gamma_j$ for some $i, j \in I$.
- \mathcal{G} is a graph with a Γ -action.
- \mathcal{V}' is a Γ -invariant subset of \mathcal{V} containing all the vertices of infinite valence in \mathcal{V} , i.e.
- Each $\Gamma_i \in \Gamma'$ is the stabilizer of some vertex $v_i \in \mathcal{V}'$, and $(v_i \text{ can be chosen for each } i)$ $i \in I$ so that) $\Gamma_i \mapsto \Gamma v_i$ is a bijection between Γ' and the set of Γ -orbits in \mathcal{V}' .

Definition 28. A tuple is a list $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ such that X is a simplicial complex and $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X^{(1)}, \mathcal{V}')$ is a graph tuple.

Any graph tuple is obviously a tuple. A priori we do not impose any finiteness conditions on Γ , Γ' , or Γ_i . We will work in the category of simplicial complexes, but these notions allow using other categories as well. If needed, similar definitions can be given for cell complexes, combinatorial cell complexes, topological spaces, metric spaces, etc.

4.2. Finiteness conditions.

Definition 29. A tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is finitely generated, or of type \mathcal{F}_1 , if the Γ -action on $X^{(1)}$ is finitely generated in the sense of Definition 20.

A tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is finitely presented, or of type \mathcal{F}_2 , if the Γ -action on X is finitely presented in the sense of Definition 24.

More generally, a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is of type \mathcal{F}_n for some $n \geq 2$ if

- the Γ -action on $X^{(1)}$ is finitely generated,
- $\pi_k(X) = 0$ for all $k \leq n-1$, and
- there are only finitely many orbits of k-cells for each $k \leq n$.

A tuple is of type \mathcal{F}_{∞} , if it is of type \mathcal{F}_n for any n. A tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is of finite type, or of type \mathcal{F} , if it is of type \mathcal{F}_{∞} and X is finite-dimensional.

These notions descend to pairs: a pair (Γ, Γ') is called *finitely generated*, *finitely presented*, of type \mathcal{F}_n , \mathcal{F}_{∞} , \mathcal{F} , if there exists a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ which has the respective property.

The above notion of finite presentation is an equivalent restatement of Osin's definitions [29]. (Γ, Γ') is finitely presented in the sense of Definition 29 iff Γ is relatively finitely presented with respect to Γ' in the sense of [29]. The following result, which is parallel to [29, Theorem 1.1], follows from the definition of a finitely presented tuple together with Lemma 26.

Theorem 30. If a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is finitely presented, then

- (a) Γ' is a finite family, and
- (b) each $\Gamma_i \in \Gamma'$ is finitely generated.
- *Proof.* (a) By definition there is a bijection between Γ' and the set of Γ-orbits in \mathcal{V}' , which is a finite set since there are only finitely many Γ-orbits in ($\mathcal{V}' \subset \mathcal{V}$ since the Γ-action on \mathcal{G} is finitely generated. (b) follows from Lemma 26, since each Γ_i is the stabiliser of some vertex.
- 4.3. Other conditions on tuples. A tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is said to have thin or fine triangles, if the 1-skeleton $X^{(1)}$ has, respectively, thin or fine triangles. A pair (Γ, Γ') has thin or fine triangles if there exists a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ which has, respectively, thin or fine triangles (see 2.4 and Definition 9). A tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is fine if $X^{(1)}$ is fine.
- 4.4. Isoperimetric functions for tuples. In a simply connected complex X, the area of a loop is the minimum number of times it passes over two-cells during a null-homotopy, minimum taken over all null-homotopies. For a loop l we denote its area by area(l).

Definition 31. Let $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ be a finitely presented tuple. A function $f : \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$ is an isoperimetric function for $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ if it is an isoperimetric function for X in the non-relative sense, i.e. it is a function such that the area of any loop in X of length at most l is at most f(l).

It is important in this definition that f take finite values; such a function f does not always exist. A finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ has a linear isoperimetric function in the above sense if and only if Γ has a linear relative isoperimetric function with respect to Γ' in the sense of [29]. The same applies to quadratic, cubic, polynomial, exponential, etc isoperimetric functions.

Proposition 32. Suppose a complex X admits a finitely presented action by a group Γ , then $X^{(1)}$ is fine if and only if there exists an isoperimetric function for X.

Proof. Denote $\mathcal{G} := X^{(1)}$ and suppose \mathcal{G} is fine. We set f(l) to be the maximal area of circuits of length l, which is finite, since by Lemma 21 for any given l there are only finitely many orbits of l-circuits in X. If α is a loop of length l in \mathcal{G} , it can be split α inductively into at most l circuits of length at most l. Since each circuit has area at most f(l), the area of α is bounded by lf(l), which implies that there is a well defined isoperimetric function.

For the other direction, first observe that there are only finitely many 2-cells containing any given edge in \mathcal{G} . Indeed, if there are distinct 2-cells c_i each containing a given edge e, since there are only finitely many orbits of two cells in X we can suppose after passing to a subsequence that $c_i = \gamma_i c$ for some γ_i , where γ_i are pairwise distinct. In particular, $\gamma_i e' = e$ for some $e' \in \mathcal{E}(c)$, which would give a contradiction with the fact that the stabilizers of edges are finite.

Now suppose that there is an isoperimetric function for X and that \mathcal{G} is not fine. Then there exist $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $e \in \mathcal{E}$ and an infinite sequence of distinct circuits l_i^1 of length n all containing e_1 . In particular area $(l_i^1) \leq f(n) < \infty$ for all i. After passing to a subsequence we can assume that for all i, area $(l_i^1) = m_1 \leq f(n)$. We argue by induction on the areas of l_i^1 . For each i consider m_1 2-cells that contract l_i^1 and the 2-cell c_i among them containing e. Now we consider the loops α_i in \mathcal{G} obtained from l_i^1 replacing e_1 by $c_i \setminus \{e_1\}$. By construction area $(\alpha_i) = m_1 - 1 < m_1$ and α_i contains all the edges of c_i distinct from e_1 . The loops α_i do not have to be circuits, however since l_i^1 are all distinct we can find, by reducing α_i , an infinite sequence of distinct circuits l_i^2 , each containing at least one edge of $c_i \setminus \{e_1\}$. Moreover since $c_i \setminus \{e_1\}$ has only finitely many edges we can suppose after passing to a subsequence that all these circuits l_i^2 contain the same edge e_2 and $e_1^2 = e_1^2 < e_1^2$. Now we repeat the argument this time for l_i^2 to obtain distinct circuits l_i^3 all containing an edge e_3 and with area $l_i^1 = e_1^2 < e_1^2$. This induction will give eventually an edge contained in infinitely many disctinct 2-cells, which is a contradiction by the first observation.

One can relax the above statement for a complex whose 1-sequeleton has fine triangles as follows.

Corollary 33. Suppose the Γ -action on a complex X is finitely presented and $X^{(1)}$ has δ -fine triangles. Then there exists k depending linearly on δ such that $X^{(1)}$ is fine at scale k if and only if there exists an isoperimetric function for X.

Proof. By Proposition 10 having fine triangles is equivalent to having thin triangles. Moreover the constants involving depend each other linearly. Now by Proposition 8 we see that $X^{(1)}$ is in fact fine.

Proposition 34. Suppose $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is a finitely presented tuple. Then it is fine and has fine triangles if and only if X satisfies a (combinatorial) linear isoperimetric inequality.

In the case of relative hyperbolicity, the linearity of relative isoperimetric function for relative presentations (rather than for tuples) was shown in [29]. The above proposition says that in our setting of tuples the word "relative" is unnecessary: we consider the usual non-relative notion of isoperimetric function on X. An advantage of this "tuple approach" is that the proof goes through just as in the non-relative case.

Proof of Proposition 34. By Proposition 32 the fineness of $X^{(1)}$ is equivalent to the existence of an isoperimetric function. It remains thus to verify that the fine triangle condition forces the isoperimetric function to be linear and vice-versa. Now by Proposition 10 having fine triangles is equivalent to having thin triangles. So clearly X has a linear isoperimetric function; see for example [8, Chapter III.H Proposition 2.7] or [7]. The converse follows, for example, as in [27] or [2, Chapter 2]. The proofs apply word-by-word.

5. Relative hyperbolicity.

Definition 35. Let Γ be a group and $\Gamma' = \{\Gamma_i \mid i \in I\}$ be a family of its subgroups. Γ is called relatively hyperbolic with respect to Γ' if there exists a graph K on which Γ acts such that the following conditions are satisfied.

- Γ is finitely generated.
- I is finite and each Γ_i is finitely generated.
- \bullet K is fine and has thin triangles.
- There are finitely many orbits of edges and each edge stabilizer is finite.
- There exists a Γ -invariant subset \mathcal{V}' such that $\mathcal{V}_{\infty} \subseteq \mathcal{V}' \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ and the stabilizers of vertices in \mathcal{V}' are precisely Γ_i and their conjugates.

In [6] Bowditch gave a combinatorial formulation of relative hyperbolicity for a group Γ and showed that it is equivalent to the original Gromov's definition [17]. It is assumed in [6] that the elements of Γ' are infinite subgroups, i.e. $\mathcal{V}' = \mathcal{V}_{\infty}$. Definition 35 is a slight generalization of Bowditch's relative hyperbolicity: we allow the elements of Γ' to be finite as well as infinite. The elements of Γ' and their conjugates will be called *peripheral subgroups*, similarly to the original definition.

We will refer to the graph \mathcal{K} given in this definition as an associated graph. Bowditch also shows that the condition that each Γ_i is finitely generated is equivalent to the condition that the associated graph \mathcal{K} has no cut vertices (which can be seen for example from Proposition 4.9 of [6], or by Lemma 3.1 of Part 2 in [34]). We however prefer giving a sketch of how to obtain a graph with no cut vertices assuming that stabilisers of vertices are finitely generated. The other direction can also be deduced from Theorem 26, since we show in the next section that relatively hyperbolic groups admit a complex as required in this Theorem (see Theorems 39, 41). We start with a graph \mathcal{K} given as in Definition 35 with vertex set \mathcal{V} . Generally the graph \mathcal{K} will have cut points. Suppose $v \in \mathcal{V}$ and denote $V_v(\mathcal{K})$ the vertices adjacent to v in \mathcal{K} . Now, Stab_Γ(v) acts on $V_v(\mathcal{K})$ with finite point stabilizers and finite quotient. Since all the stabilizers of vertices in \mathcal{K} are finitely generated, Stab_Γ(v) acts with finite quotient and finite edge stabilizers on a locally compact graph $\mathcal{H}(v)$ with $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{H}(v)) = V_v(\mathcal{K})$ and with $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{H}(v))/\operatorname{Stab}_{\mathcal{K}}(V)$ finite. We can repeat this construction Γ-equivariantly for all v in \mathcal{V} . Finally let \mathcal{H} be the graph with vertex set \mathcal{V} and edge set $\mathcal{E}(K) \cup \bigcup_{v \in \mathcal{V}} \mathcal{E}(\mathcal{H}(v))$. Thus $\mathcal{E}(\mathcal{H})$ is finite and \mathcal{H} has no cut vertices. Moreover it can be easily shown that the graph \mathcal{H} remains hyperbolic since we have added only finitely many edges to \mathcal{K} up to Γ -action, that \mathcal{H} is fine since for each vertex v the set $V_v(\mathcal{H})$ remains locally finite in $\mathcal{H} \setminus \{v\}$ (see definition of fineness in section 2.6), and satisfies all the other properties required by Definition 35.

Thus for the rest of the paper we will always additionally assume that a graph associated to a relatively hyperbolic group has no cut vertices.

Definition 36. Let μ be a constant. Given a group Γ which is hyperbolic relative to Γ' , let \mathcal{K} be an associated graph. For each Γ -invariant set $\mathcal{V}' \supset \mathcal{V}_{\infty}(\mathcal{K})$ of vertices in $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{K})$, let $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{V}', \mu)$ be the graph with vertex set $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{V}'$, in which two vertices are joined by an edge if they can be joined by a geodesic path in \mathcal{K} with both maximal angle and length at most μ .

Note that Γ acts on \mathcal{G} . The following theorem shows that this action can be induced on a nice graph tuple.

Theorem 37. Let Γ be a group hyperbolic relative to Γ' and K be an associated graph. There exists a constant $\mu_0 > 0$ (depending only on K and the action of Γ on K) such that for all $\mu > \mu_0$ and for any Γ -invariant set V' of vertices in V(K) containing $V_{\infty}(K)$, the graph tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', \mathcal{G}(K, V', \mu), V')$ is finitely generated, fine and with thin triangles.

Proof. Let v_1, \ldots, v_n be an orbit representative of finite valence vertices in $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{K})$. For each v_i choose two distinct vertices x_i, y_i in $\mathcal{V}_{\infty}(\mathcal{K})$. Let F be a finite subgraph of \mathcal{K} containing $\text{Geod}(v_i, x_i)$, $\text{Geod}(v_i, y_i)$ and $\overline{Star}(v_i)$ for all i. Since K is fine and thin triangles, the first two sets are finite by Lemma 12. Thus one can find a finite subgraph F. Now let η be a constant greater than the maximal over ang(e, e') where (e, e') admissible edge pairs lying in F. Note also that the choice of F depends only on K and the the action of Γ on K.

Set $\mu_0 \geq 100\eta$. We claim that for all $\mu \geq \mu_0$, $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{K}, \mathcal{V}', \mu)$ is connected, has no cut vertices. It is fine and has thin triangles. The action of Γ on \mathcal{G} admits finitely many orbits of edges and vertices, and stabilizers of edges in \mathcal{G} are finite, and hence finitely generated.

Let $x, y \in \mathcal{V}'$. Since \mathcal{K} is connected there is a geodesic path α connecting x to y in \mathcal{K} . Denote $x = v_1, \ldots, v_n = y$ the consecutive vertices of α , and $e_i = (v_i, v_{i+1})$ edges of α . For each v_i of finite valence, since v_i lies a Γ -translate of F, there exists a $x_i \in \mathcal{V}_{\infty} \subset \mathcal{V}'$ and a geodesic $[v_i, x_i]$ with length and maximal angle at most η such that $\arg_{v_i}(e_i, [v_i, x_i])$ and $\arg_{v_i}(e_{i+1}, [v_i, x_i])$ are at most η . For v_i of infinite valence set $v_i = x_i$ for the rest of the arguments.

Now by a simple argument we show that x_i and x_{i+1} are connected by an edge in \mathcal{G} . Indeed let κ be the constant given as in Lemma 3 depending only on δ , the constant of hyperbolicity of \mathcal{K} . By Corollary 4 if β is a geodesic path connecting x_i to v_{i+1} then maxang $\beta \leq \max([x_i, v_i]) + 3\kappa$. Now if γ is a geodesic path connecting x_i and x_{i+1} , then again by the same lemma, $\max \beta \leq \max\{\max(\beta) + \max([v_{i+1}, x_{i+1}]) + 3\kappa, \arg_{v_{i+1}}(\beta, [v_{i+1}, x_{i+1}]) \leq 2\eta + 6\kappa$. Thus x_i and x_{i+1} are connected by an edge e'_i in \mathcal{G} . Hence we found a path α' in \mathcal{G} , that is the concatenation $e'_1.e'_2...e'_n$, connecting x,y.

Note that this argument also shows that \mathcal{G} has no cut vertices. Indeed, given $x, y, z \in \mathcal{V}'$, there is a path connecting x and y in $\mathcal{K} \setminus \{z\}$. Let v_i its vertices and x_i as chosen above. By

the definition of the set F for all i one can take the vertices x_i in this argument distinct from z. Hence there exists geodesic path in $\mathcal{G} \setminus \{z\}$ connecting x to y.

If d and d_{μ} are the distances respectively in \mathcal{K} and \mathcal{G} , the same argument also shows that $d_{\mu}(x,y) \leq d(x,y)$, since the length of α' is at most n = d(x,y). Moreover if α' is a geodesic path in \mathcal{G} connecting x to y and e'_i are its consecutive edges then for all i there exists $\alpha_i \in \mathcal{K}$ geodesic path of length and maximal angle at most μ . Note that the concatenation $\alpha_1.\alpha_2...\alpha_n$ gives a path connecting x to y in \mathcal{G} of length at most $\mu d_{\mu}(x,y)$, and so $d(x,y) \leq \mu d_{\mu}(x,y)$. Hence $d_{\mu}(x,y) \leq d(x,y) \leq \mu d_{\mu}(x,y)$. In particular \mathcal{G} and \mathcal{K} are quasi isometric, and so \mathcal{G} has thin triangles.

Clearly there are only finitely many orbits of vertices in \mathcal{G} since $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{V}'$. Suppose that given x and y in \mathcal{V}' there exists a geodesic path α of length and maximal angle at most μ connecting x to y in \mathcal{K} . Then for any two edges e_1, e_2 on α $d_{\varsigma}(e_1, e_2) \leq \mu^2$. On the other hand since K is fine by Lemma 11 for all L > 0 the edge graph G_L^{ς} is locally finite. Thus there are only finitely many such edges e_1, e_2 up to Γ -action, hence only finitely many such x and y up to Γ -action. This implies that there are only finitely many orbits of edges in \mathcal{G} .

Now the finiteness of the stabilisers of edges in \mathcal{G} follows directly from 22. Indeed since \mathcal{K} fine and the action of Γ on \mathcal{K} is finitely generated, so all the pair stabilisers in $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{K})$, hence in $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{V}'$ are finite.

It remains to show that \mathcal{G} is fine. Consider the collection \mathcal{A} of simple paths in \mathcal{K} of length and maximal angle at most μ and the graph $\mathcal{K}[\mathcal{A}]$ (see 2.6). This collection is edge-finite. In fact the argument used in proving that there finitely many orbits of edges in \mathcal{G} , shows that all the edges lying on a geodesic path of length and maximal angle at most μ and containing a fixed edge e in \mathcal{K} lie in a ball of radius 1 centered at e in G_L^c where $L = \mu^2$. Thus there are only finitely many of them, and hence only finitely many geodesics path in \mathcal{A} containing all e. Thus by Lemma 7, $\mathcal{K}[\mathcal{A}]$ is fine. Clearly \mathcal{G} is a subgraph of $\mathcal{K}[\mathcal{A}]$, and is fine.

5.1. **Hyperbolic tuples.** We give a definition of relative hyperbolicity using tuples.

Definition 38. A tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is hyperbolic if

- it is finitely generated as in Definition 29,
- has fine triangles as in 4.3, and
- is fine as in 2.6, 4.3.

A pair (Γ, Γ') is called hyperbolic if there exists a hyperbolic tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$.

Note that Proposition 8 and Proposition 10 allow us to replace in this definition fineness by fineness at some scale, which is a priori a weaker condition.

Theorem 39. The following statements are equivalent.

- (a) (Γ, Γ') is a hyperbolic pair in the sense of Definition 38.
- (b) Γ is hyperbolic relative to Γ' in the sense of Definition 35.

Proof. By Proposition 10 having thin triangles is equivalent to having fine triangles, hence both definitions can be reformulated using either property. Then $(\mathbf{b}) \Rightarrow (\mathbf{a})$ follows from Theorem 37, and $(\mathbf{a}) \Rightarrow (\mathbf{b})$ by tracing definitions.

We now present two stronger, but equivalent, reformulations of hyperbolicity for pairs.

Theorem 40. A pair (Γ, Γ') is hyperbolic if and only if there exists a finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ which has a linear isoperimetric function (as in Definition 31).

Proof. This is Proposition 34 (which is proved just as in the non-relative case). \Box

5.2. The ideal complex. The second reformulation is in terms of a higher-dimensional complex X.

Theorem 41 (existence of ideal tuples). A pair (Γ, Γ') is hyperbolic if and only if there exists a hyperbolic tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} such that $\mathcal{V}(X) = \mathcal{V}'$. (See definitions 28, 29, 38.)

Definition 42. A tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is called an ideal tuple if it is as in Theorem 41, i.e. if it is hyperbolic, of type \mathcal{F} , and $\mathcal{V}(X) = \mathcal{V}'$. A complex X is called an ideal complex (for the pair (Γ, Γ')) if there exists an ideal tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$.

This name comes from the fact that the vertices of X exactly correspond to (the left cosets or conjugates of) the peripheral subgroups, i.e. the simplices in X are "ideal". This is a generalization of the geometric example described in the introduction.

Proof of Theorem 41. The "if" direction is obvious. For the "only if" direction, consider a graph tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', \mathcal{G}', \mathcal{V}')$ guaranteed by Theorem 37, so that $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}') = \mathcal{V}'$, \mathcal{G}' is fine and has δ-thin triangles for some δ. Let μ_0 be a constant given by Theorem 37 depending only on \mathcal{G}' and the Γ-action on \mathcal{G}' .

First consider for $\mu > \mu_0$ the graph $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{G}', \mathcal{V}', \mu)$, defined as in Definition 36. Note that $\mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathcal{V}(\mathcal{G}') = \mathcal{V}'$. By Theorem 37, the action of Γ on \mathcal{G} is finitely generated, \mathcal{G} is fine and has thin triangles.

Now consider the finite-dimensional simplicial complex $X = X(\mathcal{G}', \mu)$ constructed in 2.9. Note that X is constructed by gluing a simplex to each complete subgraph of $\mathcal{G} = \mathcal{G}(\mathcal{G}', \mathcal{V}', \mu)$, and $X^{(1)} = \mathcal{G}$. Theorem 19 says that for μ large enough ($\geq 3(100\delta + 100)$), X is contractible.

Set $\mu \geq \max\{3(100\delta + 100), \mu_0\}$. Now we know that X has thin triangles, since so does $\mathcal{G} = X^{(1)}$, and the action of Γ on \mathcal{G} is finitely generated. Thus to show that the tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is hyperbolic of type \mathcal{F} , it remains only to check that there are only finitely many orbits of i-cells for each i. Now Lemma 17 says that for each edge in \mathcal{G} there are only finitely many simplices containing it. This together with finitely many orbits of edges implies finiteness of orbits of i-cells for each i.

5.3. Reconstructing the Cayley graph of Γ .

Lemma 43. Let $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ be a finitely presented hyperbolic tuple and $\mathcal{G} := X^{(1)}$. Then for all $L \geq 1$ the edge graph $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ satisfies the following.

- For all $v \in \mathcal{V}$, $Link_L^{\varsigma}(v)$ is connected.
- $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ is connected.
- $\mathcal{G}_L^{\vec{\varsigma}}$ is uniformly locally finite.

Moreover Γ acts on $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ with finite quotient and finite edge and vertex stabilizers.

 $\mathcal{G}_L^{\varsigma}$ plays the role of a Cayley graph for $\Gamma,$ it is reconstructed from the tuple.

Proof. The connectedness follows from Lemma 25 and local finiteness from Lemma 11 since \mathcal{G} is fine, hence fine at any scale. The rest is obtained from Lemma 23 and the following remark. For any group action on a uniformly locally finite graph with only finitely many orbits of vertices, the action has finite quotient.

6. Relative straightening.

6.1. Notations. We work with a hyperbolic tuple $\mathcal{T} = (\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ and generalize the constructions of [22]. In our relative setting it is convenient to work both with vertices and edges, so definitions will modify accordingly. Since the action of Γ on X in general is not free, we will need to average over certain sets of vertices and edges; the hyperbolicity of the tuple will guarantee that we always average over finite sets.

For now, edges of \mathcal{G} are assumed to be non-oriented. $\mathcal{V}(\gamma)$ and $\mathcal{E}(\gamma)$ are, respectively, the set of vertices and edges in an edge path γ . For $v, w \in \mathcal{V}$, $W \subseteq \mathcal{V}$ and $t \in \mathbb{Z}$, denote

Geod
$$(v,W) = \bigcup_{w \in W} \operatorname{Geod}(v,w),$$

$$\mathcal{V}[v,W] := \bigcup_{\gamma \in \operatorname{Geod}(v,W)} \mathcal{V}(\gamma), \qquad \mathcal{E}[v,W] := \bigcup_{\gamma \in \operatorname{Geod}(v,W)} \mathcal{E}(\gamma).$$
will write $\mathcal{E}[v,w]$ and $\mathcal{V}[v,w]$ instead of $\mathcal{E}[v,\{w\}]$ and $\mathcal{E}[v,\{w\}]$

For a vertex w we will write $\mathcal{E}[v,w]$ and $\mathcal{V}[v,w]$ instead of $\mathcal{E}[v,\{w\}]$ and $\mathcal{E}[v,\{w\}]$.

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{V}[v,w;t] &:= \{ x \in \mathcal{V}[v,w] \mid d(v,x) = t \}, \qquad \mathcal{E}[v,w;t] := \{ e \in \mathcal{E}[v,w] \mid d(v,e) = t \}, \\ \mathcal{E}[v,W;t] &:= \{ e \in \mathcal{E}[v,W] \mid d(v,e) = t \} = \bigcup_{w \in W} \mathcal{E}[v,w;t]. \end{split}$$

Let $B^{\varsigma}(e,r)$ be the closed d_{ς} -ball at e of radius r with respect to the snake metric d_{ς} on edges. For an edge path γ we will denote $N(\gamma, r) \subseteq \mathcal{G}$ and $N^{\varsigma}(\gamma, r) \subseteq \mathcal{E}$ the r-neighborhoods of γ in the metrics d and d_{ς} , respectively.

For $v, w \in \mathcal{V}$, $e \in \mathcal{E}[v, w]$ and $r \in [0, \infty)$, the set

$$Fl(v,w,e;r) := \mathcal{E}[v,\mathcal{V};d(v,e)] \cap B^{\varsigma}(e,r) \subseteq \mathcal{E}[v,\mathcal{V}]$$

is the flower with respect to v, w, e, r. By Lemma 43, each ball $B^{\varsigma}(e, r)$, and hence each flower, is a finite set of edges, and for a fixed r, the cardinalities of the flowers are uniformly bounded. Moreover, since there are only finitely many Γ -orbits of edges, its cardinality is bounded by some $\omega = \omega(\mathcal{T}, r)$.

For a set S, $\mathbb{Q}S$ is the \mathbb{Q} -vector space spanned by S. The average of a finite subset $S' \subseteq S$ is the element of $\mathbb{Q}S$, denoted av(S'), which is the characteristic function of S' divided by #S'.

For $e \in \mathcal{E}[v, \mathcal{V}]$ denote $\operatorname{av}_{Fl}(v, w, e; r) := \operatorname{av}(Fl(v, w, e; r)) \in \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E}[v, \mathcal{V}]$. The map $\operatorname{av}_{Fl}(v, w, \cdot; r)$ extends by linearity to $\operatorname{av}_{Fl}(v,w,\cdot;r):\mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E}[v,\mathcal{V}]\to\mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E}[v,\mathcal{V}]$. The fine triangles property and Lemma 43 imply that $\mathcal{E}[v, w; t]$ is finite, so

$$\operatorname{av}_{Fl}(v, w, \operatorname{av}(\mathcal{E}[v, w; t]); \delta)$$

is a well-defined function on edges. By the fine triangles property, for any $e \in \mathcal{E}[v,w;t]$ its support satisfies

$$supp \operatorname{av}_{Fl}(v, w, \operatorname{av}(\mathcal{E}[v, w; t]); \delta) \subseteq B^{\varsigma}(e, 2\delta).$$

- 6.2. The functions f(a, b; i) and $\bar{f}(a, b)$. For $e \in \mathcal{E}[v, \mathcal{V}]$, let $\iota_v(e)$ be the v-initial vertex of e, i.e. the vertex of e closest to v. By linearity this extends to a \mathbb{Q} -linear map $\iota_v : \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E}[v, \mathcal{V}] \to \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{V}$. Similarly $\tau_v : \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E}[v, \mathcal{V}] \to \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{V}$ is the v-terminal vertex map. Define a \mathbb{Q} -linear projection $pr_a : \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E}[a, \mathcal{V}] \to \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E}[a, \mathcal{V}]$ toward e as follows. It suffices to describe e only on edges $e \in \mathcal{E}[v, \mathcal{V}]$.
 - If d(a, e) = 0, let $pr_a(e) := e$.
 - If d(a, e) > 0, let $pr_a(e) := \text{av}(\mathcal{E}[a, \iota_a e; t])$, where t is the largest integral multiple of 20δ satisfying t < d(a, e).

The definition of pr_a will only be important for the case when d(a, e) is an integral multiple of 20δ . In this case pr_a moves e toward a exactly by distance 20δ .

Now for all $a, b \in X$ we define a 1-chain $f(a, b) = f(a, b; 20\delta)$ in X inductively on d(a, b).

- If $d(a,b) \leq 20\delta + 1$, the definition of f(a,b) is not important, for example one can set $f(a,b) := \operatorname{av}(\mathcal{E}[a,b;d(a,b)-1])$.
- If $d(a,b) > 20\delta + 1$ and d(a,b) does not equal 1 modulo 20δ , let

$$f(a,b) := f(a, \operatorname{av}(\mathcal{V}[a,b;t])),$$

where t is the largest integer multiple of 20δ satisfying t < d(a, b) (hence t < d(a, b) - 1), and $f(a, \operatorname{av}(\mathcal{V}[a, b; t]))$ is defined by linearity in the second variable.

• If $d(a,b) > 20\delta + 1$ and d(a,b) equals 1 modulo 20δ , let

$$f(a,b) := pr_a(\operatorname{av}_{Fl}(a,b,\operatorname{av}(\mathcal{E}[a,b;d(a,b)-1]);\delta)).$$

In the above definitions we used integral multiples of 20δ , which are convenient to describe as numbers of the form $20\delta + 20\delta n$, $n \in \mathbb{Z}$. One can deal equally well with the numbers of the form $i + 20\delta n$ for a fixed $i \in \mathbb{Z}$. Replacing $20\delta + 1$ with i + 1 and integer multiples of 20δ with numbers congruent to i modulo 20δ in the above definitions we obtain a 1-chain f(a, b; i) such that each edge in its support is at distance i from a.

Proposition 44. The function f defined above satisfies the following properties:

- (1) f(a,b;i) is a convex combination of edges.
- (2) If d(a,b) > i, then supp $f(a,b;i) \subseteq Fl(a,b;e,\delta)$ for each $e \in \mathcal{E}[a,b;i]$.
- (3) If $d(a,b) \le i$, then $f(a,b;i) = \text{av}(\mathcal{E}[a,b;d(a,b)-1])$.
- (4) f is Γ -equivariant, i.e. f(ga, gb; i) = g(f(a, b; i)) for any $a, b \in X^{(0)}$ and $g \in \Gamma$.
- (5) For each fixed i there exist $L \in [0, \infty)$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1)$ such that for any $a, b, c \in X^{(0)}$,

$$\left| f(a,b;i) - f(a,c;i) \right|_1 \le L\lambda^{(b|c)_a}.$$

This is proved along the lines of [22, Proposition 3] inductively on d(a, b) using the fact that flowers are uniformly finite. The proof goes through because of the following property which is implied by the fine triangles condition.

• Suppose $e_1, e_2 \in \mathcal{E}[a, \mathcal{V}, 20\delta n]$ satisfy $d(\tau_a e_1, \tau_a e_2) \leq 3\delta$, then for any \bar{e}_1 and \bar{e}_2 in the supports of $pr_a(e_1)$ and $pr_a(e_2)$, respectively, we have $d_{\varsigma}(\bar{e}_1, \bar{e}_2) \leq \delta$.

For $e \in \mathcal{E}$ let $star_{3\delta}(e) := av(B^{\varsigma}(e, 3\delta))$; this extends by linearity to a map $star_{3\delta} : \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E} \to \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E}$. For $a, b \in X^{(0)}$ let

$$\bar{f}(a,b) := star_{3\delta} \left(\frac{1}{11\delta + 1} \sum_{i=5\delta}^{16\delta} f(a,b;i) \right).$$

Proposition 45. The function \bar{f} defined above satisfies the following properties:

- (1) $\bar{f}(a,b)$ is a convex combination of edges that are oriented toward a.
- (2) Pick any $\gamma \in \text{Geod}(a,b)$ and let I be the subset of edges $e \in \mathcal{E}(\gamma)$ such that $5\delta \leq d(a,e) \leq 16\delta 1$. If $d(a,b) > 20\delta$, then $\operatorname{supp} \bar{f}(a,b) \subseteq N^{\varsigma}(I,2\delta)$
- (3) If $d(a,b) \le 20\delta$, then $\bar{f}(a,b) := \text{av}(\mathcal{E}[a,b;d(a,b)-1])$.
- (4) \bar{f} is Γ -equivariant, i.e. $\bar{f}(ga, gb) = g(\bar{f}(a, b))$ for any $a, b \in X^{(0)}$ and $g \in \Gamma$.
- (5) There exist $L \in [0, \infty)$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1)$ depending only on the tuple \mathcal{T} such that for any $a, b, c \in X^{(0)}$,

$$\left| \bar{f}(a,b) - \bar{f}(a,c) \right|_1 \le L\lambda^{(b|c)_a}.$$

(6) There exists a constant $\lambda' \in [0,1)$ depending only on \mathcal{T} such that if $a,b,c \in X^{(0)}$, satisfy $(a|b)_c \leq 20\delta$ and $(a|c)_b \leq 20\delta$, then

$$\left| \bar{f}(b,a) - \bar{f}(c,a) \right|_1 \le 2\lambda'.$$

(7) Let $a, b, c \in X^{(0)}$, $\gamma \in \text{Geod}(a, b)$, and $c \in N(\gamma, 4\delta)$, then $\operatorname{supp} \bar{f}(c, a) \subseteq N(\gamma, 4\delta)$.

This is proved using Proposition 44 similarly to [22, Proposition 7]. The fine triangles property and the following facts guarantee that the proof goes through.

- The number of edges in the support of $\bar{f}(a,b)$ is bounded by a constant depending only on \mathcal{T} .
- For all $a, b, c \in X^{(0)}$, if $(a|b)_c \leq 20\delta$ and $(a|c)_b \leq 20\delta$, then there exist edges $e_1 \in supp f(b, a)$ and $e_2 \in supp f(c, a)$ such that $d(a, e_1) = d(a, e_2)$ and $d_{\varsigma}(e_1, e_2) \leq 3\delta$.

For $e \in \mathcal{E}$, let $\partial_+(e) \in \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{V}$ be the sum of the vertices incident to e, each taken with coefficient 1/2; this extends to a \mathbb{Q} -linear map $\mathbb{Q}\mathcal{E} \to \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{V}$. Then $\partial_+(\bar{f}(b,a))$ is a convex combination of vertices which satisfies the same (properly restated) properties as $\bar{f}(b,a)$ does in the above proposition.

6.3. **The 1-chain** q[a,b]. For each fixed a and b, $\bar{f}(b,a)$ is a function on the unoriented edges of \mathcal{G} . To talk about 1-chains we will now assume that there are two possible orientations for each edge in \mathcal{G} . A 1-chain in \mathcal{G} is a function on oriented edges which takes opposite values on oppositely oriented edges.

For $a, b \in X^{(0)}$ let

$$p'[a, b] := \frac{1}{\# \operatorname{Geod}(a, b)} \sum_{\gamma \in \operatorname{Geod}(a, b)} \gamma,$$

where γ is viewed as a 1-chain with boundary b-a. This makes sense because Geod(a,b) is finite by Lemma 12.

For $a, b \in X^{(0)}$ we define a 1-chain q'[a, b] inductively on d(a, b) as follows.

• If $d(a,b) \leq 20\delta$, let q'[a,b] := p'[a,b].

• If $d(a,b) > 20\delta$, let

$$q'[a,b] := q'\big[a,\partial_+\big(\bar{f}(b,a)\big)\big] + p'\big[\partial_+\big(\bar{f}(b,a)\big),b\big],$$

where $q'[a, \partial_+(\bar{f}(b, a))]$ and $p'[\partial_+(\bar{f}(b, a)), b]$ are defined by linearity in the second and first variables, respectively. The inductive definition indeed works because

supp
$$\bar{f}(b, a) \subseteq B(a, d(a, b) - \delta)$$
.

q' satisfies $\partial q'[a,b] = b - a$, so q' is a homological bicombing.

Proposition 46. The \mathbb{Q} -bicombing q' constructed above satisfies the following conditions.

- (1) q' is \mathcal{G} -equivariant.
- (2) q' is quasigeodesic, i.e. there exists $C \in [0, \infty)$ such that $\operatorname{supp} q'[a, b] \subseteq N(\gamma, C)$ for any $\gamma \in \operatorname{Geod}(a, b)$.
- (3) There exist constants $M \ge 0$ and $N \ge 0$ such that, for all $a, b, c \in X^{(0)}$,

$$|q'[a,b] - q'[a,c]|_1 \le M d(b,c) + N.$$

The proof is similar to [22, Proposition 8]. The following property is used to run induction.

• If $a, b, c \in X^{(0)}$ satisfy $(a|c)_b > 20\delta$, then for any $x \in supp \, \partial_+ (f(b, a))$ we have d(x, c) < d(b, c).

Now let

$$q[a,b] := \frac{1}{2} (q'[a,b] - q'[b,a]).$$

Theorem 47. Let $\mathcal{T} = (\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ be a hyperbolic tuple. Then the \mathbb{Q} -bicombing q in X defined above satisfies the following properties.

- (1) q is quasigeodesic.
- (2) q is Γ -equivariant.
- (3) q is anti-symmetric, i.e. q[a,b] = -q[b,a] for any $a,b \in X^{(0)}$.
- (4) There exists a constant T such that, for any $a, b, c \in X^{(0)}$,

$$\left| q[a,b] + q[b,c] + q[c,a] \right|_1 \le T.$$

The proof is similar to [22, Theorem 10] in the non-relative case, using Proposition 46.

6.4. Homological isoperimetric inequalities. Following Gersten we call a linear map $f: A \to B$ between two normed vector spaces undistorted if there is a constant $D \in [0, \infty)$ such that for any $b \in \text{Im } f$ there exists $a \in A$ with f(a) = b and $|a| \leq D|b|$.

Definition 48. A simply-connected complex X satisfies a homological linear isoperimetric inequality over \mathbb{Q} if the boundary map $\partial: C_2(X,\mathbb{Q}) \to C_1(X,\mathbb{Q})$ is undistorted with respect to the ℓ^1 -norms. More generally, a simply-connected complex X satisfies a homological linear isoperimetric inequality for i-cycles over \mathbb{Q} if the boundary map $\partial: C_{i+1}(X,\mathbb{Q}) \to C_i(X,\mathbb{Q})$ is undistorted. Similar definitions are given for \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{R} , \mathbb{C} coefficients.

Theorem 49. If X is a combinatorial cell complex with finitely many types of 2-cells, such that $X^{(1)}$ is hyperbolic, then the boundary map $\partial: C_2(X, \mathbb{Q}) \to C_1(X, \mathbb{Q})$ is undistorted, that is, X satisfies a homological linear isoperimetric inequality (for 1-cycles) over \mathbb{Q} . The same holds for chains with coefficients in \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{C} .

Proof. This argument is due to Gersten. The combinatorial linear isoperimetric inequality was shown in Proposition 34. Allcock and Gersten proved in [1] that any 1-cycle c over \mathbb{R} in X can be represented as $c = \sum_i \alpha_i c_i$ where c_i is the chain represented by a simple oriented loop and $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}$, $\alpha_i \geq 0$, coherently, i.e. so that $|c|_1 = \sum_i \alpha_i |c_i|_1$. The argument can be generalized to \mathbb{Q} and \mathbb{Z} coefficients (Theorem 6 in [23]). The combinatorial linear isoperimetric inequality implies that there is a constant $K \geq 0$ such that each c_i can be filled with an integral 2-chain a_i whose ℓ^1 -norm is bounded by $K|c_i|_1$. Then $a := \sum_i \alpha_i a_i$ is a filling of c satisfying $|a|_1 \leq K|c|_i$.

The support of a chain c, supp(c), is the closure of the union of simplices σ such that $c(\sigma) \neq 0$. For a subset $S \subseteq X$, diam(S) is defined as the diameter of the set $X^{(0)} \cap S$ with respect to the word metric d on $X^{(1)}$. For a chain c, diam(c) will stand for diam(supp(c))

The following theorem is similar to [21, Lemma 5.8] for the non-relative case, but the proof is different. The same proof does not apply because in the relative case it is *not* true in general that the number orbits of edge loops of a given length is finite. This is true only for circuits, i.e. *simple* loops. The same problem happens in higher dimensions.

Theorem 50. Given a fine graph \mathcal{G} with thin triangles, consider an ideal complex X as in Theorem 19. Then for any integer i, there exist functions $R_i, M_i : [0, \infty) \to [0, \infty)$ with the following property. For each cycle $z \in Z_i(X, \mathbb{Z})$ there exists a chain $a \in C_{i+1}(X, \mathbb{Z})$ such that $\partial a = z$, $diam_d(a) \leq R_i(diam_d(z))$, and $|a|_1 \leq M_i(diam_d(z)) \cdot |z|_1$.

Proof. Tracing the proof of Theorem 19, inductively on l one constructs R_i and M_i such that $diam_d(a) \leq R_i(l)$ and $|a|_1 \leq M_i(l) \cdot |z|_1$. Then the statement follows.

Theorem 51. If X is an ideal complex, then for each $k \geq 1$ the boundary map $\partial: C_{k+1}(X, \mathbb{Q}) \to C_k(X, \mathbb{Q})$ is undistorted, that is, X satisfies a homological linear isoperimetric inequality for k-cycles over \mathbb{Q} . The same holds for chains with coefficients in \mathbb{R} and \mathbb{C} .

Proof. The proof is similar to [21, Lemma 5.9]. The idea is that, inductively on dimension, for each k-simplex σ in X one can form a cone from σ to a fixed vertex v. The cone is a (k+1)-chain whose support lies close to any geodesic from v to a vertex in σ , and whose ℓ^1 -norm is bounded independently of σ . The construction of the cone is inductive on dimension. One uses concentric spheres at v to cut the cone over $\partial \sigma$ into slices, which are i-cycles with bounded support, then use Theorem 50 (rather than Lemma 5.8 in [21]) to fill each slice with an (i+1)-chain of bounded norm and bounded diameter. Once the cone is defined for each simplex, by linearity one can cone-off any cycle, with the ℓ^1 -norm of the cone bounded by a multiple of the ℓ^1 -norm of the cycle.

7. Cohomology and bounded cohomology.

The cohomology of a group relative to a subgroup were defined by Auslender [3] and further studied by Takasu [32] and Ribes [30]. Trotter [33] defined homology and cohomology of a group G with respect to any system of homomorphisms $G_i \to G$. Bieri and Eckmann [5], among other things, provided several equivalent ways to define the homology and cohomology of a group relative to any system of its subgroups.

Bounded cohomology was first introduced by Johnson in the context of Banach algebras [20]. The reader is referred to works of Ivanov [18, 19], Noskov [25, 26], Monod [24] for definitions and standard results about bounded cohomology. In what follows below, we describe the relative (homogeneous) standard resolution, or the snake resolution, and use it to define both relative cohomology and relative bounded cohomology. Our goal is to present the most geometrically transparent definition possible of these formal notions.

7.1. **Notations.** We will use the rational coefficients \mathbb{Q} , but everywhere in the paper \mathbb{Q} can be replaced with \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C} .

A Γ -set is a set with Γ -action. For a Γ -set S, $\mathbb{Q}S$ denotes the space of finitely supported functions $S \to \mathbb{Q}$, with the induces left Γ -action. Equivalently, $\mathbb{Q}S$ is the space of finite linear combinations of elements of S with rational coefficients. $\mathbb{Q}S$ is given the ℓ^1 -norm

$$\left| \sum_{s \in S} \alpha_s s \right|_1 := \sum_{s \in S} |\alpha_s|.$$

Let Γ be a group and $\Gamma' := \{\Gamma_i \mid i \in I\}$ be an arbitrary nonempty family of its subgroups, possibly with repetitions. Let $i\Gamma$ be a copy of Γ and denote

$$I\Gamma := \bigsqcup_{i \in I} i\Gamma, \qquad \Gamma/\Gamma' := \bigsqcup_{i \in I} i\Gamma/\Gamma_i.$$

IΓ and Γ/Γ' are Γ-sets by the left Γ-action on each $i\Gamma$. With our convention, \mathbb{Q} IΓ is the space of all finitely supported functions IΓ $\to \mathbb{Q}$ and

$$\mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma' := \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{I}} \mathbb{Q}[i\Gamma/\Gamma_i] = \bigoplus_{i \in \mathbb{I}} \mathbb{Q}\Gamma \otimes_{\Gamma_i} \mathbb{Q}$$

is the space of all finitely supported functions $f: \Gamma/\Gamma' \to \mathbb{Q}$.

 Δ will denote the kernel of the augmentation map $\epsilon: \mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma' \to \mathbb{Q}, f \mapsto \sum_{x \in \Gamma/\Gamma'} f(x)$.

7.2. Bounded modules. A bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module is a left $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module V which is a normed vector space over \mathbb{Q} , with the norm taking values in $[0, \infty)$, such that the induced Γ action on V is by uniformly bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -linear operators. (Of course, we do not assume completeness here.) The category of bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules is the one whose objects are bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules and whose morphisms are the $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -morphisms that are bounded with respect to the norms in the domain and the range. We will use the name b-morphism for morphisms in this category, to distinguish them from the usual morphisms between modules.

7.3. Functors ℓ^{∞} and bHom. If S is a Γ -set and V a normed \mathbb{Q} -vector space, $\ell^{\infty}(S,V)$ will denote the space of functions $S \to V$ that are bounded with respect to the norm on V. The norm on $\ell^{\infty}(S,V)$ is the ℓ^{∞} -norm

$$|f|_{\infty} := \sup\{||f(s)|| \mid s \in S\}.$$

For normed \mathbb{Q} -vector spaces U and V, bHom(U,V) will denote the space of bounded \mathbb{Q} -linear maps $U \to V$. Each element of $\ell^{\infty}(S,V)$ extends by linearity to a \mathbb{Q} -linear map $\mathbb{Q}S \to V$. This gives an isomorphism of normed modules

(1)
$$\ell^{\infty}(S, V) \cong \mathrm{bHom}(\mathbb{Q}S, V).$$

If V is a bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module, $\ell^{\infty}_{\Gamma}(S,V)$ will denote the space of functions in $\ell^{\infty}(S,V)$ that commute with the Γ -actions on S and V.

If U and V are bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules, then b $\mathrm{Hom}(U,V)$ is a bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module with respect to the operator norm

$$||f|| := \sup \{||f(u)||/||u|| \mid u \in U\}$$

and the Γ -action given by

$$(gf)(u) := g(f(g^{-1}u)), \quad g \in \Gamma, \ f \in \mathrm{bHom}(U, V), \ u \in U.$$

bHom $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma(U,V)$ denotes the subspace of bHom(U,V) consisting of $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -morphisms, i.e. the operators that commute with the $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -actions on U and V. Equivalently, bHom $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma(U,V)$ is the space of Γ -invariant elements of bHom(U,V). (1) restricts to an isomorphism of normed modules

$$\ell_{\Gamma}^{\infty}(S, V) \cong \mathrm{bHom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(\mathbb{Q}S, V).$$

7.4. **Projectivity and b-projectivity.** A module P is called *projective* if for any morphisms $f: A \to B$ and $\varphi: P \to B$ such that $\operatorname{Im} \varphi \subseteq \operatorname{Im} f$, there exists a morphism $\varphi': P \to A$ such that $f \circ \varphi' = \varphi$. This is the usual notion of projectivity in the category of modules over a fixed ring.

Recall that a b-morphism $f:A\to B$ is undistorted if there is a constant $D\in[0,\infty)$ such that for any $b\in \mathrm{Im} f$ there exists $a\in A$ with f(a)=b and $|a|\leq D|b|$. A bounded module P is called a projective bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module, or a b-projective $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module, if for any undistorted b-morphism $f:A\to B$ and any b-morphism $\varphi:P\to B$ such that $\mathrm{Im}\,\varphi\subseteq\mathrm{Im}\,f$, there exists a b-morphism $\varphi':P\to A$ such that $f\circ\varphi'=\varphi$. This is projectivity in the category of bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules.

Lemma 52. If S is a Γ -set with all stabilizers finite, then $\mathbb{Q}S$ is both a projective $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module and a b-projective $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module with respect to the ℓ^1 -norm.

Proof. The statements are easily checked when S is a free Γ -set, i.e. when the stabilizers of points are trivial. Now suppose that S is a Γ -set with finite stabilizers. Replacing points in S with finite sets one can produce a free Γ -set S' and a Γ -equivariant surjective map $h: S' \to S$. This induces a \mathbb{Q} -linear map $\mathbb{Q}S' \to \mathbb{Q}S$. A \mathbb{Q} -linear map $h': \mathbb{Q}S \to \mathbb{Q}S'$ is defined by taking for each $x \in S$ the uniform distribution of 1 over the finite set $h^{-1}(x)$. h' is a right inverse of h. One uses these maps to deduce projectivity and b-projectivity of $\mathbb{Q}S$ from those of $\mathbb{Q}S'$. \square

A b-projective resolution of a module M is a sequence

$$(2) \qquad \dots \to P_3 \to P_2 \to P_1 \to P_0 \to M \to 0$$

of (bounded) morphisms, where P_i are b-projective modules and each morphism is undistorted.

7.5. Cohomology of a pair (Γ, Γ') . In [5] Bieri and Eckmann define $H^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$, the cohomology of a pair (Γ, Γ') , or the relative cohomology of Γ with respect to Γ' , with coefficients in a $\mathbb{Z}\Gamma$ -module V, and prove the following.

Proposition 53 ([5, Proposition 1.2]). Let (Γ, Γ') be a pair as above, \mathbb{C} a Γ -projective resolution of \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{D} a subcomplex of \mathbb{C} which is a Γ -projective resolution of $\mathbb{Z}\Gamma/\Gamma'$ such that $\mathbb{D} \hookrightarrow \mathbb{C}$ induces $\epsilon : \mathbb{Z}\Gamma/\Gamma' \hookrightarrow \mathbb{Z}$ and that $\mathbb{Q} := \mathbb{C}/\mathbb{D}$ is Γ -projective. Then the cohomology sequences of \mathbb{C} modulo \mathbb{D} and of Γ modulo Γ' are isomorphic. More precisely, one has, for a Γ -module V, the following diagram which commutes up to sign.

We note that the same holds for $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ modules. Given \mathbf{D} , \mathbf{C} , and \mathbf{Q} as above, we will take $H^k(\mathbf{Q};V)$ as the definition of $H^k(\Gamma,\Gamma';V)$, the relative cohomology of Γ with respect to Γ' with coefficients in a $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module V. Our definition of relative bounded cohomology will be parallel to this one.

8. The snake resolution.

Let Γ be any group and $\Gamma' = \{\Gamma_i \mid i \in I\}$ be any nonempty family of its subgroups, possibly with repetitions. In this section we will define a short exact sequence of chain complexes $\mathbf{St}' \hookrightarrow \mathbf{St} \twoheadrightarrow \mathbf{St}^{\varsigma}$ which correspond to Γ' , Γ , and Γ/Γ' , respectively. The snake resolution \mathbf{St}^{ς} will be a relative version of the standard (i.e. homogeneous bar) resolution.

8.1. St: the standard resolution for I Γ . For $i \in I$ and $k \geq 0$, let $S_k(I\Gamma)$ be the set of sequences $[x_0, \ldots, x_k]$ such that $x_j \in I\Gamma$ for $j \in \{0, \ldots, k\}$. The Γ -action on $S_k(\Gamma)$ is left-diagonal:

(3)
$$g[x_0,\ldots,x_k] := [gx_0,\ldots,gx_k].$$

Denote

$$\operatorname{St}_k(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) := \mathbb{Q}S_k(\operatorname{I}\Gamma).$$

The elements of $St_*(I\Gamma)$ are called the (standard) chains in $I\Gamma$. This gives the exact sequence

(4)
$$\mathbf{St} \twoheadrightarrow \mathbb{Q}: \qquad \ldots \to \operatorname{St}_2(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_2} \operatorname{St}_1(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} \operatorname{St}_0(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial'_0} \mathbb{Q} \to 0,$$

where $\operatorname{St}_k(\Gamma',\Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_k} \operatorname{St}_{k-1}(\Gamma',\Gamma)$ is the usual boundary map defined on the basis by

$$\partial_k[x_0,\ldots,x_k] := \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j[x_0,\ldots,\hat{x_j},\ldots,x_k].$$

In dimension 0 this formally means that ∂_0 is the augmentation map

$$\operatorname{St}_0(\Gamma) \cong \mathbb{Q}\operatorname{I}\Gamma \xrightarrow{\partial_0} \mathbb{Q}, \qquad f \mapsto \sum_{x \in \Pi} f(x).$$

(4) and Lemma 52 show that

(5)
$$\mathbf{St}: \qquad \dots \to \operatorname{St}_2(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_2} \operatorname{St}_1(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} \operatorname{St}_0(\operatorname{I}\Gamma)$$

is a projective resolution of \mathbb{Q} .

Let

$$\operatorname{St}^k(\operatorname{I}\Gamma; V) := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{O}\Gamma}(\operatorname{St}_k(\operatorname{I}\Gamma), V).$$

The elements of $\operatorname{St}^k(\operatorname{I}\Gamma;V)$ are the (standard) cochains in $\operatorname{I}\Gamma$ with coefficients in V. Applying $\mathrm{bHom}_{\mathbb{O}\Gamma}(\cdot,V)$ to (4) yields the cochain complex

(6)
$$\operatorname{St}^*(\operatorname{I}\Gamma; V) \hookleftarrow V: \qquad \ldots \to \operatorname{St}^2(\operatorname{I}\Gamma; V) \stackrel{\delta_2}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{St}^1(\operatorname{I}\Gamma; V) \stackrel{\delta_1}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{St}^0(\operatorname{I}\Gamma; V) \stackrel{\delta_0}{\hookleftarrow} V \leftarrow 0$$

where $\operatorname{St}^{k}(\operatorname{I}\Gamma; V) \stackrel{\delta_{k}}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{St}^{k-1}(\operatorname{I}\Gamma; V)$ is the usual coboundary map

(7)
$$(\delta_k f)[x_0, \dots, x_k] := \sum_{j=0}^k (-1)^j f([x_0, \dots, \hat{x_j}, \dots, x_k]),$$

i.e. the one dual to ∂_k .

8.2. St': the standard resolution for (Γ', Γ) . This is going to be the standard resolution of Γ' with respect to Γ (that is, we will use induction from Γ' to Γ , without mentioning it explicitly). In what follows, it is convenient to think of Γ_i as of a subgroup in $i\Gamma$.

For each $i \in I$ and $k \geq 0$, let $S'_{k,i}(\Gamma',\Gamma)$ be the set of sequences $[x_0,\ldots,x_k]$ such that

- $x_j \in i\Gamma$ for $j \in \{0, ..., k\}$, and $x_{j-1}^{-1}x_j \in \Gamma_i$ for $j \in \{1, ..., k\}$.

The above two conditions equivalently say that all x_j for $j \in \{0, ..., k\}$ belong to the same left coset of Γ_i in $i\Gamma$. We have $S'_{k,i}(\Gamma',\Gamma) \subseteq S_k(I\Gamma)$. Denote

$$S'_k(\Gamma',\Gamma) := \bigsqcup_i S'_{k,i}(\Gamma',\Gamma) \subseteq S_k(\Gamma).$$

 $S_0'(\Gamma',\Gamma)$ obviously identifies with IV. Let

$$\operatorname{St}'_k(\Gamma',\Gamma) := \mathbb{Q}S_k(\Gamma',\Gamma),$$

so in particular $\mathrm{St}_0'(\Gamma',\Gamma)\cong\mathbb{Q}\mathrm{I}\Gamma$. The elements of $\mathrm{St}_*'(\Gamma',\Gamma)$ are called the (standard) chains in (Γ', Γ) . The Γ -action (3) on $\operatorname{St}_k(\Gamma)$ restricts to an action on $\operatorname{St}'_k(\Gamma', \Gamma)$ (the action is free on the basis). This gives the exact sequence

(8)
$$\mathbf{St}' \to \mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma'$$
: $\ldots \to \mathrm{St}_2'(\Gamma', \Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_2'} \mathrm{St}_1'(\Gamma', \Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_1'} \mathrm{St}_0'(\Gamma', \Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_0'} \mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma' \to 0,$

where $\operatorname{St}'_0(\Gamma',\Gamma) \cong \mathbb{Q}\operatorname{I\Gamma} \xrightarrow{\partial'_0} \mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma'$ is the augmentation map induced by the surjection

$$\mathrm{I}\Gamma = \bigsqcup_{i \in I} \Gamma \twoheadrightarrow \bigsqcup_{i \in \mathrm{I}} \Gamma/\Gamma_i = \Gamma/\Gamma'$$

and ∂_k is the restriction of the boundary homomorphism in (4). (8) and Lemma 52 show that

(9)
$$\mathbf{St}': \qquad \dots \to \operatorname{St}_2'(\Gamma', \Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_2'} \operatorname{St}_1'(\Gamma', \Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_1'} \operatorname{St}_0'(\Gamma', \Gamma)$$

is a projective resolution of $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma'$.

8.3. \mathbf{St}^{ς} : the snake resolution. This is the standard resolution for the pair (Γ, Γ') . For resolutions \mathbf{St} in (5) and \mathbf{St}' in (9) we denote $\mathrm{St}_{k}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') := \mathrm{St}_{k}(\mathrm{I}\Gamma)/\mathrm{St}_{k}'(\Gamma', \Gamma)$ for $k \geq 1$; sometimes we will write St_{k}' , St_{k} , $\mathrm{St}_{k}^{\varsigma}$ for simplicity. The ℓ^{1} -norm on $\mathrm{St}_{k}^{\varsigma}$ is induced from the ℓ^{1} -norm on St_{k} by the quotient map $pr : \mathrm{St}_{k} \to \mathrm{St}_{k}^{\varsigma}$. \mathbf{St} and \mathbf{St}' fit in the diagram

$$\mathbf{St}': \qquad \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_3'} \operatorname{St}_2'(\Gamma', \Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_2'} \operatorname{St}_1'(\Gamma', \Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_1'} \operatorname{St}_0'(\Gamma', \Gamma)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \cong \downarrow$$

$$(10) \qquad \mathbf{St}: \qquad \cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_3} \operatorname{St}_2(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_2} \operatorname{St}_1(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} \operatorname{St}_0(\operatorname{I}\Gamma)$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\cdots \xrightarrow{\partial_3'} \operatorname{St}_2'(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_2'} \operatorname{St}_1'(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{} 0.$$

This extends to the larger diagram

(8) and (4) imply that the first two rows in the above diagram are exact in dimensions $k \geq 1$ and induce the augmentation map $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma' \to \mathbb{Q}$ in dimension 0. Recall that Δ was defined to be the kernel of this map. The $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules $\operatorname{St}_k^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma')$ are free, so the long exact sequence for (11) implies that the bottom row

(12)
$$\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma}: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_3^{\varsigma}} \operatorname{St}_3^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_3^{\varsigma}} \operatorname{St}_2^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_2^{\varsigma}} \operatorname{St}_1^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma')$$

is a resolution of Δ with a dimension shift, i.e. it extends to the exact sequence

(13)
$$\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma} \to \Delta: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_3^{\varsigma}} \mathrm{St}_3^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_3^{\varsigma}} \mathrm{St}_2^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_2^{\varsigma}} \mathrm{St}_1^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_1^{\varsigma}} \Delta \to 0.$$

It is a tedious exercise using a higher dimensional version of the relative cone (see 10.5) to show that the resolution $\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma} \twoheadrightarrow \Delta$ is b-projective.

8.4. Relative cohomology: standard resolution. (10) is a short exact sequence of chain complexes that satisfies the assumptions of Proposition 53, therefore resolution (12) can be used to define the relative cohomology $H^*(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$. That is, if we apply $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(\cdot, V)$ to $\operatorname{\mathbf{St}}^{\varsigma}$ and denote

$$\operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^{k}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{O}\Gamma}(\operatorname{St}_{k}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma'), V),$$

then $\mathrm{H}^{\mathrm{k}}(\Gamma,\Gamma';V)$ is the homology of the resulting cochain complex

(14)
$$\mathbf{St}_{\varsigma} \leftarrow 0: \qquad \dots \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{3}}{\leftarrow} \mathrm{St}_{\varsigma}^{2}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{2}}{\leftarrow} \mathrm{St}_{\varsigma}^{1}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \leftarrow 0$$

at the term $\operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$. Here δ_{ς}^k is dual to ∂_k^{ς} , i.e. $(\delta_k^{\varsigma}(f))(x) = f(\partial_k^{\varsigma}x)$ for $x \in \operatorname{St}_k^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma')$. Equivalently, δ_{ς}^k is induced by δ^k in (7) and using diagram (11).

8.5. Relative bounded cohomology: standard resolution. For the relative bounded cohomology of Γ with respect to Γ' we use a parallel definition, applying bHom instead of Hom to \mathbf{St}^{ς} . Denote

$$\mathrm{bSt}^k_{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) := \mathrm{bHom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(\mathrm{St}^{\varsigma}_k(\Gamma, \Gamma'), V)$$

This is a bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module with respect to the operator norm on bHom (the ℓ^{∞} -norm). Let $H_h^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ be the homology of the cochain complex

(15)
$$\mathbf{bSt}_{\varsigma} \leftarrow 0: \qquad \dots \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{\varsigma}}{\leftarrow} \mathrm{bSt}_{\varsigma}^{2}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{\varsigma}}{\leftarrow} \mathrm{bSt}_{\varsigma}^{1}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \leftarrow 0$$

at the term $\mathrm{bSt}^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$. There is a canonical map $H_b^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ induced by the inclusion $\mathrm{bHom}(\cdot, V) \subseteq \mathrm{Hom}(\cdot, V)$.

9. Singular chains.

9.1. Relative bounded cohomology: singular resolution. Given a pair (Γ, Γ') , let Y and Y_i be the classifying spaces, or Eilenberg-MacLane spaces, for Γ and Γ_i , respectively, such that Y_i are pairwise disjoint subspaces of Y and the inclusions $Y_i \hookrightarrow Y$ induce the inclusions $\Gamma_i \hookrightarrow \Gamma$ on fundamental groups. We will say in this case that (Y, Y') is a classifying space for (Γ, Γ') . (Y, Y') is called hyperbolic if (Γ, Γ') is.

Let $p: \tilde{Y} \to Y$ be the universal covering map, $\tilde{Y}_i := p^{-1}(Y_i)$, $\tilde{Y}' := \sqcup_i \tilde{Y}_i$. We can easily run all the above definitions using singular chains in \tilde{Y} instead of standard chains. Let $\mathrm{Si}_k(Y)$ and $\mathrm{Si}_k(Y')$ be the space of real singular k-chains in Y and Y', respectively, and $\mathrm{Si}_k(Y,Y') := \mathrm{Si}_k(Y)/\mathrm{Si}_k(Y')$, each given the ℓ^1 -norm with respect to the obvious bases $S_k(\tilde{Y})$, $S_k(\tilde{Y}')$, and $S_k(\tilde{Y},\tilde{Y}') := S_k(\tilde{Y}) \setminus S_k(\tilde{Y}')$ consisting of singular simplices. This gives b-projective resolutions $\mathrm{Si} \to \mathbb{Q}$, $\mathrm{Si}' \to \mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma'$ and $\mathrm{Si}^c \to \Delta$ similar to those for St_* . Denote

$$bSi_{\varsigma}^{k}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Y}'; V) := bHom_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(Si_{k}^{\varsigma}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Y}'), V) \cong \ell_{\Gamma}^{\infty}(S_{k}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Y}'), V)$$

This is a bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module with respect to the operator norm on bHom (the ℓ^{∞} -norm). Applying bHom $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma(\cdot, V)$ to \mathbf{Si}^{ς} gives the cochain complex

(16)
$$\mathbf{bSi}_{\varsigma} \leftarrow 0: \qquad \dots \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{3}}{\leftarrow} \mathrm{bSi}_{\varsigma}^{2}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Y}'; V) \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{2}}{\leftarrow} \mathrm{bSi}_{\varsigma}^{1}(\tilde{Y}, \tilde{Y}'; V) \leftarrow 0.$$

 \mathbf{Si}^{ς} and \mathbf{St}^{ς} are b-projective resolutions of Δ . The standard argument (see for example I.7.3 and I.7.4 in [9]), but using b-projectivity of resolutions instead of projectivity, shows that there

are bounded homotopy equivalences between $\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma} \twoheadrightarrow \Delta$ and $\mathbf{Si}^{\varsigma} \twoheadrightarrow \Delta$ (which is identity on Δ and such that the homotopy maps are bounded). This induces homotopy equivalences between the dual complexes \mathbf{bSt}_{ς} and \mathbf{bSi}_{ς} in dimensions ≥ 2 . (Actually one can construct homotopy equivalence between $\mathbf{bSt}_{\varsigma} \leftarrow 0$ and $\mathbf{bSi}_{\varsigma} \leftarrow 0$ for all dimensions, but this is not needed for this paper.) This implies that the relative bounded cohomology $H_b^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ for $k \geq 2$ can be equivalently defined as the homology of (16).

Similarly, applying $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(\cdot,V)$ instead of $\operatorname{bHom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(\cdot,V)$ to $\operatorname{Si}^{\varsigma}$ yields the usual relative cohomology $H^k(\Gamma,\Gamma';V)$, and again, the inclusion $\operatorname{bHom}(\cdot,V)\subseteq\operatorname{Hom}(\cdot,V)$ induces the canonical map $H^k_b(\Gamma,\Gamma';V)\to H^k(\Gamma,\Gamma';V)$.

9.2. Simplicial (semi)norm. Now we let the coefficients V be the trivial module \mathbb{R} , which we will drop from the notations, and (Γ, Γ') , Y and Y' be as in 9.1. Below we define the relative version of Gromov's simplicial (semi)norm [16] on $H_k(Y, Y')$.

The simplicial (semi)norm of $z \in H_k(Y, Y')$, denoted $|z|_1$, is the infimum of the ℓ^1 -norms of the simplicial cycles representing z. Equivalently, this is the norm induced on $H_k(Y, Y')$ via the map $Z_k(Y, Y') \to H_k(Y, Y')$, where $Z_k(Y, Y')$ is the kernel of $\partial_k : \operatorname{Si}_k(Y, Y') \to \operatorname{Si}_{k-1}(Y, Y')$.

The singular cochain spaces $\mathrm{Si}^k(Y)$ and $\mathrm{Si}^k(Y')$, $\mathrm{Si}^k(Y,Y')$ are defined by applying $\mathrm{Hom}(\cdot,\mathbb{R})$ to the respective singular chain spaces; one checks that $\mathrm{Si}^k(Y,Y')=\mathrm{Si}^k(Y)/\mathrm{Si}^k(Y')$.

Let $\mathrm{Si}_b^k(Y,Y')$ be the subspace of $\mathrm{Si}^k(Y,Y')$ consisting of the relative cochains that are bounded with respect to the ℓ^{∞} -norm dual to the ℓ^1 -norm on chains. Taking the quotient of \tilde{Y} by Γ gives an isometric isomorphism between $\mathrm{bSi}_{\varsigma}^k(\tilde{Y},\tilde{Y}';\mathbb{R})$ and $\mathrm{Si}_b^k(Y,Y')$, therefore the homology of the cochain complex

(17)
$$\ldots \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{4}}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Si}_{b}^{3}(Y, Y') \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{3}}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Si}_{b}^{2}(Y, Y') \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{2}}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Si}_{b}^{1}(Y, Y') \leftarrow 0,$$

denoted $H_b^k(Y,Y';\mathbb{R})$, is isomorphic to $H_b^k(\Gamma,\Gamma';\mathbb{R})$. Similarly the homology of

(18)
$$\ldots \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{4}}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Si}^{3}(Y, Y') \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{3}}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Si}^{2}(Y, Y') \stackrel{\delta_{\varsigma}^{2}}{\leftarrow} \operatorname{Si}^{1}(Y, Y') \leftarrow 0,$$

denoted $H^k(Y,Y';\mathbb{R})$, is isomorphic to $H^k(\Gamma,\Gamma';\mathbb{R})$. The inclusion $\mathrm{Si}_b^k(Y,Y') \hookrightarrow \mathrm{Si}^k(Y,Y')$ gives the map $H_b^k(Y,Y';\mathbb{R}) \to H^k(Y,Y';\mathbb{R})$, which is the same as the map $H_b^k(\Gamma,\Gamma';\mathbb{R}) \to H^k(\Gamma,\Gamma';\mathbb{R})$ defined before.

 $H_b^k(Y, Y'; \mathbb{R})$ possesses a particular seminorm $|\cdot|_{\infty}$ induced from the ℓ^{∞} -norm in (17). The following is proved just as its non-relative version in [4, Proposition F.2.2].

Proposition 54. For any $z \in H_k(Y, Y'; \mathbb{R})$,

$$|z|_1^{-1} = \inf \{ |\beta|_{\infty} \mid \beta \in H_b^k(Y, Y'; \mathbb{R}), \langle \beta, z \rangle = 1 \},$$

where in the case $|z|_1 = 0$ the infimum is understood to be taken over the empty set.

10. The cohomological characterization of relative hyperbolicity.

10.1. The cellular resolution for hyperbolic tuples. Suppose (Γ, Γ') is a hyperbolic pair. Let $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ be an ideal tuple for the pair (Γ, Γ') quaranteed by Theorem 41; so the tuple is of type \mathcal{F} and $\mathcal{V}(X) = \mathcal{V}'$. One can equally well work with ideal tuples of type \mathcal{F}_n ; the statements below will hold up to dimension n.

 $C_k(X)$ will denote the space of k-chains in X with rational coefficients. It follows from Definition 27 of graph tuples that there is a bijection between \mathcal{V}' and Γ/Γ' . \mathcal{V}' is a subcomplex of X, this gives the obvious chain complex

(19)
$$\mathbf{C}' \to \mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma': \qquad \ldots \to 0 \to 0 \to C_0(\mathcal{V}') \stackrel{\cong}{\to} \mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma' \to 0.$$

Let $\partial_0: C_0(X) \to \mathbb{Q}$ be the augmentation map. Since X is contractible, the sequence

(20)
$$\mathbf{C} \to \mathbb{Q}: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_3} C_2(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_0} \mathbb{Q} \to 0$$

is exact. By Lemma 52, C is a projective $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -resolution of \mathbb{Q} .

The inclusion $\mathcal{V}' \subseteq X$ gives a chain map $\mathbf{C}' \to \mathbf{C}$ which induces the augmentation map $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma' \to \mathbb{Q}$ in dimension -1. The following diagram is $\mathbf{C}' \hookrightarrow \mathbf{C} \to \mathbf{C}/\mathbf{C}'$:

(21)
$$\mathbf{C}': \qquad \cdots \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow 0 \longrightarrow C_0(\mathcal{V}')$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow \qquad \qquad \cong \downarrow$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_2(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_2} C_1(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_1} C_0(X)$$

$$\cong \downarrow \qquad \qquad \cong \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_0(\mathcal{V}')$$

$$\cong \downarrow \qquad \qquad \cong \downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\cdots \longrightarrow C_0(X) \longrightarrow C_0(X)$$

The isomorphism in dimension 0 comes from the fact that the tuple is ideal. Denote \mathbb{C}^{ς} the bottom row of (21) in dimensions ≥ 1 , i.e. the sequence

(22)
$$\mathbf{C}^{\varsigma}: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_3^{\varsigma}} C_2(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_2^{\varsigma}} C_1(X).$$

The diagram (21) extends to

The first two rows in (23) induce the augmentation $\varepsilon: \mathbb{Q}\Gamma/\Gamma' \to \mathbb{Q}$ in dimension 0. By the long exact sequence, the bottom row is exact in dimensions ≥ 1 and induces Δ in dimension 1, hence there is an exact sequence

(24)
$$\mathbf{C}^{\varsigma} \to \Delta: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_3^{\varsigma}} C_2(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_2^{\varsigma}} C_1(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_1^{\varsigma}} \Delta \to 0.$$

This is a partial resolution of Δ with a dimension shift. It can also be thought of simply as a shorter version of (20), because Δ is isomorphic to the kernel of ∂_0 . Lemma 52 says that this resolution is both projective and b-projective.

10.2. Chain maps between resolutions. We have two chain complexes for the pair (Γ, Γ') : (12) and (22) are resolutions of Δ with a dimension shift. We will define chain maps between them.

Since \mathbb{C}^{ς} is projective, there exists a chain map ψ_* for the diagram

(25)
$$\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma} \to \Delta: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_{3}^{\varsigma}} \operatorname{St}_{2}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_{2}^{\varsigma}} \operatorname{St}_{1}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}^{\varsigma}} \Delta \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\psi_{2} \uparrow \qquad \psi_{1} \uparrow \qquad \qquad \parallel$$

$$\mathbf{C}^{\varsigma} \to \Delta: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_{3}^{\varsigma}} C_{2}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{2}^{\varsigma}} C_{1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}^{\varsigma}} \Delta \longrightarrow 0.$$

Recall that we put the ℓ^1 -norm on $\operatorname{St}_k^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma')$ and $C_k(X)$. Each ψ_k is a $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -morphism and is bounded because $C_k(X)$ is a finitely generated $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module.

A chain map φ_* for the diagram

(26)
$$\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma} \to \Delta: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_{3}^{\varsigma}} \operatorname{St}_{2}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_{2}^{\varsigma}} \operatorname{St}_{1}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}^{\varsigma}} \Delta \longrightarrow 0$$

$$\varphi_{2} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \varphi_{1} \downarrow \qquad \qquad \parallel$$

$$\mathbf{C}^{\varsigma} \to \Delta: \qquad \dots \xrightarrow{\partial_{3}^{\varsigma}} C_{2}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{2}^{\varsigma}} C_{1}(X) \xrightarrow{\partial_{1}^{\varsigma}} \Delta \longrightarrow 0$$

is defined as follows. For each $i \in I$, let v_i be the vertex stabilized by Γ_i . Define a map ver : $I\Gamma \to \mathcal{V}'$ by $\text{ver}(x) := x \cdot v_i$ for $x \in i\Gamma$. This map sends each left coset of Γ_i in $i\Gamma$ to a vertex in \mathcal{V}' , and is surjective. Preimages of the vertices in \mathcal{V}' are exactly the left cosets, i.e. the elements of Γ/Γ' . Extending by linearity gives the map ver : $\mathbb{Q}I\Gamma \to \mathbb{Q}\mathcal{V}'$.

Define $\varphi'_1: \operatorname{St}_1(\operatorname{I}\Gamma) \to C_1(X)$ by $\varphi'_1([x_0, x_1]) := q[\operatorname{ver}(x_0), \operatorname{ver}(x_1)]$, where q is the bicombing from Theorem 47, and extending by linearity. One checks that φ'_1 vanishes on $\operatorname{St}'_1(\Gamma', \Gamma) \subseteq \operatorname{St}_1(\operatorname{I}\Gamma)$, so it induces a morphism $\varphi_1: \operatorname{St}_1^\varsigma(\Gamma, \Gamma') \to C_1(X)$. This defines the map φ_* in dimension 1.

The morphism φ_1 is *not* bounded in general, but the composition $\varphi_1 \circ \partial_2^{\varsigma}$ is, by Theorem 47(3-4). By Theorem 49, $\partial_2^{\varsigma} = \partial_2 : C_2(X) \to C_1(X)$ is undistorted, and by Lemma 52, $\operatorname{St}_2^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma')$ is b-projective, so there exists a bounded morphism φ_2 that makes the above diagram commutative. For higher dimensions, $\partial_k^{\varsigma} = \partial_k : C_k(X) \to C_{k-1}(X)$ is undistorted by Theorem 51, so the same argument gives a bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -morphism φ_k for $k \geq 2$.

Since \mathbf{St}^{ς} and \mathbf{C}^{ς} are projective, the chain maps

$$\psi_* : (\mathbf{C}^{\varsigma} \twoheadrightarrow \Delta) \to (\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma} \twoheadrightarrow \Delta)$$
 and $\varphi_* : (\mathbf{St}^{\varsigma} \twoheadrightarrow \Delta) \to (\mathbf{C}^{\varsigma} \twoheadrightarrow \Delta)$

described above are chain homotopy equivalences. Applying $\operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(\cdot,V)$ to the two chain complexes yields dual cochain complexes C_{ς}^* and $\operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^*$ and the dual chain maps $\varphi^*: C_{\varsigma}^* \to \operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^*$ and $\psi^*: \operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^* \to C_{\varsigma}^*$. Since φ_* and ψ_* are mutually inverse chain homotopy equivalences, the chain map $\varphi^* \circ \psi^*$ induces the identity map on the relative cohomology $H^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ for $k \geq 2$.

10.3. Filling 0-cycles. A 0-cycle is a 0-chain whose sum of coefficients is 0. Any $c \in \text{St}_0(I\Gamma)$ can be uniquely written as $c = c_+ - c_-$, where $c_+, c_- \in \text{St}_0(I\Gamma)$ have non-negative coefficients and mutually disjoint supports. If c is a 0-cycle, then $|c_+|_1 = |c_-|_1 = \frac{1}{2}|c|_1$. If c_+ and c_- are

explicitly written as $c_{-} = \sum_{x \in I\Gamma} \alpha_{x}^{-} x$, $c_{+} = \sum_{y \in I\Gamma} \alpha_{y}^{+} y$, define

$$\Phi[c] := \frac{1}{|c_+|_1} \sum_{x \in \Pi} \sum_{y \in \Pi} \alpha_x^- \alpha_y^+[x, y] = \frac{1}{|c_-|_1} \sum_{x \in \Pi} \sum_{y \in \Pi} \alpha_x^- \alpha_y^+[x, y].$$

One checks that

(27)
$$\partial(\Phi[c]) = c \quad \text{and} \quad |\Phi[c]|_1 = \frac{|c|_1}{2},$$

so $\Phi(c)$ is a filling of c.

10.4. **The cone.** A k-cycle in **St** is an element of $\mathrm{ZSt}_k(\mathrm{I}\Gamma) := Ker(\partial_k : \mathrm{St}_k(\mathrm{I}\Gamma) \to \mathrm{St}_{k-1}(\mathrm{I}\Gamma))$, and a k-boundary in **St** is an element of $\mathrm{BSt}_k(\mathrm{I}\Gamma) := Im(\partial_{k+1} : \mathrm{St}_{k+1}(\mathrm{I}\Gamma) \to \mathrm{St}_k(\mathrm{I}\Gamma))$. We have $\mathrm{ZSt}_k(\mathrm{I}\Gamma) = \mathrm{BSt}_k(\mathrm{I}\Gamma)$, i.e. the two notions coincide.

For each 1-chain $b = \sum_{y_0, y_1 \in G} \beta_{[y_0, y_1]}[y_0, y_1]$ in **St**, the cone over b with vertex y is the 2-chain

$$[y, b] := \sum_{y_0, y_1 \in G} \beta_{[y_0, y_1]}[y, y_0, y_1].$$

If b happens to be a cycle, then $\partial[y, b] = b$.

10.5. The relative cone. A k-cycle in St^{ς} , or a relative standard k-cycle, is an element of

$$\mathrm{ZSt}_{\mathbf{k}}^\varsigma(\Gamma,\Gamma') := Ker\big(\partial_k^\varsigma : \mathrm{St}_{\mathbf{k}}^\varsigma(\Gamma,\Gamma') \to \mathrm{St}_{\mathbf{k}-1}^\varsigma(\Gamma,\Gamma')\big),$$

and a k-boundary in St⁵, or a relative standard k-boundary, is an element of

$$\mathrm{BSt}_{k}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma,\Gamma') := Im(\partial_{k+1}^{\varsigma} : \mathrm{St}_{k+1}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma,\Gamma') \to \mathrm{St}_{k}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma,\Gamma')).$$

Here we denote $\operatorname{St}_0^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') := \Delta$. Since (13) is exact, we have $\operatorname{ZSt}_k^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma') = \operatorname{BSt}_k^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma')$ for $k \geq 1$, i.e. the two notions coincide.

Since St'_k is a direct summand of St_k , there is an $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -morphism $j:\operatorname{St}^\varsigma_k\to\operatorname{St}_k$ which is a section of the projection morphism $pr:\operatorname{St}_k\to\operatorname{St}^\varsigma_k$. Equivalently, j(c) is the restriction of c to $S_k(\operatorname{I}\Gamma)\setminus S'_k(\Gamma',\Gamma)$. For a 1-chain a in St and a left coset $s\in\Gamma/\Gamma'$, $\partial^s a$ will denote the restriction of ∂a to $s\subseteq\operatorname{I}\Gamma$.

For a relative standard 1-cycle b, the relative cone of b with vertex y is the relative 2-chain

$$[y,b]_{\varsigma} := pr[y,b - \sum_{s \in \Gamma/\Gamma'} \Phi[\partial^s(j(b))]] \in \operatorname{St}_2^{\varsigma}.$$

One checks that this definition makes sense and, using (27), that

(28)
$$\partial^{\varsigma}[y,b]_{\varsigma} = b \in \operatorname{St}_{1}^{\varsigma} \quad \text{and} \quad |[y,b]_{\varsigma}|_{1} \leq 2|b|_{1}.$$

Also, if α is a relative 2-cocycle and c is a relative 2-chain, then $c-[y,\partial^\varsigma c]_\varsigma$ is a relative cycle, hence a relative boundary, so $\langle \alpha,c-[y,\partial^\varsigma c]_\varsigma \rangle=0$ and

(29)
$$\langle \alpha, c \rangle = \langle \alpha, [y, \partial^{\varsigma} c]_{\varsigma} \rangle.$$

10.6. The cohomological characterization. Denote $C_i^{(1)}(X)$ the space of ℓ^1 -summable *i*-chains in X, with coefficients in either \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{Q} , \mathbb{R} , or \mathbb{C} . Let $B_1^{(1)}(X)$ be the image of the boundary map $\partial_2: C_2^{(1)}(X) \to C_1^{(1)}(X)$, with the filling norm $|\cdot|_f$ induced from the norm on $C_2^{(1)}(X)$:

(30)
$$|b|_f := \inf\{|a|_1 \mid a \in C_2^{(1)}(X), \ \partial a = b\}.$$

Theorem 55. Let X be a simply connected combinatorial complex with a uniform bound on the number of boundary edges in 2-cells. The following statements are equivalent.

- (1) X has thin triangles.
- (2) There is $K \geq 0$ such that for any 1-cycle b in X over \mathbb{Q} , $|b|_f \leq K|b|_1$.

The same holds for cycles over \mathbb{Z} , \mathbb{R} , and \mathbb{C} .

Proof. (1) \Rightarrow (2) was proved in [23, Theorem 7] for the case when the complex X is simply connected and admits a cocompact action by a finitely presented group. The argument is mostly due to Gersten. The same argument applies under the above assumptions for X.

For $(2) \Rightarrow (1)$, assume that (1) does not hold and consider the following lemma due to Ol'shanskii.

Lemma 56 ([27, Lemma 3]). Suppose the bisizes of triangles in a geodesic space Y are unbounded. Then for any $t_0 > 0$ there exists a hexagon in Y with thickness $t > t_0$ and perimeter at most 46t.

The assumption of having unbounded bisizes in a geodesic metric space is equivalent to non-hyperbolicity of the space, i.e. to not having thin triangles [27], so this assumption is satisfied for our $\mathcal{G} := X^{(1)}$. Then the conclusion of the lemma means that there exist

- a sequence of numbers t tending to ∞ ,
- a geodesic hexagon w = w(t) in \mathcal{G} for each t,
- a (geodesic) side γ in each w, and
- a vertex $p \in \gamma$,

such that

- $d(e, \gamma') \geq t$, where γ' denotes the union of the sides in w other than γ , and
- the perimeter of w, l(w), is at most 46t.

This allows running the argument similar to [23, Proposition 8], using hexagons instead of quadrilaterals, to show that (2) does not hold. The idea is to take any filling of w and slice it by concentric spheres at p; then show that the sum of the areas of the slices grows quadratically in t. This method was originally used by Ol'shanskii' to show that groups with subquadratic (combinatorial) isoperimetric functions are hyperbolic. [23, Proposition 8] proves a homological version of that statement, using 2-chains instead of van Kampen diagrams.

Recall the Definition 4.2 of finitely presented tuples and Definition 38 of hyperbolic tuples.

Theorem 57. Let $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ be a finitely presented tuple such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function in the sense of Definition 31. Suppose that the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V. Then there is $K \geq 0$ such that for any 1-cycle b in X over \mathbb{Q} , $|b|_f \leq K|b|_1$. The same is true when V is in the class of bounded $\mathbb{R}\Gamma$ -modules, bounded $\mathbb{C}\Gamma$ -modules, or Banach modules.

Proof. We adapt the argument in [23, p.70-72] to the relative case. It suffices to prove the statement for the smallest class, that is the class of Banach modules; those are Banach spaces over \mathbb{R} with a linear Γ-action such that the operator norms of the elements of Γ are uniformly bounded.

Let $V := B_1^{(1)}(X)$. This is a Banach space with respect to the filling norm (30).

The chain maps φ_* and ψ_* defined in 10.2 are in the category of $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules, so for each k, φ_k and ψ_k are linear maps commuting with the Γ -action. Denote for simplicity $C_k^{\varsigma} := C_k(X, \mathbb{Q})$ and $\operatorname{St}_k^{\varsigma} := \operatorname{St}_k^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; \mathbb{Q})$. Consider the dual cochain complexes

$$C_{\varsigma}^k := C_{\varsigma}^k(X,V) := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(C_k^{\varsigma},V) \quad \text{and} \quad \operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^k := \operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^k(\Gamma,\Gamma';V) := \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(\operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^k,V)$$

with the coboundary maps denoted δ_{c} and the dual maps

$$\varphi^* : C_{\varsigma}^* \leftarrow \operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^* \quad \text{and} \quad \psi^* : \operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^* \leftarrow C_{\varsigma}^*.$$

The cochain map $\psi^* \circ \varphi^*$ is homotopic to the identity map, hence $\psi^* \circ \varphi^*$ induces the identity map on cohomology $H^*(G, V)$ in dimensions ≥ 2 .

The universal cocycle $u \in C_{\varsigma}^2$ is the 2-cochain $u: C_2^{\varsigma} \to V$ which coincides with the composition

$$C_2(X,\mathbb{Q}) \stackrel{\partial_2^{\varsigma}}{\to} B_1(X,\mathbb{Q}) \hookrightarrow B_1^{(1)}(X,\mathbb{Q}).$$

One checks that u is indeed a cocycle. By the above observations,

(31)
$$u = (\psi^2 \circ \varphi^2)(u) + \delta_{\varepsilon} v$$

for some 1-cochain $v: C_1^{\varsigma} \to V$.

Since $\varphi^2(u)$ is a cocycle in $\operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^2$ and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective by the assumption,

(32)
$$\varphi^2(u) = u' + \delta_{\varsigma} v',$$

for some 1-cochain $v' \in \operatorname{St}^1_{\varsigma}$ and a bounded 2-cocycle $u' \in \operatorname{St}^2_{\varsigma}$, i.e.

$$|u'|_{\infty} < \infty.$$

The above information is demonstrated by the diagrams

Let $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : C^k(X, V) \oplus C_k(X, \mathbb{Q}) \to V$ and $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \oplus \operatorname{St}_k^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; \mathbb{Q}) \to V$ be the standard pairings.

Pick any 1-boundary $b \in B_1(X, \mathbb{Q})$ and any 2-chain a with $\partial a = b$. The goal is to show that $|b|_f \leq K|b|_1$ for some uniform constant K. By (31),

$$b = \partial a = \langle u, a \rangle = \langle (\psi^2 \circ \varphi^2)(u) + \delta v, a \rangle = \langle (\psi^2 \circ \varphi^2)(u), a \rangle + \langle v, b \rangle.$$

Pick any $y \in I\Gamma$. Since $\varphi^2(u)$ is a cocycle, using (28), (29) and (32),

$$\langle (\psi^2 \circ \varphi^2)(u), a \rangle = \langle \varphi^2(u), \psi_2(a) \rangle = \langle \varphi^2(u), [y, \partial^{\varsigma}(\psi_2(a))]_{\varsigma} \rangle =$$

$$= \langle \varphi^2(u), [y, \psi_1(b)]_{\varsigma} \rangle = \langle u' + \delta_{\varsigma}v', [y, \psi_1(b)]_{\varsigma} \rangle = \langle u', [y, \psi_1(b)]_{\varsigma} \rangle + \langle v', \partial^{\varsigma}[y, \psi_1(b)]_{\varsigma} \rangle =$$

$$= \langle u', [y, \psi_1(b)]_{\varsigma} \rangle + \langle v', \psi_1(b) \rangle = \langle u', [y, \psi_1(b)]_{\varsigma} \rangle + \langle \psi^1(v'), b \rangle.$$

Combining the two formulas above with (28),

$$b = \left\langle u', [y, \psi_1(b)]_\varsigma \right\rangle + \left\langle \psi^1(v') + v, b \right\rangle,$$

$$|b|_f \le \left| \left\langle u', [y, \psi_1(b)]_\varsigma \right\rangle \right|_f + \left| \left\langle \psi^1(v') + v, b \right\rangle \right|_f \le$$

$$\le |u'|_\infty \cdot \left| [y, \psi_1(b)]_\varsigma \right|_1 + \left| \psi^1(v') + v \right|_\infty \cdot |b|_1 =$$

$$= 2|u'|_\infty \cdot \left| \psi_1(b) \right|_1 + \left| \psi^1(v') + v \right|_\infty \cdot |b|_1 \le$$

$$\le \left(2|u'|_\infty \cdot |\psi_1|_\infty + \left| \psi^1(v') + v \right|_\infty \right) \cdot |b|_1.$$

This will give the desired inequality once we prove that all the norms in the parentheses are finite. The cochain u' is bounded by definition (by a constant depending only on the choice of Γ and X, see (33)). The maps $\psi_1: C_1^{\varsigma} \to \operatorname{St}_1^{\varsigma}$ and $\psi^1(v') + v: C_1^{\varsigma} \to V$ are $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -morphisms. Their boundedness (by constants depending only on Γ and X) is immediate from the following simple lemma which is proved similarly to [23, Lemma 10].

Lemma 58. Let S be a Γ -set with finitely many Γ -orbits. Suppose V is a bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module and $f: \mathbb{Q}S \to V$ is a $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -morphism. Then f is bounded with respect to the ℓ^1 -norm on $\mathbb{Q}S$, i.e. $|f|_{\infty} < \infty$.

This finishes the proof of Theorem 57.

Theorem 59. Let Γ be a group and Γ' be a family of its subgroups. The following statements are equivalent.

- (a) (Γ, Γ') is hyperbolic as in 5.1.
- (b) There exists a finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function (for edge-loops), and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V.
- (b') There exists a finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function (for edge-loops), and the map $H_b^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V and all $n \geq 2$.
- (c) There exists a fine finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V.

- (c') There exists a fine finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ and the map $H_b^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V and all $n \geq 2$.
- (d) There exists a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function (for edge-loops), and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V.
- (d') There exists a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} such that X admits a (combinatorial) isoperimetric function (for edge-loops), and the map $H_b^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V and all $n \geq 2$.
- (e) There exists a fine tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} and the map $H_b^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^2(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V.
- (e') There exists a fine tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} and the map $H_b^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ is surjective for all bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules V and all $n \geq 2$.

Bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -modules in this statement can be replaced with bounded $\mathbb{R}\Gamma$ -modules, bounded $\mathbb{C}\Gamma$ -modules, or Banach modules.

Proof. Implications $(\mathbf{b}') \Rightarrow (\mathbf{b}), (\mathbf{c}') \Rightarrow (\mathbf{c}), (\mathbf{d}') \Rightarrow (\mathbf{d}), (\mathbf{e}') \Rightarrow (\mathbf{e}), (\mathbf{d}) \Rightarrow (\mathbf{b}), (\mathbf{d}') \Rightarrow (\mathbf{b}'), (\mathbf{e}) \Rightarrow (\mathbf{c}), (\mathbf{e}') \Rightarrow (\mathbf{c}')$ are obvious. Equivalences $(\mathbf{b}) \Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{c}), (\mathbf{b}') \Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{c}'), (\mathbf{d}) \Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{e}), (\mathbf{d}') \Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{e}')$ follow from Proposition 32.

(a) \Rightarrow (e') Fix any bounded $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -module V. Since (Γ, Γ') is hyperbolic, by Theorem 41 there exists a tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ of type \mathcal{F} with $\mathcal{V}(X) = \mathcal{V}'$, and therefore we obtain chain maps φ_* and ψ_* as in 10.2.

Take any $n \geq 2$ and any relative n-cocycle f in $\operatorname{St}_{\varsigma}^{n}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) = \operatorname{Hom}_{\mathbb{Q}\Gamma}(\operatorname{St}_{n}^{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma'), V)$. The cocycle f is not necessarily bounded, but the composition $f \circ \psi_{n} : C_{n}(X, \mathbb{Q}) \to V$ is, by Lemma 58, because there are only finitely many Γ -orbits of n-simplices in X and $f \circ \psi_{n}$ is a $\mathbb{Q}\Gamma$ -morphism.

Since the standard resolution $\operatorname{St}^{\varsigma}_*$ is projective, the composition $\psi_* \circ \varphi_*$ is homotopic to the identity map of $\operatorname{St}^{\varsigma}_*$, and therefore the dual chain map $\varphi^* \circ \psi^* : \operatorname{St}^*_{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to \operatorname{St}^*_{\varsigma}(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$ induces the identity map on the relative cohomology in dimensions $n \geq 2$. This implies that the relative cocycle $(\varphi^n \circ \psi^n)(f)$ is cohomologous to f. But $(\varphi^n \circ \psi^n)(f) = f \circ \psi_n \circ \varphi_n$ is bounded because $f \circ \psi_n$ and φ_n are. This proves the surjectivity of the map $H^n_b(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V) \to H^n(\Gamma, \Gamma'; V)$. (b) \Rightarrow (a) Suppose to the contrary that there exists a finitely presented tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ such that $X^{(1)}$ is fine, but the pair (Γ, Γ') is not hyperbolic. This implies that this tuple $(\Gamma, \Gamma', X, \mathcal{V}')$ is not hyperbolic, i.e. $X^{(1)}$ does not have fine triangles. Proposition 10 implies that $X^{(1)}$ does not have thin triangles. By Proposition 32, X admits a linear isoperimetric function. Now theorems 55 and 57 imply that $X^{(1)}$ has thin triangles, which is a contradiction.

10.7. The non-vanishing of the simplicial (semi)norm.

Theorem 60. Let (Γ, Γ') be a hyperbolic pair and (Y, Y') be a classifying space for (Γ, Γ') as in 9.1. Then for any $k \geq 2$ and any non-zero $z \in H_k(Y, Y'; \mathbb{R})$, the (relative) simplicial (semi)norm of z is positive.

Proof. Take any such z. Since \mathbb{R} is a field, using the relative simplicial resolution $Si^*(Y, Y')$ from 9.1 one can find $\alpha \in H^k(Y, Y'; \mathbb{R})$ such that $\langle \alpha, z \rangle = 1$. Since $H^k_b(Y, Y'; \mathbb{R}) \to H^k(Y, Y'; \mathbb{R})$ is the same as $H^k_b(\Gamma, \Gamma'; \mathbb{R}) \to H^k(\Gamma, \Gamma'; \mathbb{R})$, Theorem 59 implies that α is the image of some $\beta \in H^k_b(\Gamma, \Gamma'; \mathbb{R})$, hence $\langle \beta, z \rangle = \langle \alpha, z \rangle = 1$. Now Proposition 54 implies that $|z|_1 > 0$.

The relative statements proved in this paper imply the non-relative ones. The non-relative case is recovered by taking Γ' to be the family consisting of the trivial subgroup.

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Igor Mineyev, University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign mineyev@math.uiuc.edu http://www.math.uiuc.edu/~mineyev/math/

AslıYaman, CRM, Apartat 50, E-08193, Bellaterra, Spain ayaman@crm.es

http://www.crm.es/Visitors/PaginesPersonalsVisitants/Asli_Yaman/