

# TYPESCRIPT

Zero maybe not to hero



## A brief history of typescript

in 2010, anders hejlsberg (the creator of typescript) started working on typescript at Microsoft and in 2012 the first version of typescript was released to the public (typescript 0.8). Although the release of typescript was praised by many people around the world, due to the lack of support by major IDEs, it was not majorly adopted by the JavaScript community.

The first version of typescript (typescript 0.8) released to the public October 2012.

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# TYPESCRIPT 1.X (2012-2015)

**INITIAL VERSIONS (1.0 RELEASED IN 2014)** INTRODUCED TYPESCRIPT AS A SUPERSET OF JAVASCRIPT WITH OPTIONAL :

- STATIC TYPING
- CLASSES
- MODULES

**TYPESCRIPT 1.5** ADDED SUPPORT FOR :

ES6 FEATURES, INCLUDING MODULES AND DECORATORS.

# TYPESCRIPT 2.X (2016-2018)

MAJOR ADVANCES IN TYPES AND STRICTNESS :

TYPESCRIPT 2.0 INTRODUCED NULLABLE TYPES  
( **NULL** AND **UNDEFINED** ) AND THE **NEVER** TYPE.

**VERSION 2.1** INTRODUCED

**ASYNC/AWAIT SUPPORT**,  
MAKING TYPESCRIPT INCREASINGLY POPULAR FOR MODERN JAVASCRIPT APPLICATIONS.

**TYPESCRIPT 2.4** INTRODUCED DYNAMIC IMPORT SYNTAX, MAKING CODE-SPLITTING EASIER FOR LARGER APPLICATIONS.

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# TYPESCRIPT 3.X (2018-2019)

**TYPESCRIPT 3.0,**

CONDITIONAL TYPES

PROJECT REFERENCES WERE INTRODUCED, SUPPORTING LARGER-SCALE PROJECTS.

**TYPESCRIPT 3.7**

INTRODUCED OPTIONAL CHAINING AND **NULLISH COALESCING**,  
SIMPLIFYING CODE THAT INTERACTS WITH DEEPLY NESTED OR POTENTIALLY **NULL** VALUES

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# TYPESCRIPT 4.X (2020-2023)

**TYPESCRIPT 4.0** INTRODUCED **VARIADIC TUPLE TYPES**, ENABLING GREATER FLEXIBILITY IN HANDLING ARRAY TYPES.

**TYPESCRIPT 4.1** ADDED **TEMPLATE LITERAL TYPES**, WHICH ALLOWED DEVELOPERS TO ENFORCE CONSTRAINTS ON STRING PATTERNS.

**TYPESCRIPT 4.9** INTRODUCED THE **SATISFIES OPERATOR** TO ENFORCE THE SHAPE OF COMPLEX OBJECTS WITHOUT CREATING REDUNDANT TYPES.

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# TYPESCRIPT 5.X (2023-PRESENT)

THE **TYPESCRIPT 5.X** SERIES HAS FOCUSED  
ON PERFORMANCE  
NEW LANGUAGE FEATURES:

**TYPESCRIPT 5.0** INCLUDED  
**DECORATORS** ALIGNED WITH THE ECMAScript STANDARD,  
MAKING IT MORE COMPATIBLE WITH FUTURE JAVASCRIPT VERSIONS.

**TYPESCRIPT 5.5** (LATEST STABLE) BROUGHT SIGNIFICANT IMPROVEMENTS  
LIKE ENHANCED REGEX SUPPORT  
AND ECMAScript **SET** METHODS, ENHANCING TYPESCRIPT'S UTILITY WITH NEW JAVASCRIPT STANDARDS

# Why typescript?

**Typescript** is open source.

**Typescript** simplifies JavaScript code, making it easier to read and debug.

**Typescript** is a superset of ES3, ES5, and ES6.

**Typescript** will save developers time.

**Typescript** code can be compiled as per ES5 and ES6 standards to support the latest browser.

**Typescript** can help us to avoid painful bugs that developers commonly run into when writing JavaScript by type checking the code.

**Typescript** is nothing but JavaScript with some additional features.

...

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# Typescript features

**Cross-platform:** typescript runs on any platform that JavaScript runs on. The typescript compiler can be installed on any operating system such as windows, mac os and Linux.

**Object oriented language:** typescript provides powerful features such as classes, interfaces, and modules. You can write pure object-oriented code for client-side as well as server-side development.

**Static type-checking:** typescript uses static typing. This is done using type annotations. It helps type checking at compile time. Thus, you can find errors while typing the code without running your script each time. Additionally, using the type inference mechanism, if a variable is declared without a type, it will be inferred based on its value.

**Optional static typing:** typescript also allows optional static typing if you would rather use JavaScript's dynamic typing.

**DOM manipulation:** just like JavaScript, typescript can be used to manipulate the DOM for adding or removing elements.

**ES 6 features:** typescript includes most features of planned ECMAScript 2015 (ES 6, 7) such as class, interface, arrow functions etc.

# SETUP DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT

Install typescript using [node.js package manager \(npm\)](#).

Install the typescript plug-in in your IDE (integrated development environment).

- `npm install -g typescript`
- `tsc -v`  
Version blah.blah.blah

## TYPESCRIPT PLAYGROUND

Typescript provides an online playground <https://www.Typescriptlang.Org/play> to write and test your code on the fly without the need to download or install anything.

## TypeScript Data Type

- Number
- String
- Boolean
- Array
- Tuple
- Enum
- Union
- Any
- Void
- Never

## Variable Declaration

Variables can be declared using :  
**var, let, const**

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# TypeScript Data Type - NUMBER

## Example: TypeScript Number Type Variables

```
let first:number = 123; // number
let second: number = 0x37CF; // hexadecimal
let third:number=0o377 ; // octal
let fourth: number = 0b111001;// binary

console.log(first); // 123
console.log(second); // 14287
console.log(third); // 255
console.log(fourth); // 57
```

# TypeScript Data Type - STRING

## Example: TypeScript String Type Variable

```
let employeeName:string = 'John Smith';
//OR
let employeeName:string = "John Smith";
```

# TypeScript Data Type - BOOLEAN

```
let isPresent:boolean = true;
```

Note that, boolean with an upper case B is different from boolean with a lower case b. Upper case boolean is an **object** type whereas lower case boolean is a **primitive type**. It is always recommended to use boolean, the primitive type in your programs. This is because, while JavaScript coerces an object to its primitive type, the typescript type system does not. Typescript treats it like an object type.

# TypeScript Data Type - Array

1. Using square brackets. This method is similar to how you would declare arrays in JavaScript.

```
let fruits: string[] = ['Apple', 'Orange', 'Banana'];
```

2. Using a generic array type, array<element type>.

```
let fruits: Array<string> = ['Apple', 'Orange', 'Banana'];
```

Of course, you can always initialize an array like shown below, but you will not get the advantage of typescript's type system.

```
let arr = [1, 3, 'Apple', 'Orange', 'Banana', true, false];
```

## Example: Array Declaration and Initialization

```
let fruits: Array<string>;  
fruits = ['Apple', 'Orange', 'Banana'];  
  
let ids: Array<number>;  
ids = [23, 34, 100, 124, 44];
```

## Example: Multi Type Array

```
let values: (string | number)[] = ['Apple', 2, 'Orange', 3, 4, 'Banana'];  
// or  
let values: Array<string | number> = ['Apple', 2, 'Orange', 3, 4, 'Banana'];
```

# TYPESCRIPT DATA TYPE - TUPLE

Typescript introduced a new data type called tuple. There are other data types such as number, string, boolean etc. In typescript which only store a value of that particular data type. Tuple is a new data type which includes two set of values of different data types.

## Example: Tuple vs Other Data Types

```
var empId: number = 1;
var empName: string = "Steve";

// Tuple type variable
var employee: [number, string] = [1, "Steve"];
```

## Example: Tuple

```
var employee: [number, string] = [1, "Steve"];
var person: [number, string, boolean] = [1, "Steve", true];

var user: [number, string, boolean, number, string]; // declare tuple variable
user = [1, "Steve", true, 20, "Admin"]; // initialize tuple variable
```



You can declare an array of tuple also.

### Example: Tuple Array

```
var employee: [number, string][];  
employee = [[1, "Steve"], [2, "Bill"], [3, "Jeff"]];
```

## Add Elements into Tuple

### Example: push()

```
var employee: [number, string] = [1, "Steve"];  
employee.push(2, "Bill");  
console.log(employee); //Output: [1, 'Steve', 2, 'Bill']
```

# **TYPESCRIPT DATA TYPE - ENUM**

Enums or enumerations are a new data type supported in typescript. Most object-oriented languages like java and C# use enums. This is now available in typescript too.

## **There are three types of enums:**

**Numeric enum**

**String enum**

**Heterogeneous enum**



# Numeric Enum

Numeric enums are number-based enums i.e. they store string values as numbers.

## Example: Numeric Enum

```
enum PrintMedia {  
    Newspaper,  
    Newsletter,  
    Magazine,  
    Book  
}
```

## Example: Enum as Return Type

```
enum PrintMedia {  
    Newspaper = 1,  
    Newsletter,  
    Magazine,  
    Book  
}  
  
function getMedia(mediaName: string): PrintMedia {  
    if ( mediaName === 'Forbes' || mediaName === 'Outlook') {  
        return PrintMedia.Magazine;  
    }  
}  
  
let mediaType: PrintMedia = getMedia('Forbes'); // returns Magazine
```

Numeric enums can include members with computed numeric value. The value of an enum member can be either a constant or computed. The following enum includes members with computed values.

### Example: Computed Enum

```
enum PrintMedia {  
    Newspaper = 1,  
    Newsletter = getPrintMediaCode('newsletter'),  
    Magazine = Newsletter * 3,  
    Book = 10  
}  
  
function getPrintMediaCode(mediaName: string): number {  
    if (mediaName === 'newsletter') {  
        return 5;  
    }  
}  
  
PrintMedia.Newsetter; // returns 5  
PrintMedia.Magazine; // returns 15
```

When the enum includes computed and constant members, then uninitiated enum members either must come first or must come after other initialized members with numeric constants.

# STRING ENUM

String enums are similar to numeric enums, except that the enum values are initialized with string values rather than numeric values.

## Example: String Enum

```
enum PrintMedia {  
    Newspaper = "NEWSPAPER",  
    Newsletter = "NEWSLETTER",  
    Magazine = "MAGAZINE",  
    Book = "BOOK"  
}  
  
// Access String Enum  
PrintMedia.Newspaper; //returns NEWSPAPER  
PrintMedia['Magazine'];//returns MAGAZINE
```

The difference between numeric and string enums is that numeric enum values are auto-incremented, while string enum values need to be individually initialized.

# HETEROGENEOUS ENUM

Heterogeneous enums are enums that contain both string and numeric values.

## Example: Heterogeneous Enum

```
enum Status {  
    Active = 'ACTIVE',  
    Deactivate = 1,  
    Pending  
}
```

```
"use strict";  
var Status;  
(function (Status) {  
    Status["Active"] = "ACTIVE";  
    Status[Status["Deactivate"] = 1] = "Deactivate";  
    Status[Status["Pending"] = 2] = "Pending";  
})(Status || (Status = {}));
```

# TYPESCRIPT - UNION

Typescript allows us to use more than one data type for a variable or a function parameter. This is called union type.

## Example: Union

```
let code: (string | number);  
code = 123; // OK  
code = "ABC"; // OK  
code = false; // Compiler Error
```

```
let empId: string | number;  
empId = 111; // OK  
empId = "E111"; // OK  
empId = true; // Compiler Error
```

## Example: Function Parameter as Union Type

```
function displayType(code: (string | number))  
{  
    if(typeof(code) === "number")  
        console.log('Code is number.')  
    else if(typeof(code) === "string")  
        console.log('Code is string.')  
}  
  
displayType(123); // Output: Code is number.  
displayType("ABC"); // Output: Code is string.  
displayType(true); //Compiler Error: Argument of type 'true' is not assignable to a parameter of type string | number
```

# TYPESCRIPT DATA TYPE - ANY

Typescript has type-checking and compile-time checks. However, we do not always have prior knowledge about the type of some variables, especially when there are user-entered values from third party libraries. In such cases, we need a provision that can deal with dynamic content.

## Example: Any

```
let something: any = "Hello World!";  
something = 23;  
something = true;
```

## Example: Any type Array

```
let arr: any[] = ["John", 212, true];  
arr.push("Smith");  
console.log(arr); //Output: [ 'John', 212, true, 'Smith' ]
```



# TYPESCRIPT DATA TYPE - VOID

Similar to languages like java, void is used where there is no data type. For example, in return type of functions that do not return any value.

## Example: void

```
function sayHi(): void {  
    console.log('Hi!')  
}  
  
let speech: void = sayHi();  
console.log(speech); //Output: undefined
```

**\* There is no meaning to assign void to a variable, as only null or undefined is assignable to void.**

# TYPESCRIPT DATA TYPE - NEVER

Typescript introduced a new type never, which indicates the values that will never occur.

The never type is used when you are sure that something is never going to occur. For example, you write a function which will not return to its end point or always throws an exception.

## Example: never

```
function throwError(errorMsg: string): never {  
    throw new Error(errorMsg);  
}  
  
function keepProcessing(): never {  
    while (true) {  
        console.log('I always does something and never ends.')  
    }  
}
```

# DIFFERENCE BETWEEN NEVER AND VOID

The void type can have undefined or null as a value where as never cannot have any value.

Example: never

```
function throwError(errorMsg: string): never {  
    throw new Error(errorMsg);  
}  
  
function keepProcessing(): never {  
    while (true) {  
        console.log('I always does something and never ends.')  
    }  
}
```

In typescript, a function that does not return a value, actually returns undefined.

```
function sayHi(): void {  
    console.log('Hi!')  
}  
  
let speech: void = sayHi();  
console.log(speech); // undefined
```

# TYPE INFERENCE IN TYPESCRIPT

Il n'est pas obligatoire d'annoter le type. TypeScript déduit des types de variables lorsqu'aucune information explicite n'est disponible sous la forme d'annotations de type.

## Les types sont déduits par le compilateur TypeScript lorsque:

- Variables are initialized
- Default values are set for parameters
- Function return types are determined

For example:

```
var a = "some text";  
var b = 123;  
a = b; // Compiler Error: Type 'number' is not assignable to type 'string'
```

Le code ci-dessus affiche une erreur car lors de la déduction des types, TypeScript a déduit le type de variable a sous forme de chaîne et la variable b sous forme de nombre. Lorsque nous essayons d'attribuer b à a, le compilateur se plaint en disant qu'un type numérique ne peut pas être attribué à un type chaîne.

# TYPE INFERENCE IN COMPLEX OBJECTS

**For example:**

```
var arr = [ 10, null, 30, 40 ];
```

Dans l'exemple ci-dessus, nous avons un tableau qui a les valeurs 10, null, 30 et 40 . typescript recherche le type le plus courant pour déduire le type de l'objet. Dans ce cas, il choisit celui qui est compatible avec tous les types, c'est-à-dire Number, ainsi que null.

**Consider another example:**

```
var arr = [0, 1, "test"];
```

Ici, le tableau a des valeurs de type numéro ainsi que de type chaîne. Dans de tels cas, le compilateur TypeScript recherche le type le plus courant pour déduire le type de l'objet mais ne trouve aucun super type pouvant englober tous les types présents dans le tableau. Dans de tels cas, le compilateur traite le type comme une union de tous les types présents dans le tableau. Ici, le type serait (string | number), ce qui signifie que le tableau peut contenir soit des valeurs de chaîne, soit des valeurs numériques. C'est ce qu'on appelle le type d'union.

# TYPE ASSERTION IN TYPESCRIPT

Il existe deux façons de faire une assertion de type en typescrit:

- Using the angular bracket <> syntax.

```
let code: any = 123;  
let employeeCode = <number> code;
```

- Using as keyword

```
let code: any = 123;  
let employeeCode = code as number;
```

L'assertion de type vous permet de définir le type d'une valeur et d'indiquer au compilateur de ne pas la déduire. C'est à ce moment-là que vous, en tant que programmeur, pourriez avoir une meilleure compréhension du type d'une variable que ce que Typescript peut déduire seul. Une telle situation peut se produire lorsque vous transférez du code à partir de JavaScript et que vous connaissez peut-être un type de variable plus précis que celui actuellement attribué. C'est similaire au transtypage dans d'autres langages comme C# et Java. Cependant, contrairement à C# et Java, il n'y a aucun effet d'exécution de l'assertion de type dans Typescript. C'est simplement un moyen de faire connaître au compilateur Typescript le type d'une variable.

# TYPESCRIPT - FUNCTION

Les fonctions peuvent également inclure des types de paramètres et un type de retour.

## Example: Function with Parameter and Return Types

```
let Sum = function(x: number, y: number) : number
{
    return x + y;
}

Sum(2,3); // returns 5
```

Les paramètres sont des valeurs ou des arguments transmis à une fonction. Dans Typescript, le compilateur s'attend à ce qu'une fonction reçoive le nombre exact et le type d'arguments tels que définis dans la signature de la fonction. Si la fonction attend trois paramètres, le compilateur vérifie que l'utilisateur a transmis des valeurs pour les trois paramètres, c'est-à-dire qu'il vérifie les correspondances exactes.

## Example: Function Parameters

```
function Greet(greeting: string, name: string) : string {
    return greeting + ' ' + name + '!';
}

Greet('Hello','Steve');//OK, returns "Hello Steve!"
Greet('Hi'); // Compiler Error: Expected 2 arguments, but got 1.
Greet('Hi','Bill','Gates');//Compiler Error: Expected 2 arguments, but got 3.
```

# OPTIONAL PARAMETERS IN FUNCTIONS

Tous les paramètres facultatifs doivent suivre les paramètres requis et doivent être à la fin.

## Example: Optional Parameter

```
function Greet(greeting: string, name?: string ) : string {  
    return greeting + ' ' + name + '!';  
}  
  
Greet('Hello','Steve');//OK, returns "Hello Steve!"  
Greet('Hi'); // OK, returns "Hi undefined!".  
Greet('Hi','Bill','Gates');//Compiler Error: Expected 2 arguments, but got 3.
```

Dans l'exemple ci-dessus, le nom du deuxième paramètre est marqué comme facultatif avec un point d'interrogation ajouté à la fin. Par conséquent, la fonction greet() accepte 1 ou 2 paramètres et renvoie une chaîne de salutation. Si nous ne spécifions pas le deuxième paramètre alors sa valeur sera indéfinie.



# TYPESCRIPT - FUNCTION OVERLOADING

Typescript fournit le concept de surcharge de fonctions. Vous pouvez avoir plusieurs fonctions avec le même nom mais des types de paramètres et des types de retour différents. Cependant, le nombre de paramètres doit être le même.

## Example: Function Overloading

```
function add(a:string, b:string):string;

function add(a:number, b:number): number;

function add(a: any, b:any): any {
    return a + b;
}

add("Hello ", "Steve"); // returns "Hello Steve"
add(10, 20); // returns 30
```

La surcharge de fonctions avec un nombre différent de paramètres et de types portant le même nom n'est pas prise en charge.

# TYPESCRIPT - REST PARAMETERS

Typescript a introduit des paramètres REST pour s'adapter facilement à un nombre n de paramètres. Lorsque le nombre de paramètres qu'une fonction recevra **n'est pas connu ou peut varier**, on peut utiliser des paramètres REST. En JavaScript, ceci est réalisé avec la variable "arguments". Cependant, avec TypeScript, nous pouvons utiliser le paramètre REST noté par des points de suspension **...**.

## Example: Rest Parameters

```
function Greet(greeting: string, ...names: string[]) {  
    return greeting + " " + names.join(", ") + "!";  
}  
  
Greet("Hello", "Steve", "Bill"); // returns "Hello Steve, Bill!"  
  
Greet("Hello");// returns "Hello !"
```

N'oubliez pas que les paramètres de repos doivent venir en dernier dans la définition de la fonction, sinon le compilateur Typescript affichera une erreur. Ce qui suit n'est pas valide.

## Example: Wrong Rest Parameters

```
function Greet(...names: string[], greeting: string) { // Compiler Error  
    return greeting + " " + names.join(", ") + "!";  
}
```

# TYPESCRIPT - INTERFACE

L'interface est une structure qui définit le contrat dans votre application. Il définit **la syntaxe** des classes à suivre. Les classes dérivées d'une interface doivent **suivre la structure fournie par leur interface**.

Le compilateur TypeScript ne convertit pas l'interface en JavaScript. Il utilise une interface pour **la vérification de type**. Ceci est également connu sous le nom de « **typage canard** » ou « **sous-typage structurel** ».

Une interface est définie avec le mot-clé **interface** et peut inclure des **propriétés** et des **déclarations de méthode** à l'aide d'une fonction ou d'une fonction fléchée.

## Example: Interface

```
interface IEmployee {  
    empCode: number;  
    empName: string;  
    getSalary: (number) => number; // arrow function  
    getManagerName(number): string;  
}
```

# INTERFACE AS TYPE

Interface in typescript can be used to define a type and also to implement it in the class.

## Example: Interface as Type

```
interface KeyPair {  
    key: number;  
    value: string;  
}  
  
let kv1: KeyPair = { key:1, value:"Steve" }; // OK  
  
let kv2: KeyPair = { key:1, val:"Steve" }; // Compiler Error: 'val' doesn't exist in type 'KeyPair'  
  
let kv3: KeyPair = { key:1, value:100 }; // Compiler Error:
```

Dans l'exemple ci-dessus, une paire de clés d'interface comprend deux propriétés clé et valeur. Une variable kv1 est déclarée comme type de paire de clés. Il doit donc suivre la même structure que la paire de clés. Cela signifie que seul un objet avec une clé de propriétés de type numérique et une valeur de type chaîne peut être attribué à une variable kv1. Le compilateur TypeScript affichera une erreur s'il y a **un changement dans le nom des propriétés** ou si le type de données est différent de la paire de clés. Une autre variable kv2 est également déclarée comme type de paire de clés mais la valeur attribuée est Val au lieu de value, cela provoquera donc une erreur. De la même manière, kv3 attribue un numéro à la propriété value, le compilateur affichera donc une erreur. Ainsi, **TypeScript utilise une interface pour garantir la bonne structure d'un objet.**

# INTERFACE COMME TYPE DE FONCTION

Dans l'exemple, une interface `KeyValueProcessor` inclut une signature de méthode. Ceci définit le type de fonction. Maintenant, nous pouvons définir une variable de type `KeyValueProcessor` qui ne peut pointer que vers des fonctions avec la même signature que celle définie dans l'interface `KeyValueProcessor`. Ainsi, la fonction `addKeyValue` ou `updateKeyValue` est attribuée à `kvp`. Ainsi, `kvp` peut être appelé comme une fonction.

## Example: Function Type

```
interface KeyValueProcessor
{
    (key: number, value: string): void;
};

function addKeyValue(key:number, value:string):void {
    console.log('addKeyValue: key = ' + key + ', value = ' + value)
}

function updateKeyValue(key: number, value:string):void {
    console.log('updateKeyValue: key = '+ key + ', value = ' + value)
}

let kvp: KeyValueProcessor = addKeyValue;
kvp(1, 'Bill'); //Output: addKeyValue: key = 1, value = Bill

kvp = updateKeyValue;
kvp(2, 'Steve'); //Output: updateKeyValue: key = 2, value = Steve
```

# INTERFACE FOR ARRAY TYPE

Une interface peut également définir le type d'un tableau où vous pouvez définir le type d'index ainsi que les valeurs.

## Example: Type of Array

```
interface NumList {  
    [index:number]:number  
}  
  
let numArr: NumList = [1, 2, 3];  
numArr[0];  
numArr[1];  
  
interface IStringList {  
    [index:string]:string  
}  
  
let strArr : IStringList;  
strArr["TS"] = "TypeScript";  
strArr["JS"] = "JavaScript";
```

Dans l'exemple ci-dessus, l'interface numlist définit un type de tableau avec un index comme nombre et une valeur comme type de nombre. De la même manière, istringlist définit un tableau de chaînes avec un index comme chaîne et une valeur comme chaîne.

# OPTIONAL PROPERTY

Parfois, nous pouvons déclarer une interface avec des propriétés excédentaires, mais nous ne pouvons pas nous attendre à ce que tous les objets définissent toutes les propriétés d'interface données. Nous pouvons avoir des propriétés **facultatives**, marquées d'un "?". dans de tels cas, les objets de l'interface peuvent ou non définir ces propriétés.

## Example: Optional Property

```
interface IEmployee {  
    empCode: number;  
    empName: string;  
    empDept?:string;  
}  
  
let empObj1:IEmployee = {    // OK  
    empCode:1,  
    empName:"Steve"  
}  
  
let empObj2:IEmployee = {    // OK  
    empCode:1,  
    empName:"Bill",  
    empDept:"IT"  
}
```

In the above example, empDept is marked with ?, so objects of IEmployee may or may not include this property.

# READ ONLY PROPERTIES

Typescript fournit un moyen de marquer une propriété en lecture seule. Cela signifie qu'une fois qu'une propriété reçoit une valeur, elle ne peut plus être modifiée !

## Example: Readonly Property

```
interface Citizen {  
    name: string;  
    readonly SSN: number;  
}  
  
let personObj: Citizen = { SSN: 110555444, name: 'James Bond' }  
  
personObj.name = 'Steve Smith'; // OK  
personObj.SSN = '333666888'; // Compiler Error
```

Dans l'exemple ci-dessus, la propriété SSN est en lecture seule. Nous définissons l'objet personObj de type Citizen et attribuons des valeurs aux deux propriétés d'interface. Ensuite, nous essayons de modifier les valeurs attribuées au nom de la propriété et au SSN. Le compilateur TypeScript affichera une erreur lorsque nous essaierons de modifier la propriété SSN en lecture seule.



# EXTENDING INTERFACES

Les interfaces peuvent étendre une ou plusieurs interfaces. Cela rend l'écriture des interfaces flexibles et réutilisables.

## Example: Extend Interface

```
interface IPerson {  
    name: string;  
    gender: string;  
}  
  
interface IEmployee extends IPerson {  
    empCode: number;  
}  
  
let empObj: IEmployee = {  
    empCode: 1,  
    name: "Bill",  
    gender: "Male"  
}
```

Dans l'exemple ci-dessus, l'interface `iemployee` étend l'interface `iperson`. Ainsi, les objets de `iemployee` doivent inclure toutes les propriétés et méthodes de l'interface `iperson`, sinon le compilateur affichera une erreur.

# IMPLEMENTING AN INTERFACE

Semblables aux langages comme Java et C#, les interfaces en typescript peuvent être implémentées avec une classe. La classe implémentant l'interface doit se conformer strictement à la structure de l'interface.

Dans l'exemple, l'interface `iemployee` est implémentée dans la classe des employés à l'aide du mot-clé **implements**. La classe d'implémentation doit définir strictement les propriétés et la fonction avec le même nom et le même type de données. Si la classe d'implémentation ne suit pas la structure, le compilateur affichera une erreur.

Bien entendu, la classe d'implémentation peut définir des propriétés et des méthodes supplémentaires, mais elle doit au moins définir tous les membres d'une interface.

## Example: Interface Implementation

```
interface IEmployee {  
  empCode: number;  
  name: string;  
  getSalary:(number)=>number;  
}  
  
class Employee implements IEmployee {  
  empCode: number;  
  name: string;  
  
  constructor(code: number, name: string) {  
    this.empCode = code;  
    this.name = name;  
  }  
  
  getSalary(empCode:number):number {  
    return 20000;  
  }  
}  
  
let emp = new Employee(1, "Steve");
```

# TYPESCRIPT - CLASS

Dans les langages de programmation orientés objet comme Java et C#, les classes sont les entités fondamentales utilisées pour créer des composants réutilisables. Les fonctionnalités sont transmises aux classes et les objets sont créés à partir des classes. Cependant, jusqu'à ECMAScript 6 (également connu sous le nom d'ECMAScript 2015), ce n'était pas le cas avec JavaScript. JavaScript est avant tout un langage de **programmation fonctionnel** où l'héritage est basé sur des prototypes. Les fonctions sont utilisées pour créer des composants réutilisables. Dans ECMAScript 6, une approche basée sur les classes orientées objet a été introduite. Typescript a introduit des classes pour bénéficier des techniques orientées objet telles que l'encapsulation et l'abstraction. La classe de Typescript est compilée en fonctions JavaScript simples par le compilateur Typescript pour fonctionner sur toutes les plates-formes et navigateurs.

**A class can include the following:**

- Constructor
- Properties
- Methods

## Example: Class

```
class Employee {  
  empCode: number;  
  empName: string;  
  
  constructor(code: number, name: string) {  
    this.empName = name;  
    this.empCode = code;  
  }  
  
  getSalary() : number {  
    return 10000;  
  }  
}
```

It is not necessary for a class to have a constructor.

## Example: Class without Constructor

```
class Employee {  
  empCode: number;  
  empName: string;  
}
```

# CREATING AN OBJECT OF CLASS

An object of the class can be created using the new keyword.

## Example: Create an Object

```
class Employee {  
    empCode: number;  
    empName: string;  
}  
  
let emp = new Employee();
```

Here, we create an object called emp of type employee using let emp = new employee();. The above class does not include any parameterized constructor so we cannot pass values while creating an object. If the class includes a parameterized constructor, then we can pass the values while creating the object.

Dans l'exemple, nous transmettons des valeurs à l'objet pour initialiser les variables membres. Lorsque nousinstancions un nouvel objet, le constructeur de classe est appelé avec les valeurs passées et les variables membres empCode et empName sont initialisées avec ces valeurs.

```
class Employee {  
  
    empCode: number;  
    empName: string;  
  
    constructor(empcode: number, name: string ) {  
        this.empCode = empcode;  
        this.name = name;  
    }  
}  
  
let emp = new Employee(100,"Steve");
```

# INHERITANCE

Just like object-oriented languages such as java and C#, typescript classes can be extended to create new classes with inheritance, using the keyword extends.

## Example: Inheritance

```
class Person {
  name: string;

  constructor(name: string) {
    this.name = name;
  }
}

class Employee extends Person {
  empCode: number;

  constructor(empcode: number, name:string) {
    super(name);
    this.empCode = empcode;
  }

  displayName():void {
    console.log("Name = " + this.name + ", Employee Code = " + this.empCode);
  }
}

let emp = new Employee(100, "Bill");
emp.displayName(); // Name = Bill, Employee Code = 100
```

In the last example, the employee class extends the person class using extends keyword. This means that the employee class now includes all the members of the person class. The constructor of the employee class initializes its own members as well as the parent class's properties using a special keyword 'super'. The super keyword is used to call the parent constructor and passes the property values.

### Note:

We must call super() method first before assigning values to properties in the constructor of the derived class.

A class can implement single or multiple interfaces.

### Example: Implement Interface

```
interface IPerson {
    name: string;
    display():void;
}

interface IEmployee {
    empCode: number;
}

class Employee implements IPerson, IEmployee {
    empCode: number;
    name: string;

    constructor(empcode: number, name:string) {
        this.empCode = empcode;
        this.name = name;
    }

    display(): void {
        console.log("Name = " + this.name + ", Employee Code = " + this.empCode);
    }
}

let per:IPerson = new Employee(100, "Bill");
per.display(); // Name = Bill, Employee Code = 100

let emp:IEmployee = new Employee(100, "Bill");
emp.display(); //Compiler Error: Property 'display' does not exist on type 'IEmployee'
```



In the last example, the employee class implements two interfaces - iperson and iemployee. So, an instance of the employee class can be assigned to a variable of iperson or iemployee type. However, an object of type iemployee cannot call the display() method because iemployee does not include it. You can only use properties and methods specific to the object type.

## INTERFACE EXTENDS CLASS

An interface can also extend a class to represent a type.

### Example: Interface Extends Class

```
class Person {  
    name: string;  
}  
  
interface IEmployee extends Person {  
    empCode: number;  
}  
  
let emp: IEmployee = { empCode : 1, name:"James Bond" }
```

In the above example, iemployee is an interface that extends the person class. So, we can declare a variable of type iemployee with two properties. So now, we must declare and initialize values at the same time.

# TYPESCRIPT - ABSTRACT CLASS

Typescript nous permet de définir une classe abstraite à l'aide du mot-clé `abstract`. Les classes abstraites sont principalement destinées à l'héritage où d'autres classes peuvent en dériver. Nous ne pouvons pas créer une instance d'une classe abstraite.

Une classe abstraite comprend généralement une ou plusieurs méthodes abstraites ou déclarations de propriétés. La classe qui étend la classe abstraite doit définir toutes les méthodes abstraites.

La classe abstraite suivante déclare une méthode abstraite `find` et inclut également un affichage de méthode normal.

```
abstract class Person {
  name: string;
  constructor(name: string) {
    this.name = name;
  }

  display(): void {
    console.log(this.name);
  }
  abstract find(string): Person;
}

class Employee extends Person {
  empCode: number;
  constructor(name: string, code: number) {
    super(name); // must call super()
    this.empCode = code;
  }
  find(name: string): Person {
    // execute AJAX request to find an employee from a db
    return new Employee(name, 1);
  }
}

let emp: Person = new Employee("James", 100);
emp.display(); //James
let emp2: Person = emp.find('Steve');
```

Dans le dernier exemple, `personne` est une classe abstraite qui comprend une propriété et deux méthodes, dont une est déclarée abstraite. La méthode `find()` est une méthode abstraite et doit donc être définie dans la classe dérivée. La classe `employe` dérive de la classe `personne` et doit donc définir la méthode `find()` comme abstraite. La classe `employe` doit implémenter toutes les méthodes abstraites de la classe `personne`, sinon le compilateur affichera une erreur.

### Note:

La classe qui implémente une classe abstraite doit appeler `super()` dans le constructeur.

The abstract class can also include an abstract property, as shown below.

```
abstract class Person {
  abstract name: string;
  display(): void {
    console.log(this.name);
  }
}

class Employee extends Person {
  name: string;
  empCode: number;
  constructor(name: string, code: number) {
    super(); // must call super()

    this.empCode = code;
    this.name = name;
  }
}

let emp: Person = new Employee("James", 100);
emp.display(); //James
```

# TYPESCRIPT - DATA MODIFIERS

In object-oriented programming, the concept of 'encapsulation' is used to make class members public or private i.e. A class can control the visibility of its data members. This is done using access modifiers.

There are three types of access modifiers in typescript: **public**, **private** and **protected**

## Public

By default, all members of a class in Typescript are public. All the public members can be accessed anywhere without any restrictions.

### Example: public

```
class Employee {  
    public empCode: string;  
    empName: string;  
}  
  
let emp = new Employee();  
emp.empCode = 123;  
emp.empName = "Swati";
```

In the last example, empcode and empname are declared as public. So, they can be accessible outside of the class using an object of the class.

Please notice that there is not any modifier applied before empname, as typescript treats properties and methods as public by default if no modifier is applied to them.

## private

The private access modifier ensures that class members are visible only to that class and are not accessible outside the containing class.

### Example: private

```
class Employee {  
    private empCode: number;  
    empName: string;  
}  
  
let emp = new Employee();  
emp.empCode = 123; // Compiler Error  
emp.empName = "Swati";//OK
```

In the above example, we have marked the member empcode as private. Hence, when we create an object emp and try to access the emp.empCode member, it will give an error.

## protected

The protected access modifier is similar to the private access modifier, except that protected members can be accessed using their deriving classes.

### Example: protected

```
class Employee {
    public empName: string;
    protected empCode: number;

    constructor(name: string, code: number){
        this.empName = name;
        this.empCode = code;
    }
}

class SalesEmployee extends Employee{
    private department: string;

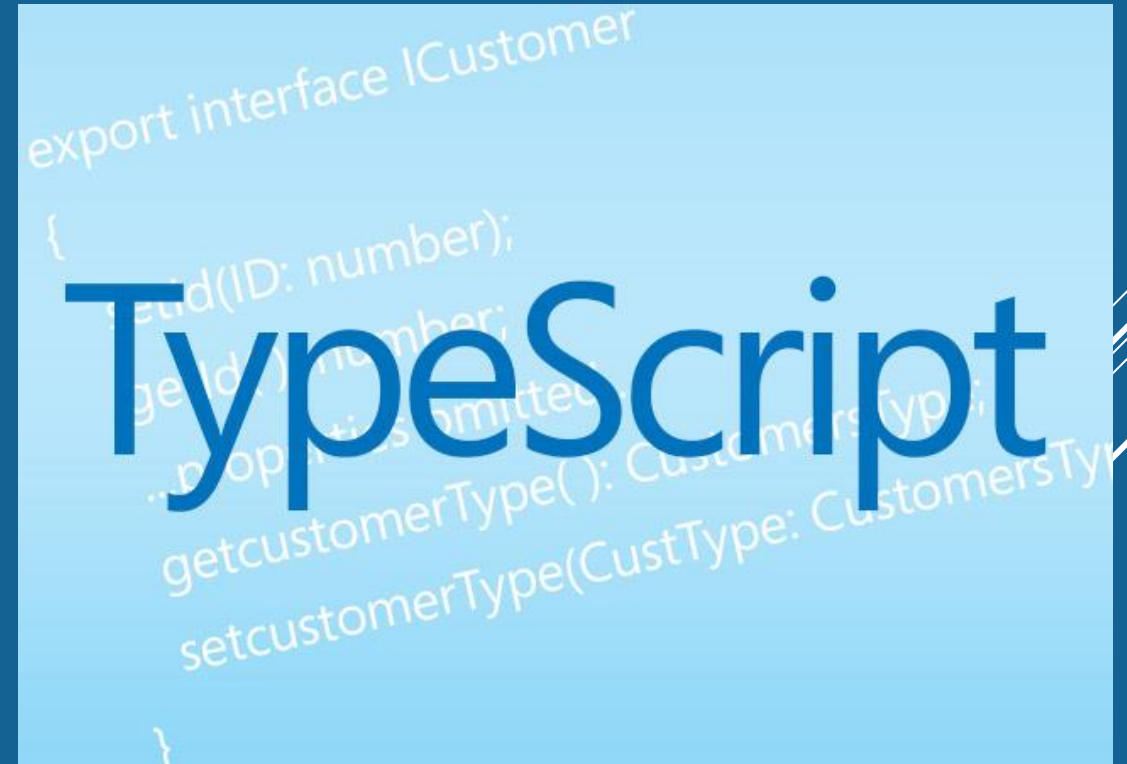
    constructor(name: string, code: number, department: string) {
        super(name, code);
        this.department = department;
    }
}

let emp = new SalesEmployee("John Smith", 123, "Sales");
empObj.empCode; //Compiler Error
```

In the last example, we have a class `employee` with two members, `public empname` and `protected property empcode`. We create a subclass `salesemployee` that extends from the parent class `employee`. If we try to access the protected member from outside the class, as `emp.Empcode`, we get the following compilation error:

Error ts2445: property 'empcode' is protected and only accessible within class 'employee' and its subclasses.

In addition to the access modifiers, typescript provides two more keywords: **read-only** and **static**.



# TYPESCRIPT - READONLY

Typescript introduced the keyword read-only, which makes a property as read-only in the class, type or interface.

Prefix read-only is used to make a property as read-only. Read-only members can be accessed outside the class, but their value cannot be changed. Since read-only members cannot be changed outside the class, they either need to be initialized at declaration or initialized inside the class constructor.

## Example: ReadOnly Class Properties

```
class Employee {  
    readonly empCode: number;  
    empName: string;  
  
    constructor(code: number, name: string) {  
        this.empCode = code;  
        this.empName = name;  
    }  
}  
  
let emp = new Employee(10, "John");  
emp.empCode = 20; //Compiler Error  
emp.empName = 'Bill'; //Compiler Error
```



In the last example, we have the employee class with two properties- empname and empcode. Since empcode is read only, it can be initialized at the time of declaration or in the constructor.

If we try to change the value of empcode after the object has been initialized, the compiler shows the following compilation error:

Error TS2540: cannot assign to empcode' because it is a constant or a read-only property.

**An interface can also have read-only member properties.**

#### Example: ReadOnly Interface

```
interface IEmployee {  
    readonly empCode: number;  
    empName: string;  
}  
  
let empObj:IEmployee = {  
    empCode:1,  
    empName:"Steve"  
}  
  
empObj.empCode = 100; // Compiler Error: Cannot change readonly 'empCode'
```

As you can see above, empcode is read-only, so we can assign a value at the time of creating an object but not after wards.

In the same way you can use `read-only<t>` to create a read-only type, as shown below.

### Example: ReadOnly Type

```
interface IEmployee {
    empCode: number;
    empName: string;
}

let emp1: Readonly<IEmployee> = {
    empCode: 1,
    empName: "Steve"
}

emp1.empCode = 100; // Compiler Error: Cannot change readonly 'empCode'
emp1.empName = 'Bill'; // Compiler Error: Cannot change readonly 'empName'

let emp2: IEmployee = {
    empCode: 1,
    empName: "Steve"
}

emp2.empCode = 100; // OK
emp2.empName = 'Bill'; // OK
```

In the above example, `emp1` is declared as `read-only<iemployee>` and so values cannot be changed once initialized.

# TYPESCRIPT - STATIC

ES6 includes static members and so does typescript. The static members of a class are accessed using the class name and dot notation, without creating an object e.g. <Classname>.<Staticmember>.

The static members can be defined by using the keyword static. Consider the following example of a class with static property.

## Example: Static Property

```
class Circle {  
    static pi: number = 3.14;  
}
```

The above circle class includes a static property pi. This can be accessed using circle.Pi.

The following example defines a class with static property and method and how to access it.

### Example: Static Members

```
class Circle {  
    static pi: number = 3.14;  
  
    static calculateArea(radius:number) {  
        return this.pi * radius * radius;  
    }  
}  
Circle.pi; // returns 3.14  
Circle.calculateArea(5); // returns 78.5
```

The above circle class includes a static property and a static method. Inside the static method calculatearea, the static property can be accessed using this keyword or using the class name circle.Pi.

Now, consider the following example with static and non-static members.

#### Example: Static and Non-static Members

```
class Circle {  
    static pi = 3.14;  
    pi = 3;  
}  
  
Circle.pi; // returns 3.14  
  
let circleObj = new Circle();  
circleObj.pi; // returns 3
```

As you can see, static and non-static fields with the same name can exist without any error. The static field will be accessed using dot notation and the non-static field can be accessed using an object.

# TYPESCRIPT - MODULE

The typescript code we write is in the global scope by default. If we have multiple files in a project, the variables, functions, etc. Written in one file are accessible in all the other files.

For example, consider the following Typescript files: file1.ts and file2.ts

file1.ts

```
var greeting : string = "Hello World!";
```

file2.ts

```
console.log(greeting); //Prints Hello World!  
  
greeting = "Hello TypeScript"; // allowed
```

In file1.Ts, we used the keyword `export` before the variable. Now, accessing a variable in file2.Ts will give an error. This is because `greeting` is no longer in the global scope. In order to access `greeting` in file2.Ts, we must import the file1 module into file2 using the `import` keyword.

Let's learn **export** and **import** in detail.

# Export

A module can be defined in a separate .ts file which can contain functions, variables, interfaces and classes. Use the prefix export with all the definitions you want to include in a module and want to access from other modules.

## Employee.ts

```
export let age : number = 20;
export class Employee {
  empCode: number;
  empName: string;
  constructor(name: string, code: number) {
    this.empName = name;
    this.empCode = code;
  }
  displayEmployee() {
    console.log ("Employee Code: " + this.empCode + ", Employee Name: " + this.empName );
  }
}
let companyName:string = "XYZ";
```

In the above example, employee.Ts is a module which contains two variables and a class definition. The age variable and the employee class are prefixed with the export keyword, whereas companyname variable is not. Thus, employee.Ts is a module which exports the age variable and the employee class to be used in other modules by importing the employee module using the import keyword. The companyname variable cannot be accessed outside this employee module, as it is not exported.

# IMPORT

A module can be used in another module using an import statement.

Let's see different ways of importing a module export.

## \* Single export from a Module

EmployeeProcessor.ts

```
import { Employee } from "../Employee";  
let empObj = new Employee("Steve Jobs", 1);  
empObj.displayEmployee(); //Output: Employee Code: 1, Employee Name: Steve Jobs
```

## \* Entire Module into a Variable

EmployeeProcessor.ts

```
import * as Emp from "../Employee"  
console.log(Emp.age); // 20  
  
let empObj = new Emp.Employee("Bill Gates" , 2);  
empObj.displayEmployee(); //Output: Employee Code: 2, Employee Name: Bill Gates
```



## \* Renaming an Export from a Module

### EmployeeProcessor.ts

```
import { Employee as Associate } from "../Employee"
let obj = new Associate("James Bond" , 3);
obj.displayEmployee();//Output: Employee Code: 3, Employee Name: James Bond
```

## Compiling a Typescript Module

We cannot use typescript modules directly in our application. We need to use the JavaScript for typescript modules. To get the JavaScript files for the typescript modules, we need to compile modules using typescript compiler.

Compilation of a module depends on the target environment you are aiming for. The typescript compiler generates the JavaScript code based on the module target option specified during compilation. Use the following command to compile a typescript module and generate the JavaScript code.

```
Tsc --module <target> <file path>
```

# TYPESCRIPT - NAMESPACE

The namespace is used for logical grouping of functionalities. A namespace can include interfaces, classes, functions and variables to support a single or a group of related functionalities.

A namespace can be created using the namespace keyword followed by the namespace name. All the interfaces, classes etc. Can be defined in the curly brackets { }.

Consider the following example of different string functions in the stringutilities namespace.

## StringUtility.ts

```
namespace StringUtility
{
    function ToCapital(str: string): string {
        return str.toUpperCase();
    }

    function SubString(str: string, from: number, length: number = 0): string {
        return str.substr(from, length);
    }
}
```

The above StringUtility.ts file includes the namespace StringUtility which includes two simple string functions. The StringUtility namespace makes a logical grouping of the important string functions for our application.

By default, namespace components cannot be used in other modules or namespaces. You must export each component to make it accessible outside, using the export keyword as shown below.

#### Example: Use export in Namespace

```
namespace StringUtility {  
  
    export function ToCapital(str: string): string {  
        return str.toUpperCase();  
    }  
  
    export function SubString(str: string, from: number, length: number = 0): string {  
        return str.substr(from, length);  
    }  
}
```

Now, we can use the stringutility namespace elsewhere. The following JavaScript code will be generated for the above namespace.

## JavaScript: StringUtility.js

```
var StringUtility;  
(function (StringUtility) {  
    function ToCapital(str){  
        return str.toUpperCase();  
    }  
    StringUtility.ToCapital = ToCapital;  
    function SubString(str, from, length) {  
        if (length === void 0) { length = 0; }  
        return str.substr(from, length);  
    }  
    StringUtility.SubString = SubString;  
})(StringUtility || (StringUtility = {}));
```

As you can see, the above generated JavaScript code for the namespace uses the IIFE pattern to stop polluting the global scope.

Let's use the above stringutility namespace in the employee module, as shown below.

## Employee.ts

```
/// <reference path="StringUtility.ts" />

export class Employee {
  empCode: number;
  empName: string;
  constructor(name: string, code: number) {
    this.empName = StringUtility.ToCapital(name);
    this.empCode = code;
  }
  displayEmployee() {
    console.log ("Employee Code: " + this.empCode + ", Employee Name: " + this.empName );
  }
}
```

In order to use namespace components at other places, first we need to include the namespace using the triple slash reference syntax `/// <reference path="path to namespace file" />`. after including the namespace file using the reference tag, we can access all the functionalities using the namespace. Above, we used the `tocapital()` function like this: `stringutility.Tocapital()`

# TYPESCRIPT - GENERIC

When writing programs, one of the most important aspects is to build reusable components. This ensures that the program is flexible as well as scalable in the long-term.

Generics offer a way to create reusable components. Generics provide a way to make components work with any data type and not restrict to one data type. So, components can be called or used with a variety of data types. Generics in typescript is almost similar to C# generics.

Let's see why we need generics using the following example.

```
function getArray(items : any[] ) : any[] {  
    return new Array().concat(items);  
}  
  
let myNumArr = getArray([100, 200, 300]);  
let myStrArr = getArray(["Hello", "World"]);  
myNumArr.push(400); // OK  
myStrArr.push("Hello TypeScript"); // OK  
myNumArr.push("Hi"); // OK  
myStrArr.push(500); // OK  
console.log(myNumArr); // [100, 200, 300, 400, "Hi"]  
console.log(myStrArr); // ["Hello", "World", "Hello TypeScript", 500]
```

In the last example, the `getArray()` function accepts an array of type `any`. It creates a new array of type `any`, concatenates items to it and returns the new array. Since we have used type `any` for our arguments, we can pass any type of array to the function. However, this may not be the desired behavior. We may want to add the numbers to number array or the strings to the string array but not numbers to the string array or vice-versa.

To solve this, typescript introduced generics. Generics uses the type variable `<T>`, a special kind of variable that denotes types. The type variable remembers the type that the user provides and works with that particular type only. This is called preserving the type information.

The above function can be rewritten as a generic function as below.

### Example: Generic Function

```
function getArray<T>(items : T[] ) : T[] {  
    return new Array<T>().concat(items);  
}  
  
let myNumArr = getArray<number>([100, 200, 300]);  
let myStrArr = getArray<string>(["Hello", "World"]);  
myNumArr.push(400); // OK  
myStrArr.push("Hello TypeScript"); // OK  
myNumArr.push("Hi"); // Compiler Error  
myStrArr.push(500); // Compiler Error
```

## MULTIPLE TYPE VARIABLES:

We can specify multiple type variables with different names as shown below.

### Example: Multiple Type Variables

```
function displayType<T, U>(id:T, name:U): void {  
    console.log(typeof(id) + ", " + typeof(name));  
}  
  
displayType<number, string>(1, "Steve"); // number, string
```

Generic type can also be used with other non-generic types.

### Example: Generic with Non-generic Type

```
function displayType<T>(id:T, name:string): void {  
    console.log(typeof(id) + ", " + typeof(name));  
}  
  
displayType<number>(1, "Steve"); // number, string
```



## METHODS AND PROPERTIES OF GENERIC TYPE

When using type variables to create generic components, typescript forces us to use only general methods which are available for every type.

### Example: Generic Type Methods and Properties

```
function displayType<T, U>(id:T, name:U): void {  
  
    id.toString(); // OK  
    name.toString(); // OK  
  
    id.toFixed(); // Compiler Error: 'toFixed' does not exists on type 'T'  
    name.toUpperCase(); // Compiler Error: 'toUpperCase' does not exists on type 'U'  
  
    console.log(typeof(id) + ", " + typeof(name));  
}
```

In the above example, id.Tostring() and name.Tostring() method calls are correct because the toString() method is available for all types. However, type specific methods such as tofixed() for number type or touppercase() for string type cannot be called. The compiler will give an error.

# COMPILE TYPESCRIPT PROJECT

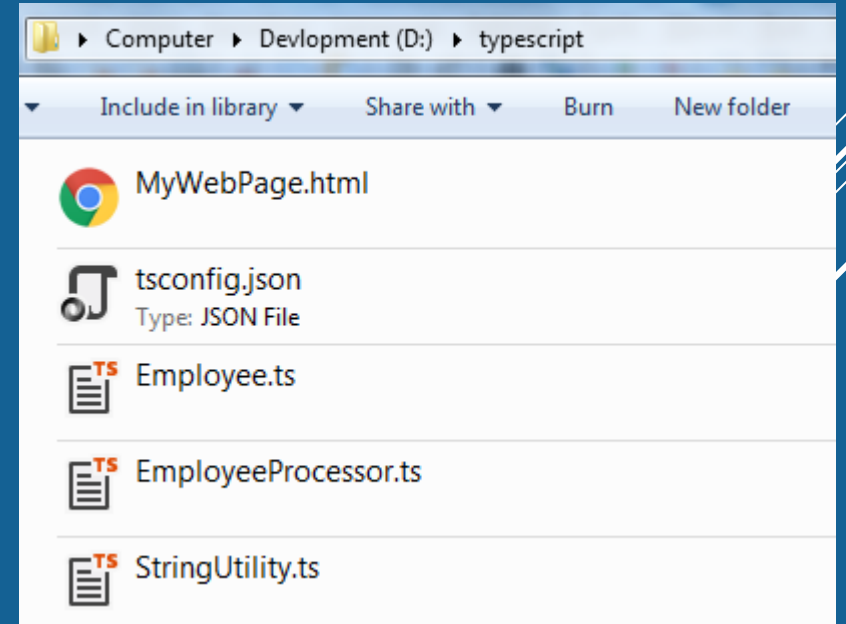
As you know, typescript files can be compiled using the `tsc <file name>.ts` command. It will be tedious to compile multiple .ts files in a large project. So, typescript provides another option to compile all or certain .Ts files of the project.

## “ tsconfig.json ”

Typescript supports compiling a whole project at once by including the tsconfig.Json file in the root directory.

The tsconfig.Json file is a simple file in JSON format where we can specify various options to tell the compiler how to compile the current project.

Consider the following simple project which includes two module files, one namespace file, tsconfig.Json and an html file.

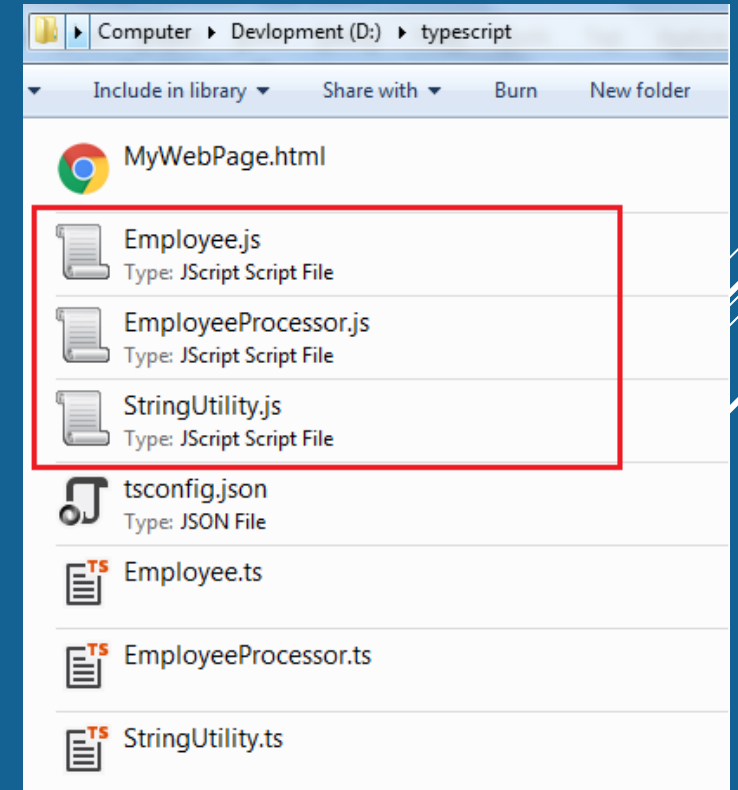


The above tsconfig.Json file includes empty curly brackets { } and does not include any options. In this case, the tsc command will consider the default values for the compiler options and compile all the .Ts files in a root directory and its sub-directories.

```
D:\typescript>tsc
```

The above tsc command will generate .js files for all .Ts files, as shown below. When using the tsc command to compile files, if a path to tsconfig.json is not specified, the compiler will look for the file in the current directory. If not found in the current directory, it will search for the tsconfig.json file in the parent directory. The compiler will not compile a project if a tsconfig file is absent.

If the tsconfig.json file is not found in the root directory, then you can specify the path using the --project or -p option, as shown below.



```
tsc -p <path to tsconfig.json>
```

Until now, we used an empty tsconfig.Json file and so, the typescript compiler used default settings to compile the typescript files. You can set different compiler options in the "compilerOptions" property in the tsconfig.Json file, as shown below.

### Example: Set compilerOptions in tsconfig.json

```
{
  "compilerOptions": {
    "module": "amd",
    "noImplicitAny": true,
    "removeComments": true,
    "preserveConstEnums": true,
    "sourceMap": true
  }
}
```

In the above sample tsconfig.Json file, the compilerOptions specifies the custom options for the typescript compiler to use when compiling a project.

You can also specify specific files to be compiled by using the "files" option. The files property provides a list of all files to be compiled.

### Example: files in tsconfig.json

```
{
  "compilerOptions": {
    "module": "amd",
    "noImplicitAny": true,
    "removeComments": true,
    "preserveConstEnums": true,
    "sourceMap": true
  },
  "files": {
    "Employee.ts"
  }
}
```

The above files option includes the file names to be compiled. Here, the compiler will only compile the employee.Ts file.

There are two additional properties that can be used to include or omit certain files: `include` and `exclude`.

All files specified in `include` will be compiled, except the ones specified in the `exclude` property.

All files specified in the `exclude` option are excluded by the compiler. Note that if a file in `include` has a dependency on another file, that file cannot be specified in the `exclude` property.

#### Example: tsconfig.json

```
{
  "compilerOptions": {
    "module": "amd",
    "noImplicitAny": true,
    "removeComments": true,
    "preserveConstEnums": true,
    "outFile": "../../built/local/tsc.js",
    "sourceMap": true
  },
  "include": [
    "src/**/*"
  ],
  "exclude": [
    "node_modules",
    "**/*.spec.ts"
  ]
}
```

Thus, the `tsconfig.Json` file includes all the options to indicate the compiler how to compile a project. Learn more about `tsconfig.Json` here.

<https://www.typescriptlang.org/docs/handbook/tsconfig-json.html>

# TYPESCRIPT - BUILD TOOLS

Build tools are utilities that help automate the transformation and bundling of your code into a single file. Most javascript projects use these build tools to automate the build process.

There are several common build tools available that can be integrated with typescript. We will take a look at how to integrate typescript with some of these tools:

- **Browserify**
- **Grunt**
- **Gulp**
- **Webpack**

## Browserify

```
npm install tsify  
browserify main.ts -p [ tsify --noImplicitAny ] > bundle.js
```

## Grunt

```
npm install grunt-ts
```

You will need to include the grunt config file:

```
module.exports = function(grunt) {  
  grunt.initConfig({  
    ts: {  
      default : {  
        src: ["**/*.ts", "!node_modules/**/*.ts"]  
      }  
    }  
  });  
  grunt.loadNpmTasks("grunt-ts");  
  grunt.registerTask("default", ["ts"]);  
};
```

## Gulp

```
npm install gulp-typescript
```

You will need to include the gulp config file:



```
var gulp = require("gulp");
var ts = require("gulp-typescript");

gulp.task("default", function () {
    var tsResult = gulp.src("src/*.ts")
        .pipe(ts({
            noImplicitAny: true,
            out: "output.js"
        }));
    return tsResult.js.pipe(gulp.dest("built/local"));
});
```

## Webpack

```
npm install ts-loader --save-dev
```

OR

```
npm install awesome-typescript-loader
```

You will need to include the webpack.Config.Js config file:

```
module.exports = {
  entry: "./src/index.tsx",
  output: {
    filename: "bundle.js"
  },
  resolve: {
    // Add '.ts' and '.tsx' as a resolvable extension.
    extensions: [".", ".webpack.js", ".web.js", ".ts", ".tsx", ".js"]
  },
  module: {
    loaders: [
      // all files with a '.ts' or '.tsx' extension will be handled by 'ts-loader'
      { test: /\.tsx?$/, loader: "ts-loader" } // replace with your plugin of choice
    ]
  }
}
```