## Notation

We follow the notation and conventions of Hartshorne (1977); Kollár and Mori (1998) and Kollár (2013b). Our schemes are Noetherian and separated. At the beginning of each chapter we state further assumptions. Many of the results should work over excellent base schemes, but most of the current proofs apply only in characteristic 0 .

A variety is usually an integral scheme of finite type over a field. However, following standard usage, a stable variety or a locally stable variety is reduced, pure dimensional, but possibly reducible.

Affine $n$-space over a field $k$ is denoted by $\mathbb{A}_{k}^{n}$, or by $\mathbb{A}^{n}\left(x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}\right)$ or $\mathbb{A}_{\mathbf{x}}^{n}$ if we emphasize that the coordinates are $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$. Same conventions for projective $n$-space $\mathbb{P}^{n}$.

The canonical class of $X$ is denoted by $K_{X}$, and the canonical sheaf or dualizing sheaf by $\omega_{X}$; see (1.23) for varieties and (11.2) for schemes. Since $\mathscr{O}_{X}\left(K_{X}\right) \simeq \omega_{X}$, we switch between the divisor and sheaf versions whenever it is convenient. Here $K_{X}$ is more frequently used on normal varieties, and $\omega_{X}$ in more general settings. Functorial properties work better for $\omega_{X}$.

A smooth proper variety $X$ is of general type if $\left|m K_{X}\right|$ defines a birational map for $m \gg 1$, see (1.30). The Kodaira dimension of $X$, denoted by $\kappa(X)$, is the dimension of the image of $\left|m K_{X}\right|$ for $m$ sufficiently large and divisible.

## Notation Commonly Used in Birational Geometry

A map or rational map is defined on a dense set; it is denoted by $\rightarrow-$. A morphism is everywhere defined; it is denoted by $\rightarrow$. A contraction is a proper morphism $g: X \rightarrow Y$ such that $g_{*} \mathscr{O}_{X}=\mathscr{O}_{Y}$.

A map $g: X \rightarrow Y$ between (possibly reducible) schemes is birational if there are nowhere dense closed subsets $Z_{X} \subset X$ and $Z_{Y} \subset Y$ such that $g$ restricts to
an isomorphism $\left(X \backslash Z_{X}\right) \simeq\left(Y \backslash Z_{Y}\right)$. The smallest such $Z_{X}$ is the exceptional set of $g$, denoted by $\operatorname{Ex}(g)$. A birational map $g: X \rightarrow Y$ is small if $\operatorname{Ex}(g)$ has codimension $\geq 2$ in $X$.

A resolution of $X$ is a proper, birational morphism $p: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X$, where $X^{\prime}$ is nonsingular. $X$ has rational singularities if $p_{*} \mathscr{O}_{X^{\prime}}=\mathscr{O}_{X}$ and $R^{i} p_{*} \mathscr{O}_{X^{\prime}}=0$ for $i>0$; see Kollár and Mori (1998, Sec.5.1). Rational implies Cohen-Macaulay, abbreviated as $C M$; see (10.4).

Let $g: X \rightarrow Y$ be a birational map defined on the open set $X^{\circ} \subset X$. For a subscheme $W \subset X$, the closure of $g\left(W \cap X^{\circ}\right) \subset Y$ is the birational transform, provided $W \cap X^{\circ}$ is dense in $W$. It is denoted by $g_{*}(W)$

Following the confusion established in the literature, a divisor on $X$ is either a prime divisor or a Weil divisor; the context usually makes it clear which one.

We use divisor over $X$ to mean a prime divisor on some $\pi: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X$ that is birational to $X$. The center of $E$ on $X$, denoted by center ${ }_{X} E$, is (the closure of) $\pi(E) \subset X$.

A $\mathbb{Z}$-, $\mathbb{Q}$ - or $\mathbb{R}$-divisor (more precisely, Weil $\mathbb{Z}$-, $\mathbb{Q}$ - or $\mathbb{R}$-divisor) is a finite linear combinations of prime divisors $\sum a_{i} D_{i}$, where $a_{i} \in \mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$ or $\mathbb{R}$. A divisor is reduced if $a_{i}=1$ for every $i$. See Section 4.3 for various versions of divisors (Weil, Cartier, etc.).

A $\mathbb{Z}$ - or $\mathbb{Q}$-divisor $D$ on a normal variety is $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier if $m D$ is Cartier for some $m>0$. (See (11.43) for the $\mathbb{R}$ version.) The smallest $m \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $m D$ is Cartier is called the Cartier index or simply index of $D$. On a nonnormal variety $Y$ these notions make sense if $Y$ is nonsingular at the generic points of Supp D; we call these Mumford divisors, see (4.16.4) and Section 4.8.

The index of a variety $Y$, denoted by index $(Y)$, is the Cartier index of $K_{Y}$.
Linear equivalence of $\mathbb{Z}$-divisors is denoted by $D_{1} \sim D_{2}$. Two $\mathbb{Q}$-divisors are $\mathbb{Q}$-linearly equivalent if $m D_{1} \sim m D_{2}$ for some $m>0$. It is denoted by $D_{1} \sim_{\mathbb{Q}} D_{2}$. (See (11.43) for the $\mathbb{R}$ version.)

Numerical equivalence of divisors $D_{i}$ or curves $C_{i}$ is denoted by $D_{1} \equiv D_{2}$ and $C_{1} \equiv C_{2}$.

The intersection number of $\mathbb{R}$-Cartier divisors $D_{1}, \ldots, D_{r}$ on $X$ with a proper subscheme $Z \subset X$ of dimension $r$ is denoted by $\left(D_{1} \cdots D_{r} \cdot Z\right)$ or $\left(D_{1} \cdots D_{r}\right)_{Z}$. We omit $Z$ if $Z=X$, and for self-intersections we use $\left(D^{r}\right)$.

An $\mathbb{R}$-Cartier divisor $D$ (resp. line bundle $L$ ) on a proper scheme $X$ is nef, if $(D \cdot C) \geq 0$ (resp. $\operatorname{deg}\left(\left.L\right|_{C}\right) \geq 0$ ) for every integral curve $C \subset X$.

Let $g: X \rightarrow S$ be a proper morphism. For a $\mathbb{Q}$-Cartier divisor we use $g$-ample and relatively ample interchangeably; see (11.51) for $\mathbb{R}$-Cartier divisors.

The rounding down (resp. up) of a real number $d$ is denoted by $\lfloor d\rfloor$ (resp. $\lceil d\rceil$ ). For a divisor $D=\sum d_{i} D_{i}$ we use $\lfloor D\rfloor:=\sum\left\lfloor d_{i}\right\rfloor D_{i}$, where the $D_{i}$ are distinct, irreducible divisors. The fractional part is $\{D\}:=D-\lfloor D\rfloor$.

An $\mathbb{R}$-divisor $D$ on a proper, irreducible variety is big if $\lfloor m D\rfloor$ defines a birational map for $m \gg 1$.

A pair $\left(X, \Delta=\sum a_{i} D_{i}\right)$ consist of a scheme $X$ and a Weil divisor $\Delta$ on it, the coefficients can be in $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{Q}$ or $\mathbb{R}$. The divisor part of a pair is frequently called the boundary of the pair. (Some authors call $\Delta$ a boundary only if $0 \leq a_{i} \leq 1$ for every $i$.) When we start with a scheme $X$ and a compactification $X^{*} \supset X$, frequently $X^{*} \backslash X$ is also called a boundary; this usage is well entrenched for moduli spaces. (Neither agrees with the notion of "boundary" in topology.)

A simple normal crossing pair - usually abbreviated as snc pair - is a pair $(X, D)$, where $X$ is regular, and at each $p \in X$ there are local coordinates $x_{1}, \ldots, x_{n}$ and an open neighborhood $x \in U \subset X$ such that $U \cap \operatorname{Supp} D \subset$ $\left(x_{1} \cdots x_{n}=0\right)$. We also say that $D$ is an snc divisor. A scheme $Y$ has simple normal crossing singularities if every point $y \in Y$ has an open neighborhood $y \in V \subset Y$ that is isomorphic to an snc divisor.

A $\log$ resolution of $(X, \Delta)$ is a proper, birational morphism $p: X^{\prime} \rightarrow X$, where $X^{\prime}$ is nonsingular and $\operatorname{Supp} \pi^{-1}(\Delta) \cup \operatorname{Ex}(\pi)$ is an snc divisor.

We are mostly interested in proper pairs $(X, \Delta)$ with $\log$ canonical singularities (11.5). Such a pair is of general type if $K_{X}+\Delta$ is big. In examples, we encounter pairs with $K_{X}+\Delta \equiv 0$ (called (log)-Calabi-Yau pairs) or with $-\left(K_{X}+\Delta\right)$ ample (called (log)-Fano pairs).

In the literature, "canonical model" can refer to three different notions. We distinguish them as follows. (See Section 11.2 for pairs and for relative versions.)

Given a smooth, proper variety $X$, its canonical model is a proper variety $X^{\text {c }}$ that is birational to $X$, has canonical singularities and ample canonical class.

Given a variety $X$, its canonical modification is a proper, birational morphism $\pi: X^{\mathrm{cm}} \rightarrow X$ such that $X^{\mathrm{cm}}$ has canonical singularities and its canonical class is $\pi$-ample.

Given a variety $X$ with resolution $Y \rightarrow X$, the canonical model of $Y$ is the canonical model of resolutions of $X$, denoted by $X^{\text {cr }}$. This is independent of $Y$.

## Additional Conventions Used in This Book

These we follow most of the time, but define them at each occurrence.
The normalization of a scheme $X$ is usually denoted by $\bar{X}$ or $X^{\mathrm{n}}$. However, if $D$ is a divisor on $X$, then usually $\bar{D}$ denotes its preimage in $\bar{X}$. Then $\bar{D}^{n}$ denotes the normalization of $\bar{D}$. Unfortunately, a bar is also frequently used to denote the compactification of a scheme or moduli space.

Usually, we use $S^{\circ} \subset S$ to denote an open, dense subset. Then sheaves or divisors on $S^{\circ}$ are usually indicated by $F^{\circ}$ or $D^{\circ}$. If $G$ is an algebraic group, then $G^{\circ}$ denotes the identity component.

We write moduli functors in caligraphic and moduli spaces in roman. Thus for stable varieties we have $\mathcal{S V}$ (functor) and SV (moduli space).

Let $F, G$ be quasi-coherent sheaves on a scheme $X$. Then $\operatorname{Hom}_{X}(F, G)$ is the set of $\mathscr{O}_{X}$-linear sheaf homomorphisms (it is also an $H^{0}\left(X, \mathscr{O}_{X}\right)$-module), and $\mathcal{H o m}{ }_{X}(F, G)$ is the sheaf of $\mathscr{O}_{X}$-linear sheaf homomorphisms. See (9.34) for the hom-scheme $\operatorname{Hom}_{S}(F, G)$.
$\operatorname{Mor}_{S}(X, Y)$ denotes the set of $S$-morphisms from $X$ to $Y$, and $\operatorname{Mor}_{S}(X, Y)$ the scheme that represents the functor $T \mapsto \operatorname{Mor}_{S}\left(X \times_{S} T, Y \times_{S} T\right)$ (if it exists); see (8.63). Same conventions for $\operatorname{Isom}_{S}(X, Y)$ and $\operatorname{Aut}_{S}(X)$. If $X$ is a proper $\mathbb{C}$-scheme, then one can pretty much identify $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{C}}(X)$ with $\operatorname{Aut}_{\mathbb{C}}(X)$.

We distinguish the Picard group $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$ (as in Hartshorne, 1977), and the Picard scheme $\operatorname{Pic}(X)$ (as in Mumford, 1966).

Base change. Given morphisms $f: X \rightarrow S$ and $q: T \rightarrow S$, we write the base change diagram as


Objects obtained by pull-back to $X_{T}$ are usually denoted either by a subscript $T$ or by $q_{X}^{*}$. The fiber over a point $s \in S$ is denoted by a subscript $s$. However, we frequently encounter the situation that the fiber product is not the "right" pull-back and needs to be "corrected." Roughly speaking, this happens when the fiber product picks up some embedded subscheme/sheaf, and the "correct" pull-back is the quotient by it.

Thus, for divisors $D$ on $X$, we let $D_{T}$ denote the divisorial pull-back or restriction, which is the divisorial part of $X \times_{T} D$; see (4.6). We write $D_{T}^{\text {div }}$ if we want to emphasize this (2.73). For coherent sheaves $F$ on $X$, we frequently use the hull bull-back, denoted by $F_{T}^{H}$ or $q_{X}^{[*]} F$; see (3.27).

Brackets are used to denote something naturally associated to an object. We use it to denote the cycle associated to a subscheme (1.3) and the point in the moduli space corresponding to a variety/pair.

The completion of a pointed scheme $(x \in X)$ is denoted by $\hat{X}$, or $\hat{X}_{x}$ if we want to emphasize the point. For $\hat{\mathbb{A}}^{n}$, the point is assumed the origin, unless otherwise noted. See also (10.52.6).

## Numbering

We number everything consecutively. Thus, for example, (2.3) refers to item 3 in Chapter 2. References to sections are given as "Section 2.3." Tertiary numbering is consecutive within items, including lists and formulas. For example, (2.3.2) is subitem 2 in item (2.3), but within (2.3) we may use only (2) as reference.

