

# TypeScript

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# 1 Introduction

Web applications such as e-mail, maps, document editing, and collaboration tools are becoming an increasingly important part of the everyday computing. We designed TypeScript to meet the needs of the JavaScript programming teams that build and maintain large JavaScript programs such as web applications. TypeScript helps programming teams to define interfaces between software components and to gain insight into the behavior of existing JavaScript libraries. TypeScript also enables teams to reduce naming conflicts by organizing their code into dynamically-loadable modules. TypeScript's optional type system enables JavaScript programmers to use highly-productive development tools and practices: static checking, symbol-based navigation, statement completion, and code re-factoring.

TypeScript is a syntactic sugar for JavaScript. TypeScript syntax is a superset of EcmaScript 5 (ES5) syntax. Every JavaScript program is also a TypeScript program. The TypeScript compiler performs only file-local transformations on TypeScript programs and does not re-order variables declared in TypeScript. This leads to JavaScript output that closely matches the TypeScript input. TypeScript does not transform variable names, making tractable the direct debugging of emitted JavaScript. TypeScript optionally provides source maps, enabling source-level debugging. TypeScript tools typically emit JavaScript upon file save, preserving the test, edit, refresh cycle commonly used in JavaScript development.

TypeScript syntax includes several proposed features of EcmaScript 6 (ES6), including classes and modules. Classes enable programmers to express common object-oriented patterns in a standard way, making features like inheritance more readable and interoperable. Modules enable programmers to organize their code into components while avoiding naming conflicts. The TypeScript compiler provides module code generation options that support either static or dynamic loading of module contents.

TypeScript also provides to JavaScript programmers a system of optional type annotations. These type annotations are like the JSDoc comments found in the Closure system, but in TypeScript they are integrated directly into the language syntax. This integration makes the code more readable and reduces the maintenance cost of synchronizing type annotations with their corresponding variables.

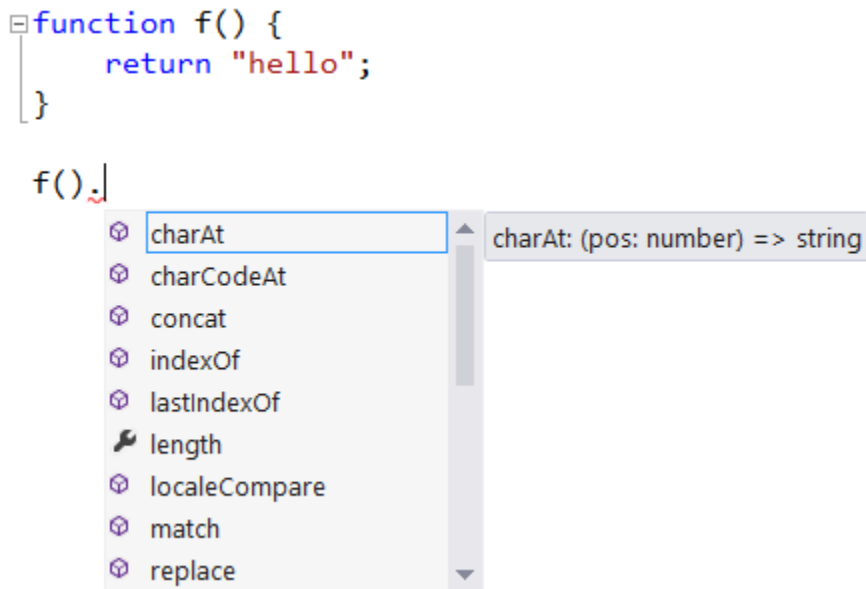
The TypeScript type system enables programmers to express limits on the capabilities of JavaScript objects, and to use tools that enforce these limits. To minimize the number of annotations needed for tools to become useful, the TypeScript type system makes extensive use of type inference. For example, from the following statement, TypeScript will infer that the variable 'i' has the type number.

```
var i = 0;
```

TypeScript will infer from the following function definition that the function f has return type string.

```
function f() {  
    return "hello";  
}
```

To benefit from this inference, a programmer can use the TypeScript language service. For example, a code editor can incorporate the TypeScript language service and use the service to find the members of a string object as in the following screen shot.



In this example, the programmer benefits from type inference without providing type annotations. Some beneficial tools, however, do require the programmer to provide type annotations. In TypeScript, we can express a parameter requirement as in the following code fragment.

```
function f(s: string) {  
    return s;  
}  
  
f({}); // Error  
f("hello"); // Ok
```

This optional type annotation on the parameter 's' lets the TypeScript type checker know that the programmer expects parameter 's' to be of type 'string'. Within the body of function 'f', tools can assume 's' is of type 'string' and provide operator type checking and member completion consistent with this assumption. Tools can also signal an error on the first call to 'f', because 'f' expects a string, not an object, as its parameter. For the function 'f', the TypeScript compiler will emit the following JavaScript code:

```
function f(s) {  
    return s;  
}
```

In the JavaScript output, all type annotations have been erased. In general, TypeScript erases all type information before emitting JavaScript.



## 1.1 Ambient Declarations

An ambient declaration introduces a variable into a TypeScript scope, but has zero impact on the emitted JavaScript program. Programmers can use ambient declarations to tell the TypeScript compiler that some other component will supply a variable. For example, by default the TypeScript compiler will print an error for uses of undefined variables. To add some of the common variables defined by browsers, a TypeScript programmer can use ambient declarations. The following example declares the 'document' object supplied by browsers. Because the declaration does not specify a type, the type 'any' is inferred. The type 'any' means that a tool can assume nothing about the shape or behavior of the document object. Some of the examples below will illustrate how programmers can use types to further characterize the expected behavior of an object.

```
declare var document;
document.title = "Hello"; // Ok because document has been declared
```

In the case of 'document', the TypeScript compiler automatically supplies a declaration, because TypeScript by default includes a file 'lib.d.ts' that provides interface declarations for the built-in JavaScript library as well as the Document Object Model.

The TypeScript compiler does not include by default an interface for jQuery, so to use jQuery, a programmer could supply a declaration such as:

```
declare var $;
```

Section 1.3 provides a more extensive example of how a programmer can add type information for jQuery and other libraries.

## 1.2 Function Types

Function expressions are a powerful feature of JavaScript. They enable function definitions to create closures: functions that capture information from the lexical scope surrounding the function's definition. Closures are currently JavaScript's only way of enforcing data encapsulation. By capturing and using environment variables, a closure can retain information that cannot be accessed from outside the closure. JavaScript programmers often use closures to express event handlers and other asynchronous callbacks, in which another software component, such as the DOM, will call back into JavaScript through a handler function.

TypeScript function types make it possible for programmers to express the expected *signature* of a function. A function signature is a sequence of parameter types plus a return type. The following example uses function types to express the callback signature requirements of an asynchronous voting mechanism.

```
function vote(candidate: string, callback: (result: string) => any) {
    // ...
}
```

```

vote("BigPig",
    function(result: string) {
        if (result === "BigPig") {
            // ...
        }
    }
);

```

In this example, the second parameter to 'vote' has the function type

```
(result: string) => any
```

which means the second parameter is a function returning type 'any' that has a single parameter of type 'string' named 'result'.

Section 3.5.5 provides additional information about function types.

## 1.3 Object Types

TypeScript programmers use *object types* to declare their expectations of object behavior. The following code uses an *object type literal* to specify the return type of the 'MakePoint' function.

```

var MakePoint: () => {
    x: number; y: number;
};

```

Programmers can give names to object types; we call named object types *interfaces*. For example, in the following code, an interface declares one required field (name) and one optional field (favoriteColor).

```

interface Friend {
    name: string;
    favoriteColor?: string;
}

function add(friend: Friend) {
    var name = friend.name;
}

add({ name: "Fred" }); // Ok
add({ favoriteColor: "blue" }); // Error, name required
add({ name: "Jill", favoriteColor: "green" }); // Ok

```

TypeScript object types model the diversity of behaviors that a JavaScript object can exhibit. For example, the jQuery library defines an object, '\$', that has methods, such as 'get' (which sends an Ajax message), and fields, such as 'browser' (which gives browser vendor information). However, jQuery clients can also call '\$' as a function. The behavior of this function depends on the type of parameters passed to the function.

The following code fragment captures a small subset of jQuery behavior, just enough to use jQuery in a simple way.

```
interface JQuery {
    text(content: string);
}

interface JQueryStatic {
    get(url: string, callback: (data: string) => any);
    (query: string): JQuery;
}

declare var $: JQueryStatic;

$.get("http://mysite.org/divContent",
    function (data: string) {
        $("div").text(data);
    }
);
```

The 'JQueryStatic' interface references another interface: 'JQuery'. This interface represents a collection of one or more DOM elements. The jQuery library can perform many operations on such a collection, but in this example the jQuery client only needs to know that it can set the text content of each jQuery element in a collection by passing a string to the 'text' method. The 'JQueryStatic' interface also contains a method, 'get', that performs an Ajax get operation on the provided URL and arranges to invoke the provided callback upon receipt of a response.

Finally, the 'JQueryStatic' interface contains a bare function signature

```
(query: string): JQuery;
```

The bare signature indicates that instances of the interface are callable. This example illustrates that TypeScript function types are just special cases of TypeScript object types. Specifically, function types are object types that contain only a call signature, but no properties. For this reason we can write any function type as an object type literal. The following example uses both forms to describe the same type.

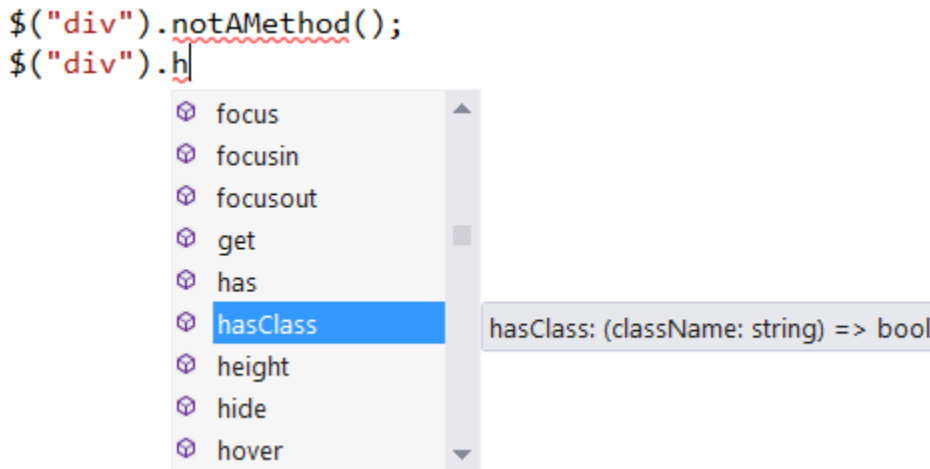
```
var f: { (): string; };
var sameType: () => string = f; // Ok
var nope: () => number = sameType; // Error: type mismatch
```

We mentioned above that the '\$' function behaves differently depending on the type of its parameter. So far, our jQuery typing only captures one of these behaviors: return an object of type 'JQuery' when passed a string. To specify multiple behaviors, TypeScript supports *overloading* of function signatures in object types. For example, we can add an additional call signature to the 'JQueryStatic' interface.

```
(ready: () => any): any;
```

This signature denotes that a function may be passed as the parameter of the '\$' function. When a function is passed to '\$', the jQuery library will invoke that function when a DOM document is ready. Because TypeScript supports overloading, tools can use TypeScript to show all available function signatures with their documentation tips and to give the correct documentation once a function has been called with a particular signature.

A typical client would not need to add any additional typing but could just use a community-supplied typing to discover (through statement completion with documentation tips) and verify (through static checking) correct use of the library, as in the following screen shot.



Section 3.3 provides additional information about object types.

## 1.4 Structural Subtyping

Object types are compared *structurally*. For example, in the code fragment below, class 'CPoint' matches interface 'Point' because 'CPoint' has all of the required members of 'Point'. A class may optionally declare that it implements an interface, so that the compiler will check the declaration for structural compatibility. The example also illustrates that an object type can match the type inferred from an object literal, as long as the object literal supplies all of the required members.

```
interface Point {  
    x: number;  
    y: number;  
}  
  
function getX(p: Point) {  
    return p.x;  
}  
  
class CPoint {  
    constructor (public x: number, public y: number) { }  
}
```

```
getX(new CPoint(0, 0)); // Ok, fields match  
getX({ x: 0, y: 0, color: "red" }); // Extra fields Ok  
getX({ x: 0 }); // Error: supplied parameter does not match
```

See Section 3.6 for more information about type comparisons.

## 1.5 Contextual Typing

Ordinarily, TypeScript type inference proceeds “bottom-up”: from the leaves of an expression tree to its root. In the following example, TypeScript infers ‘number’ as the return type of the function ‘mul’ by flowing type information bottom up in the return expression.

```
function mul(a: number, b: number) {  
    return a * b;  
}
```

For variables and parameters without a type annotation or a default value, TypeScript infers type ‘any’, ensuring that compilers do not need non-local information about a function’s call sites to infer the function’s return type. Generally, this bottom-up approach provides programmers with a clear intuition about the flow of type information.

However, in some limited contexts, inference proceeds “top-down” from the context of an expression. Where this happens, it is called contextual typing. Contextual typing helps tools provide excellent information when a programmer is using a type but may not know all of the details of the type. For example, in the jQuery example, above, the programmer supplies a function expression as the second parameter to the ‘get’ method. During typing of that expression, tools can assume that the type of the function expression is as given in the ‘get’ signature and can provide a template that includes parameter names and types.

```
$.get("http://mysite.org/divContent",  
    function (data) {  
        $("div").text(data); // TypeScript infers data is a string  
    }  
);
```

Contextual typing is also useful for writing out object literals. As the programmer types the object literal, the contextual type provides information that enables tools to provide completion for object member names.

Section 4.18 provides additional information about contextually typed expressions.

## 1.6 Classes

JavaScript practice has at least two common design patterns: the module pattern and the class pattern. Roughly speaking, the module pattern uses closures to hide names and to encapsulate private data, while

the class pattern uses prototype chains to implement many variations on object-oriented inheritance mechanisms. Libraries such as 'prototype.js' are typical of this practice.

This section and the module section below will show how TypeScript emits consistent, idiomatic JavaScript code to implement classes and modules that are closely aligned with the current ES6 proposal. The goal of TypeScript's translation is to emit exactly what a programmer would type when implementing a class or module unaided by a tool. This section will also describe how TypeScript infers a type for each class declaration. We'll start with a simple BankAccount class.

```
class BankAccount {
    balance = 0;
    deposit(credit: number) {
        this.balance += credit;
        return this.balance;
    }
}
```

This class generates the following JavaScript code.

```
var BankAccount = (function () {
    function BankAccount() {
        this.balance = 0;
    }
    BankAccount.prototype.deposit = function(credit) {
        this.balance += credit;
        return this.balance;
    };
    return BankAccount;
})();
```

This TypeScript class declaration creates a variable named 'BankAccount' whose value is the constructor function for 'BankAccount' instances. This declaration also creates an instance type of the same name. If we were to write this type as an interface it would look like the following.

```
interface BankAccount {
    balance: number;
    deposit(credit: number): number;
}
```

If we were to write out the function type declaration for the 'BankAccount' constructor variable, it would have the following form.

```
var BankAccount: new() => BankAccount;
```

The function signature is prefixed with the keyword 'new' indicating that the 'BankAccount' function must be called as a constructor. It is possible for a function's type to have both call and constructor signatures. For example, the type of the built-in JavaScript Date object includes both kinds of signatures.

If we want to start our bank account with an initial balance, we can add to the 'BankAccount' class a constructor declaration.

```
class BankAccount {
    balance: number;
    constructor(initially: number) {
        this.balance = initially;
    }
    deposit(credit: number) {
        this.balance += credit;
        return this.balance;
    }
}
```

This version of the 'BankAccount' class requires us to introduce a constructor parameter and then assign it to the 'balance' field. To simplify this common case, TypeScript accepts the following shorthand syntax.

```
class BankAccount {
    constructor(public balance: number) {
    }
    deposit(credit: number) {
        this.balance += credit;
        return this.balance;
    }
}
```

The 'public' keyword denotes that the constructor parameter is to be retained as a field. Public is the default visibility for class members, but a programmer can also specify private visibility for a class member. Private visibility is a design-time construct; it is enforced during static type checking but does not imply any runtime enforcement.

TypeScript classes also support inheritance, as in the following example.

```
class CheckingAccount extends BankAccount {
    constructor(balance: number) {
        super(balance);
    }
    writeCheck(debit: number) {
        this.balance -= debit;
    }
}
```

In this example, the class 'CheckingAccount' *derives* from class 'BankAccount'. The constructor for 'CheckingAccount' calls the constructor for class 'BankAccount' using the 'super' keyword. In the emitted JavaScript code, the prototype of 'CheckingAccount' will chain to the prototype of 'BankingAccount'.

TypeScript classes may also specify static members. Static class members become properties of the class constructor.

Section 8 provides additional information about classes.

## 1.7 Modules

Classes and interfaces support large-scale JavaScript development by providing a mechanism for describing how to use a software component that can be separated from that component's implementation. TypeScript enforces *encapsulation* of implementation in classes at design time (by restricting use of private members), but cannot enforce encapsulation at runtime because all object properties are accessible at runtime. Future versions of JavaScript may provide *private names* which would enable runtime enforcement of private members.

In the current version of JavaScript, the only way to enforce encapsulation at runtime is to use the module pattern: encapsulate private fields and methods using closure variables. The module pattern is a natural way to provide organizational structure and dynamic loading options by drawing a boundary around a software component. A module can also provide the ability to introduce namespaces, avoiding use of the global namespace for most software components.

The following example illustrates the JavaScript module pattern.

```
(function(exports) {  
    var key = generateSecretKey();  
    function sendMessage(message) {  
        sendSecureMessage(message, key);  
    }  
    exports.sendMessage = sendMessage;  
})(MessageModule);
```

This example illustrates the two essential elements of the module pattern: a *module closure* and a *module object*. The module closure is a function that encapsulates the module's implementation, in this case the variable 'key' and the function 'sendMessage'. The module object contains the exported variables and functions of the module. Simple modules may create and return the module object. The module above takes the module object as a parameter, 'exports', and adds the 'sendMessage' property to the module object. This *augmentation* approach simplifies dynamic loading of modules and also supports separation of module code into multiple files.

The example assumes that an outer lexical scope defines the functions 'generateSecretKey' and 'sendSecureMessage'; it also assumes that the outer scope has assigned the module object to the variable 'MessageModule'.

TypeScript modules provide a mechanism for succinctly expressing the module pattern. In TypeScript, programmers can combine the module pattern with the class pattern by nesting modules and classes within an outer module.

The following example shows the definition and use of a simple module.



```

module M {
    var s = "hello";
    export function f() {
        return s;
    }
}

M.f();
M.s; // Error, s is not exported

```

In this example, variable 's' is a private feature of the module, but function 'f' is exported from the module and accessible to code outside of the module. If we were to describe the effect of module 'M' in terms of interfaces and variables, we would write

```

interface M {
    f(): string;
}

var M: M;

```

The interface 'M' summarizes the externally visible behavior of module 'M'. In this example, we can use the same name for the interface as for the initialized variable because in TypeScript type names and variable names do not conflict: each lexical scope contains a variable declaration space and type declaration space (see Section 2.2 for more details).

Module 'M' is an example of an *internal* module, because it is nested within the *global* module (see Section 9 for more details). The TypeScript compiler emits the following JavaScript code for this module.

```

var M;
(function(M) {
    var s = "hello";
    function f() {
        return s;
    }
    M.f = f;
})(M || (M={}));

```

In this case, the compiler assumes that the module object resides in global variable 'M', which may or may not have been initialized to the desired module object.

TypeScript also supports *external* modules, which are files that contain top-level *export* and *import* directives. For this type of module the TypeScript compiler will emit code whose module closure and module object implementation vary according to the specified dynamic loading system, for example, the Asynchronous Module Definition system.



## 2 Basic Concepts

The remainder of this document is the formal specification of the TypeScript programming language and is intended to be read as an adjunct to the [ECMAScript Language Specification](#) (specifically, the ECMA-262 Standard, 5<sup>th</sup> Edition). This document describes the syntactic grammar added by TypeScript along with the compile-time processing and type checking performed by the TypeScript compiler, but it only minimally discusses the run-time behavior of programs since that is covered by the ECMAScript specification.

### 2.1 Grammar Conventions

The syntactic grammar added by TypeScript language is specified throughout this document using the existing conventions and production names of the ECMAScript grammar. In places where TypeScript augments an existing grammar production it is so noted. For example:

```
CallExpression: ( Modified )  
...  
super Arguments  
super . Identifier
```

The '*Modified*' annotation indicates that an existing grammar production is being replaced, and the '...' references the contents of the original grammar production.

### 2.2 Declarations

Declarations introduce names in the **declaration spaces** to which they belong. It is an error to have two names with same spelling in the same declaration space. Declaration spaces exist as follows:

- The global module has a declaration space for global members (variables, functions, modules, and constructor functions), and a declaration space for global types (modules, classes, and interfaces).
- Each module body has a declaration space for local members (variables, functions, modules, and constructor functions), and a declaration space for local types (modules, classes, and interfaces). Every declaration (whether local or exported) in a module contributes to one or both of these declaration spaces.
- Each internal or external module has a declaration space for exported members and a declaration space for exported types. All export declarations in the module contribute to these declaration spaces. Each internal module's export declaration spaces are shared with other internal modules that have the same root module and the same qualified name starting from that root module.
- Each interface type has a declaration space for its members. An interface's declaration space is shared with other interfaces that have the same root module and the same qualified name starting from that root module.
- Each object type literal has a declaration space for its members.

- Each class declaration has a declaration space for instance members and a declaration space for static members.
- Each function declaration (including constructor, member function, and member accessor declarations) and each function expression has a declaration space for locals (parameters, variables, and functions).
- Each object literal has a declaration space for its properties.

Top-level declarations in a non-module source file belong to the **global module**. Top-level declarations in a module source file belong to the external module represented by that source file.

An internal module declaration contributes both a member name (representing the module instance) and a type name (representing the module instance type) to the containing module. Likewise, a class declaration contributes both a member name (representing the constructor function) and a type name (representing the class instance type) to the containing module. An interface declaration contributes a type name (but no member name) to the containing module. Any other declaration contributes a member name (but no type name) to the declaration space to which it belongs.

The **root module** of a member or type is the outermost module within which the member or type is reachable. The root module of a member or type *M* in a parent module *P* is determined as follows:

- If *P* is the global module or an external module, *M*'s root module is *P*.
- If *M* is not exported, *M*'s root module is *P*.
- If *M* is exported, *M*'s root module is the root module of *P*.

Interfaces and internal modules are "open ended," and interfaces and internal module declarations with the same qualified name relative to a common root are automatically merged. For further details, see section 9.3.

Type names are in separate declaration spaces from other names. This means a module can declare both a type and a member with the same name, for example:

```

module M
{
    interface X { }    // Type
    var X;             // Member
}

```

Note that an error would have occurred if the interface 'X' above was instead a class 'X' because a class declaration contributes both a member name and a type name to the containing module.

Instance and static members in a class are likewise in separate declaration spaces. Thus the following is permitted:

```
class C
{
    x: number;           // Instance member
    static x: string;    // Static member
}
```

## 2.3 Scopes

The **scope** of a name is the region of program text within which it is possible to refer to the entity declared by that name without qualification of the name.

- The scope of a global variable, function, class, module, or interface is the entire program text.
- The scope of a non-exported variable, function, class, module, or interface declared within a module declaration is the body of that module declaration.
- The scope of an exported variable, function, class, module, or interface declared in an internal module is the body of that module and every internal module with the same root and the same qualified name relative to that root.
- The scope of an exported variable, function, class, module, or interface declared in an external module is the body of that module.
- The scope of a parameter, local variable, or local function declared within a function declaration (including a constructor, member function, or member accessor declaration) or function expression is the body of that function declaration or function expression.

Scopes may overlap, for example through nesting of modules and functions. When the scopes of two entities with the same name overlap, one name takes precedence over the other and access to the hidden name is either not possible or only possible by qualifying the name.

When an identifier is used as a *ModuleOrTypeName* (section 3.5), all identifiers not representing classes, modules, or interfaces are hidden, and identifiers declared in nested modules take precedence over identifiers declared in enclosing modules.

When an identifier is used as a *PrimaryExpression* (section 4.3), identifiers declared in nested modules or functions take precedence over identifiers declared in enclosing modules or functions.

Note that class members are never directly in scope—they can only be accessed by applying the dot (‘.’) operator to a class instance. This even includes members of the current instance in a constructor or member function, which are accessed by applying the dot operator to `this`.



## 3 Types

TypeScript adds optional static types to JavaScript. Types are used to place static constraints on program entities such as functions, variables, and properties so that compilers and development tools can offer better verification and assistance during software development. TypeScript's **static** compile-time type system closely models the **dynamic** run-time type system of JavaScript, allowing programmers to accurately express the type relationships that are expected to exist when their programs run and have those assumptions pre-validated by the TypeScript compiler. TypeScript's type analysis occurs entirely at compile-time and adds no run-time overhead to program execution.

All types in TypeScript are subtypes of a single top type called the Any type. The `any` keyword references this type. The Any type is the one type that can represent *any* JavaScript value with no constraints. All other types are categorized as **primitive types** or **object types**. These types introduce various static constraints on their values.

The primitive types are the Number, Boolean, String, Null, and Undefined types. The `number`, `bool`, and `string` keywords reference the Number, Boolean, and String primitive types respectively. It is not possible to explicitly reference the Null and Undefined types—only *values* of those types can be referenced, using the `null` and `undefined` literals.

The object types are all class, module, interface, and literal types. Class, module, and interface types are introduced through class, module, and interface declarations and are referenced by the name given to them in their declarations. Literal types are written as object, array, function, or constructor type literals and are used to compose new types from other types.

A special Void type exists purely to indicate the absence of a value, such as in a function with no return value.

Declarations of modules, classes, properties, functions, variables and other language entities associate types with those entities. The mechanism by which a type is formed and associated with a language entity depends on the particular kind of entity. For example, a module declaration associates the module with an anonymous type containing a set of properties corresponding to the exported variables and functions in the module, and a function declaration associates the function with an anonymous type containing a call signature corresponding to the parameters and return type of the function. Types can be associated with variables through explicit **type annotations**, such as

```
var x: number;
```

or through implicit **type inference**, as in

```
var x = 1;
```

which infers the type of 'x' to be the Number primitive type because that is the type of the value used to initialize 'x'.

*NOTE: The TypeScript compiler currently implements an experimental form of enum types. We expect the final language to support enum types, but not in the form they are currently implemented.*

*NOTE: TypeScript currently doesn't support Generics, but we expect to include them in the final language. Since TypeScript's static type system has no run-time manifestation, Generics will be based on "type erasure" and intended purely as a conduit for expressing parametric type relationships in interfaces, classes, and function signatures.*

## 3.1 The Any Type

The Any type is used to represent any JavaScript value. A value of the Any type supports the same operations as a value in JavaScript and no static type checking is performed for operations on Any values. Specifically, properties of any name can be accessed through an Any value and Any values can be called as functions or constructors with any argument list.

The any keyword references the Any type. In general, in places where a type is not explicitly provided and TypeScript cannot infer one, the Any type is assumed.

The Any type is a supertype of all types.

Some examples:

```
var x: any;           // Explicitly typed
var y;                // Same as y: any
var z: { a; b; };     // Same as z: { a: any; b: any; }

function f(x) {      // Same as f(x: any): void
  console.log(x);
}
```

## 3.2 Primitive Types

The primitive types are the Number, Boolean, String, Null, and Undefined types.

### 3.2.1 The Number Type

The Number primitive type corresponds to the similarly named JavaScript primitive type and represents double-precision 64-bit format IEEE 754 floating point values.

The number keyword references the Number primitive type and numeric literals may be used to write values of the Number primitive type.

For purposes of determining type relationships (section 3.6) and accessing properties (section 4.10), the Number primitive type behaves as an object type with the same properties as the global interface type 'Number' plus its own unique brand.

Some examples:



```

var x: number;           // Explicitly typed
var y = 0;               // Same as y: number = 0
var z = 123.456;        // Same as z: number = 123.456
var s = z.toFixed(2);   // Property of Number interface

```

### 3.2.2 The Boolean Type

The Boolean primitive type corresponds to the similarly named JavaScript primitive type and represents logical values that are either true or false.

The `bool` keyword references the Boolean primitive type and the `true` and `false` literals reference the two Boolean truth values.

For purposes of determining type relationships (section 3.6) and accessing properties (section 4.10), the Boolean primitive type behaves as an object type with the same properties as the global interface type 'Boolean' plus its own unique brand.

Some examples:

```

var b: bool;           // Explicitly typed
var yes = true;        // Same as yes: bool = true
var no = false;        // Same as no: bool = false

```

### 3.2.3 The String Type

The String primitive type corresponds to the similarly named JavaScript primitive type and represents sequences of characters stored as Unicode UTF-16 code units.

The `string` keyword references the String primitive type and string literals may be used to write values of the String primitive type.

For purposes of determining type relationships (section 3.6) and accessing properties (section 4.10), the String primitive type behaves as an object type with the same properties as the global interface type 'String' plus its own unique brand.

Some examples:

```

var s: string;         // Explicitly typed
var empty = "";        // Same as empty: string = ""
var abc = 'abc';       // Same as abc: string = "abc"
var c = abc.charAt(2); // Property of String interface

```

### 3.2.4 The Null Type

The Null type corresponds to the similarly named JavaScript primitive type and is the type of the `null` literal.

The `null` literal references the one and only value of the Null type. It is not possible to directly reference the Null type itself.

The Null type is a subtype of all types, except the Void and Undefined types. This means that `null` is considered a valid value for all primitive and object types, including even the Number and Boolean primitive types.

Some examples:

```
var n: number = null;    // Primitives can be null
var x = null;           // Same as x: any = null
var e: Null;            // Error, can't reference Null type
```

### 3.2.5 The Undefined Type

The Undefined type corresponds to the similarly named JavaScript primitive type and is the type of the undefined literal.

The undefined literal denotes the value given to all uninitialized variables and is the one and only value of the Undefined type. It is not possible to directly reference the Undefined type itself.

The undefined type is a subtype of all types. This means that `undefined` is considered a valid value for all primitive and object types. Furthermore, `undefined` is the only possible value for the Void type.

Some examples:

```
var n: number;          // Same as n: number = undefined
var x = undefined;     // Same as x: any = undefined
var e: Undefined;      // Error, can't reference Undefined type
```

## 3.3 Object Types

The object types are all class, module, interface, and literal types. Every object type is composed from zero or more of the following kinds of members:

- **Properties**, which define the names and types of the properties of an object of the given type. Property names are unique within their type.
- **Call signatures**, which define the possible parameter lists and the return type associated with applying a call operation to an object of the given type.
- **Construct signatures**, which define the possible parameter lists and the return type associated with applying the `new` operator to an object of the given type.
- **Index signatures**, which define the index expression types and the return type associated with applying an index operation to an object of the given type.
- **Brands**, which denote categories the given object type belongs to. Unique brands are automatically added to all class types and are not present in other object types.

Properties are either **public** or **private** and are either **required** or **optional**:

- Properties in a class declaration may be designated public or private, while properties of all other types are always considered public. Private members are only accessible within the class body containing their declaration, as described in section 8.2.1.
- Properties in an object type literal or interface declaration may be designated required or optional, while properties of all other types are always considered required. Properties that are optional in the target type of an assignment may be omitted from source objects, as described in section 3.6.3.

Brands are purely an artifact of TypeScript's type system. They have no run-time representation or cost. Brands serve mainly as a mechanism for restricting compatibility between types that otherwise have the same structure. For example, two classes with exactly the same member declarations are still not compatible because each class has a distinct brand.

For purposes of determining type relationships (section 3.6) and accessing properties (section 4.10), object types appear to have certain additional members:

- Every object type appears to have the members of the global interface type 'Object' unless those members are hidden by members in the object type.
- An object type with one or more call or construct signatures appears to have the members of the global interface type 'Function' unless those members are hidden by members in the object type.

Object type members hide 'Object' or 'Function' interface members in the following manner:

- A property hides an 'Object' or 'Function' property with the same name.
- A call signature hides an 'Object' or 'Function' call signature with the same number of parameters and identical parameter types in the respective positions.
- A construct signature hides an 'Object' or 'Function' construct signature with the same number of parameters and identical parameter types in the respective positions.
- An index signature hides an 'Object' or 'Function' index signature with the same parameter type.

In effect, object types are subtypes of the 'Object' or 'Function' interface unless the object types define members that are incompatible with those of the 'Object' or 'Function' interface—which, for example, occurs if an object type defines a property with the same name as a property in the 'Object' or 'Function' interface but with a type that isn't a subtype of that in the 'Object' or 'Function' interface.

Some examples:

```
Object o = { x: 10, y: 20 };           // Ok
Function f = (x: number) => x * x;   // Ok
Object err = { toString: 0 };        // Error, incompatible toString
```

## 3.4 The Void Type

The Void type, referenced by the `void` keyword, is used as the return type for functions that return no value. The only place the Void type may appear is in a return type annotation for a function.

A call expression that calls a void function is of type `Void`. Such an expression can appear only in an expression statement, in a return statement, or as the body of an arrow function expression. In all other contexts, an expression of type `Void` is an error.

The only possible value for the `Void` type is `undefined`.

The `Void` type is a subtype of the `Any` type and a supertype of the `Undefined` type, but otherwise `Void` is unrelated to all other types.

## 3.5 Specifying Types

Types are specified either by referencing their keyword or name or by writing type literals which compose other types into new types.

*Type:*

*PredefinedType*

*TypeName*

*TypeLiteral*

*PredefinedType:*

`any`

`number`

`bool`

`string`

*TypeName:*

*ModuleOrTypeName*

*ModuleOrTypeName:*

*Identifier*

*ModuleName* . *Identifier*

*ModuleName:*

*ModuleOrTypeName*

*TypeLiteral:*

*ObjectType*

*ArrayType*

*FunctionType*

*ConstructorType*

### 3.5.1 Predefined Types

The `any`, `number`, `bool`, and `string` keywords reference the `Any` type and the `Number`, `Boolean`, and `String` primitive types respectively. These keywords are reserved and cannot be used as type names.

### 3.5.2 Type Names

Class, module, and interface declarations introduce **named types** which may be referenced by their name wherever a type is expected.

Resolution of a *ModuleOrTypeName* consisting of a single identifier is described in section 2.3.

Resolution of a *ModuleOrTypeName* of the form *M.N*, where *M* is a *ModuleName* and *N* is an *Identifier*, proceeds by first resolving the module name *M*. If the resolution of *M* is successful and the resulting module contains an exported class, module, or interface member *N*, then *M.N* refers to that member. Otherwise, *M.N* is undefined.

A *TypeName* is a *ModuleOrTypeName* that can refer to a class, module, or interface. When a *TypeName* refers to a module it denotes the object type associated with the module. When resolution of a *TypeName* fails, an error is reported and the Any type is substituted.

A *ModuleName* is a *ModuleOrTypeName* that must refer to a module.

### 3.5.3 Object Type Literals

An object type literal defines an object type by specifying the set of members that are statically considered to be present in instances of the type. Object type literals can be given names using interface declarations but are otherwise anonymous.

*ObjectType*:

{ *TypeBody* }

*TypeBody*:

*TypeMemberList*<sub>opt</sub>

*TypeMemberList* ;

*TypeMemberList*:

*TypeMember*

*TypeMemberList* ; *TypeMember*

*TypeMember*:

*CallSignature*

*ConstructSignature*

*IndexSignature*

*PropertySignature*

*FunctionSignature*

The members of an object type literal are specified as a combination of call, construct, index, property and function signatures. The signatures are separated by semicolons and enclosed in curly braces.

### 3.5.3.1 Call Signatures

A call signature defines the parameter list and return type associated with applying a call operation (section 4.12) to an instance of the containing type. A type may **overload** call operations by defining multiple call signatures with different parameter lists.

*CallSignature:*

( *ParameterList<sub>opt</sub>* ) *ReturnTypeAnnotation<sub>opt</sub>*

Parameter lists and return type annotations of call signatures follow the same rules as those of function signatures (section 6.2) for function overloads (i.e. optional parameters may only use the ? form).

If a call signature omits a return type annotation, the Any type is assumed. A call signature's return type is the Void type only if an explicit type annotation stating so is present.

An object type containing call signatures is said to be a **function type**.

It is an error for a type to declare multiple call signatures with the same number of parameters and identical parameter types in the respective positions.

### 3.5.3.2 Construct Signatures

A construct signature defines the parameter list and return type associated with applying the new operator (section 4.11) to an instance of the containing type. A type may overload new operations by defining multiple construct signatures with different parameter lists.

*ConstructSignature:*

new ( *ParameterList<sub>opt</sub>* ) *TypeAnnotation<sub>opt</sub>*

The parameters and return type of a construct signature are subject to the same rules as a call signature. Note, however, that the return type of construct signatures cannot be the Void type.

A type containing construct signatures is said to be a **constructor type**.

It is an error for a type to declare multiple construct signatures with the same number of parameters and identical parameter types in the respective positions.

### 3.5.3.3 Index Signatures

An index signature defines the parameter and return type associated with applying an indexing operation (section 4.10) to an instance of the containing type.

*IndexSignature:*

[ *RequiredParameter* ] *TypeAnnotation<sub>opt</sub>*

The type of an index signature's parameter must be the Number or String primitive type. A type may overload indexing operations by defining index signatures with both parameter types.

If an index signature omits a *TypeAnnotation*, the Any type is assumed.

### 3.5.3.4 Property Signatures

A property signature declares the name and type of a property member.

*PropertySignature:*

*Identifier* *?<sub>opt</sub>* *TypeAnnotation<sub>opt</sub>*

The *Identifier* of a property signature must be unique within its containing type. If the identifier is followed by a question mark, the property is optional. Otherwise, the property is required.

If a property signature omits a *TypeAnnotation*, the Any type is assumed.

### 3.5.3.5 Function Signatures

A function signature is shorthand for declaring a property of a function type.

*FunctionSignature:*

*Identifier* *?<sub>opt</sub>* ( *ParameterList<sub>opt</sub>* ) *ReturnTypeAnnotation<sub>opt</sub>*

If the identifier is followed by a question mark, the property is optional. Otherwise, the property is required.

Only object type literals and interfaces can declare optional properties. Therefore, only *FunctionSignatures* occurring in *ObjectTypes* are permitted to include a question mark after their identifier.

A function signature of the form

*Identifier* ( *ParamList* ) : *ReturnType*

is equivalent to the property declaration

*Identifier* : { ( *ParamList* ) : *ReturnType* }

A literal type may **overload** a function by declaring multiple function signatures with the same name but differing parameter lists. Overloads must either all be required (question mark omitted) or all be optional (question mark included). A set of overloaded function signatures correspond to a declaration of a single property with a type composed from an equivalent set of call signatures. Specifically

*Identifier* ( *ParamList<sub>1</sub>* ) : *ReturnType<sub>1</sub>* ;

*Identifier* ( *ParamList<sub>2</sub>* ) : *ReturnType<sub>2</sub>* ;

...

*Identifier* ( *ParamList<sub>n</sub>* ) : *ReturnType<sub>n</sub>* ;

is equivalent to

```

Identifier : {
  ( ParamList1 ) : ReturnType1 ;
  ( ParamList2 ) : ReturnType2 ;
  ...
  ( ParamListn ) : ReturnTypen ; }

```

In the following example of an object type

```

{
  func1(x: number): number;           // Function signature
  func2: (x: number) => number;       // Function type literal
  func3: { (x: number): number };    // Object type literal
}

```

the properties 'func1', 'func2', and 'func3' are all of the same type, namely an object type with a single call signature taking a number and returning a number. Likewise, in the object type

```

{
  func4(x: number): number;
  func4(s: string): string;
  func5: {
    (x: number): number;
    (s: string): string;
  };
}

```

the properties 'func4' and 'func5' are of the same type, namely an object type with two call signatures taking and returning number and string respectively.

### 3.5.4 Array Type Literals

An array type literal specifies an element type followed by [ ].

```

ArrayType:
  Type [ ]

```

An array type of the form *ElementType*[ ] is equivalent to an object type with the index signature

```

[index: number]: ElementType

```

plus a set of members equivalent to the global interface type 'Array' where all occurrences of the magic '\_element' type are replaced with *ElementType*.

*NOTE: Arrays are obviously a prime candidate for generic treatment. We expect array type literals to eventually become syntactic sugar for generic instantiation of a global interface type `Array<T>`.*

### 3.5.5 Function Type Literals

A function type literal defines an object type that contains a single call signature.



*FunctionType:*

`( ParameterListopt ) => ReturnType`

A function type literal of the form

`( ParamList ) => ReturnType`

is exactly equivalent to the object type literal

`{ ( ParamList ) : ReturnType }`

A function type with multiple call signatures cannot be written as a function type literal but must instead be written as an object type literal.

### 3.5.6 Constructor Type Literals

A constructor type literal defines an object type that contains a single construct signature.

*ConstructorType:*

`new ( ParameterListopt ) => Type`

A constructor type literal of the form

`new ( ParamList ) => ReturnType`

is exactly equivalent to the object type literal

`{ new ( ParamList ) : ReturnType }`

A constructor type with multiple construct signatures cannot be written as a constructor type literal but must instead be written as an object type literal.

## 3.6 Type Relationships

Types in TypeScript have identity, subtype, supertype, and assignment compatibility relationships as defined in the following sections.

For purposes of determining type relationships, the Number, Boolean, and String primitive types are treated as object types with the same properties as the 'Number', 'Boolean', and 'String' interfaces respectively, plus their own unique brand.

Likewise, all object types appear to have the members of the 'Object' interface unless those members are hidden by members with the same name in the object types, and object types with one or more call or construct signatures appear to have the members of the 'Function' interface unless those members are hidden by members with the same name in the object types.

### 3.6.1 Type identity

Two types are considered **identical** when they are both one and the same of the Any, Number, String, Boolean, Undefined, Null, or Void types, when they are both array types with identical element types, or when they are both object types with identical sets of members. Member sets of object types are identical when, one for one,

- properties are identical in name, optionality, and type,
- call signatures are identical in return types and parameter count, kinds, and types,
- construct signatures are identical in return types and parameter count, kinds, and types,
- index signatures are identical in return and parameter types, and
- brands are identical.

Note that these rules imply that structure, not names, of types determine identity. Also, note that parameter names are not significant when determining identity of signatures.

### 3.6.2 Subtypes and Supertypes

A type  $S$  is a **subtype** of a type  $T$ , and  $T$  is a **supertype** of  $S$ , if one of the following is true:

- $S$  and  $T$  are identical types.
- $T$  is the Any type.
- $S$  is the Undefined type.
- $S$  is the Null type and  $T$  is not the Undefined or Void type.
- $S$  and  $T$  are array types with element types  $S_E$  and  $T_E$ , and  $S_E$  is a subtype of  $T_E$ .
- $S$  and  $T$  are object types and, for each member  $M$  in  $T$ , one of the following is true:
  - $M$  is a property and  $S$  contains a property of the same name as  $M$  and a type that is a subtype of that of  $M$ .
  - $M$  is an optional property and  $S$  contains no property of the same name as  $M$ .
  - $M$  is a call, construct or index signature and  $S$  contains a call, construct or index signature  $N$  where
    - the signatures are of the same kind (call, construct or index),
    - the number of non-optional parameters in  $N$  is less than or equal to that of  $M$ ,
    - for parameter positions that are present in both signatures, each parameter type in  $N$  is a subtype or supertype of the corresponding parameter type in  $M$ ,
    - the result type of  $M$  is Void, or the result type of  $N$  is a subtype of that of  $M$ .
  - $M$  is a brand and  $S$  contains the same brand.

When comparing call, construct, or index signatures, parameter names are ignored and rest parameters correspond to an unbounded expansion of optional parameters of the rest parameter element type.

### 3.6.3 Assignment Compatibility

Types are required to be assignment compatible in certain circumstances, such as expression and variable types in assignment statements and argument and parameter types in function calls.

A type  $S$  is **assignable to** a type  $T$ , and  $T$  is **assignable from**  $S$ , if one of the following is true:

- $S$  and  $T$  are identical types.
- $S$  or  $T$  is the Any type.
- $S$  is the Undefined type.
- $S$  is the Null type and  $T$  is not the Undefined or Void type.
- $S$  and  $T$  are array types with element types  $S_E$  and  $T_E$ , and  $S_E$  is assignable to  $T_E$ .
- $S$  and  $T$  are object types and, for each member  $M$  in  $T$ , one of the following is true:
  - $M$  is a property and  $S$  contains a property of the same name as  $M$  and a type that is assignable to that of  $M$ .
  - $M$  is an optional property and  $S$  contains no property of the same name as  $M$ .
  - $M$  is a call, construct or index signature and  $S$  contains a call, construct or index signature  $N$  where
    - the signatures are of the same kind (call, construct or index),
    - the number of non-optional parameters in  $N$  is less than or equal to that of  $M$ ,
    - for parameter positions that are present in both signatures, each parameter type in  $N$  is assignable to or from the corresponding parameter type in  $M$ ,
    - the result type of  $M$  is Void, or the result type of  $N$  is assignable to that of  $M$ .
  - $M$  is a brand and  $S$  contains the same brand.

When comparing call, construct, or index signatures, parameter names are ignored and rest parameters correspond to an unbounded expansion of optional parameters of the rest parameter element type.

Note that the assignment compatibility and subtyping rules differ only in that the Any type is assignable to, but not a subtype of, all types.

The rules above mean that, when assigning values or passing parameters, optional properties must either be present and of a compatible type, or not be present at all. For example:

```
function foo(x: { id: number; name?: string; }): void;

foo({ id: 1234 }); // Ok
foo({ id: 1234, name: "hello" }); // Ok
foo({ id: 1234, name: false }); // Error, name of wrong type
foo({ name: "hello" }); // Error, id required but missing
```

### 3.7 Widened Types

In several situations TypeScript infers types from context, alleviating the need for the programmer to explicitly specify types that appear obvious. For example

```
var name = "Steve";
```

infers the type of `name` to be the String primitive type since that is the type of the value used to initialize it. When inferring the type of a variable, property or function result from an expression, the **widened** form

of the source type is used as the inferred type of the target. The widened form of a type is the type in which all occurrences of the Null and Undefined types have been replaced with the type any.

The following example shows the results of widening types to produce inferred variable types.

```
var a = null;           // var a: any
var b = undefined;     // var b: any
var c = { x: 0, y: null }; // var c: { x: number, y: any }
var d = [ null, undefined ]; // var d: any[]
```

### 3.8 The Best Common Type

In some cases a **best common type** needs to be inferred for a set of expressions. In particular, return types of functions with multiple return statements and element types of array literals are found this way.

Given a set of expressions  $\{ e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n \}$  of types  $\{ T_1, T_2, \dots, T_n \}$ , the best common type of those expressions is the one  $T_x$  in the set that is a supertype of every  $T_n$ . It is possible that no such type exists, or more than one such type exists, in which case the given set of expressions has no best common type.

## 4 Expressions

This chapter describes the manner in which TypeScript provides type inference and type checking for JavaScript expressions. TypeScript's type analysis occurs entirely at compile-time and adds no run-time overhead to expression evaluation.

TypeScript's typing rules define a type for every expression construct. For example, the type of the literal 123 is the Number primitive type, and the type of the object literal { a: 10, b: "hello" } is { a: number; b: string; }. The sections in this chapter describe these rules in detail.

In addition to type inference and type checking, TypeScript adds the following expression constructs:

- Optional parameter and return type annotations in function expressions.
- Default parameter values and rest parameters in function expressions.
- Arrow function expressions.
- Super calls and member access.
- Type assertions.

Unless otherwise noted in the sections that follow, TypeScript expressions and the JavaScript expressions generated from them are identical.

### 4.1 Values and References

Expressions are classified as **values** or **references**. References are the subset of expressions that are permitted as the target of an assignment. Specifically, references are combinations of identifiers (section 4.3), parentheses (section 4.7), and property accesses (section 4.10). All other expression constructs described in this chapter are classified as values.

### 4.2 The this Keyword

The type of `this` in an expression depends on the location in which the reference takes place:

- In a constructor, member function, or member accessor, `this` is of the class instance type of the containing class.
- In a static function or static accessor, `this` is of the constructor function type of the containing class.
- In a function declaration or a standard function expression, `this` is of type Any.
- In the global module, `this` is of type Any.

In all other contexts it is a compile-time error to reference `this`.

In the body of an arrow function expression, references to `this` are rewritten in the generated JavaScript code, as described in section 4.9.2.

### 4.3 Identifiers

When an expression is an *Identifier*, the expression refers to the most nested module, class, function, variable, or parameter with that name whose scope (section 2.3) includes the location of the reference.

The type of the expression is the type associated with the referenced entity:

- For a module, the object type associated with the module instance.
- For a class, the constructor type associated with the constructor function object.
- For a function, the function type associated with the function object.
- For a variable, the type of the variable.
- For a parameter, the type of the parameter.

In all cases, the expression is classified as a reference.

### 4.4 Literals

Literals are typed as follows:

- The type of the `null` literal is the Null primitive type.
- The type of the literals `true` and `false` is the Boolean primitive type.
- The type of numeric literals is the Number primitive type.
- The type of string literals is the String primitive type.
- The type of regular expression literals is the RegExp interface type.

### 4.5 Object Literals

The type of an object literal is an object type with the set of properties specified in the object literal. For each property assignment *Name* : *Expr* in the object literal, the type of the resulting property is determined as follows:

- If the object literal is contextually typed (section 4.18) and the contextual type contains a property *p* with the given *Name*, then *Expr* is contextually typed by the type of *p*. The type of *Expr* must be assignable to the type of *p* and the resulting property has that type.
- Otherwise, the type of the resulting property is the widened form (section 3.7) of the type of *Expr*.

It is a compile-time error to specify multiple values for the same property.

### 4.6 Array Literals

The type of an array literal is determined as follows:

- If the array literal is contextually typed (section 4.18) by an array type *E*[], then each element expression is contextually typed by *E*. The type of each element expression must be assignable to *E*, and the type of the array literal is *E*[].
- Otherwise, if the array literal is empty, the type of the array literal is `any[]`.

- Otherwise, if a best common type of each of the element expressions can be determined, the type of the array literal is  $E[]$ , where  $E$  is that best common type.
- Otherwise, no type can be determined for the array literal and a compile-time error occurs.

## 4.7 Parentheses

A parenthesized expression

( *Expression* )

has the same type and classification as the *Expression* itself. Specifically, if the contained expression is classified as a reference, so is the parenthesized expression.

## 4.8 The super Keyword

The `super` keyword can be used in expressions to reference base class properties and the base class constructor.

*CallExpression*: ( *Modified* )

...

`super` *Arguments*

`super` . *Identifier*

### 4.8.1 Super Calls

Super calls consist of the keyword `super` followed by an argument list enclosed in parentheses. Super calls are only permitted in constructors of derived classes, as described in section 8.3.2.

A super call invokes the constructor of the base class on the instance referenced by `this`. A super call is processed as a function call (section 4.12) using the construct signatures of the base class constructor function type as the initial set of candidate signatures for overload resolution.

The type of a super call expression is `Void`.

The JavaScript code generated for a super call is specified in section 8.5.2.

### 4.8.2 Super Property Access

A super property access consists of the keyword `super` followed by a dot and an identifier. Super property accesses are used to access base class instance member functions from derived classes.

A super property access is permitted only in a constructor, instance member function, or instance member accessor of a derived class and must specify a public instance member function of the base class. It is not possible to access other kinds of base class members in a super property access.

Super property accesses are typically used to access overridden base class instance member functions from derived class instance member functions. For an example of this, see section 8.4.2.

The JavaScript code generated for a super property access is specified in section 8.5.2.

## 4.9 Function Expressions

Function expressions are extended from JavaScript to optionally include parameter and return type annotations, and a new compact form, called arrow function expressions, is introduced.

```
FunctionExpression: ( Modified )  
    function Identifieropt CallSignature { FunctionBody }  
  
AssignmentExpression: ( Modified )  
    ...  
    ArrowFunctionExpression  
  
ArrowFunctionExpression:  
    ArrowFormalParameters => Block  
    ArrowFormalParameters => AssignmentExpression  
  
ArrowFormalParameters:  
    CallSignature  
    Identifier
```

The terms **standard function expression** and **arrow function expression** are used to refer to the *FunctionExpression* and *ArrowFunctionExpression* forms respectively. When referring to either, the generic term **function expression** is used.

The type of a function expression is an object type containing a single call signature with parameter and return types inferred from the function expression's signature and body.

The descriptions of function declarations provided in section 6.1 apply to function expressions as well, except that function expressions do not support overloading.

Function expressions with no parameter or return type annotations (but possibly with optional parameters and default parameter values) are contextually typed in certain circumstances, as described in section 4.18. When a function expression is contextually typed by a function type *T*, the function expression is processed as if it had explicitly specified parameter and return type annotations as they exist in *T*. Parameters are matched by position and need not have matching names. If the function expression has fewer parameters than *T*, the additional parameters in *T* are ignored. If the function expression has more parameters than *T*, the additional parameters are all considered to have type *Any*.

### 4.9.1 Standard Function Expressions

Standard function expressions are function expressions written with the `function` keyword. The type of `this` in a standard function expression is the *Any* type.



Standard function expressions are transformed to JavaScript in the same manner as function declarations (see section 6.5).

## 4.9.2 Arrow Function Expressions

TypeScript supports **arrow function expressions**, a new feature planned for ECMAScript 6. Arrow function expressions are a compact form of function expressions that omit the `function` keyword and have lexical scoping of `this`.

An arrow function expression of the form

$$\textit{ArrowFormalParameters} \Rightarrow \textit{AssignmentExpression}$$

is exactly equivalent to

$$\textit{ArrowFormalParameters} \Rightarrow \{ \text{return } \textit{AssignmentExpression} \ ; \ }$$

Furthermore, arrow function expressions of the forms

$$\begin{aligned} \textit{Identifier} &\Rightarrow \textit{Block} \\ \textit{Identifier} &\Rightarrow \textit{AssignmentExpression} \end{aligned}$$

are exactly equivalent to

$$\begin{aligned} ( \textit{Identifier} ) &\Rightarrow \textit{Block} \\ ( \textit{Identifier} ) &\Rightarrow \textit{AssignmentExpression} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the following examples are all equivalent:

```
(x) => { return Math.sin(x); }
(x) => Math.sin(x)
x => { return Math.sin(x); }
x => Math.sin(x)
```

A function expression using the `function` keyword introduces a new dynamically bound `this`, whereas an arrow function expression preserves the `this` of its enclosing context. Arrow function expressions are particularly useful for writing callbacks, which otherwise would have a meaningless `this`.

In the example

```
var messenger = {
  message: "Hello World",
  start: function() {
    setTimeout(() => { alert(this.message); }, 3000);
  }
};
messenger.start();
```

the use of an arrow function expression causes the callback to have the same `this` as the surrounding start function. Writing the callback as a standard function expression it becomes necessary to manually arrange access to the surrounding `this`, for example by copying it into a local variable:

```
var messenger = {
  message: "Hello World",
  start: function() {
    var _this = this;
    setTimeout(function() { alert(_this.message); }, 3000);
  }
};
messenger.start();
```

The TypeScript compiler applies this type of transformation to rewrite arrow function expressions into standard function expressions.

## 4.10 Property Access

A property access uses either dot notation or bracket notation. A property access expression is always classified as a reference.

A property access applied to a value of the primitive type `Number`, `Boolean`, or `String` behaves exactly as a property access applied to an object of the global interface type `'Number'`, `'Boolean'`, or `'String'` respectively. Furthermore, in a property access, an object (including `Number`, `Boolean`, or `String`) appears to have additional properties and indexers that originate in the `'Object'` or `'Function'` global interface types, as described in section 3.3.

A dot notation property access of the form

*ObjExpr* . *Identifier*

where *ObjExpr* is an expression and *Identifier* is an identifier, is used to access the property with the given name on the given object. A dot notation property access is processed as follows at compile-time:

- If *ObjExpr* is of the `Any` type, any *Identifier* is permitted and the type of the result is of type `Any`.
- Otherwise, if *ObjExpr* is of a primitive or object type and *Identifier* denotes a property member in that type, the result is of the type of that property.
- Otherwise, the property access is invalid and a compile-time error occurs.

A bracket notation property access of the form

*ObjExpr* [ *IndexExpr* ]

where *ObjExpr* and *IndexExpr* are expressions, is used to access the property with the name computed by the index expression on the given object. A bracket notation property access is processed as follows at compile-time:

- If *ObjExpr* is of type *Any* and *IndexExpr* is of type *Any* or the *Number* or *String* primitive type, the result is of type *Any*.
- Otherwise, if *ObjExpr* is of a primitive or object type that has one or more index signatures, the property access is processed in the same manner as a function call, but using the index signatures as the initial set of candidate signatures for overload resolution. The result type of the function call becomes the result type of the operation.
- Otherwise, the property access is invalid and a compile-time error occurs.

The global interface type 'Object' by default defines an indexer '[s: string]: any'. Thus, objects of any type can be indexed by string expressions for computed access to their properties.

## 4.11 The new Operator

A new operation has one of the following forms:

```
new ConstructExpr
```

```
new ConstructExpr ( Args )
```

where *ConstructExpr* is an expression and *Args* is an argument list. The first form is equivalent to supplying an empty argument list. *ConstructExpr* must be of type *Any* or of an object type with one or more construct or call signatures. The operation is processed as follows at compile-time:

- If *ConstructExpr* is of type *Any*, *Args* can be any argument list and the result of the operation is of type *Any*.
- If *ConstructExpr* is of an object type with one or more construct signatures, the expression is processed in the same manner as a function call, but using the construct signatures as the initial set of candidate signatures for overload resolution. The result type of the function call becomes the result type of the operation.
- If *ConstructExpr* is of an object type with no construct signatures but one or more call signatures, the expression is processed as a function call. A compile-time error occurs if the result of the function call is not *Void*. The type of the result of the operation is *Any*.

## 4.12 Function Calls

In a function call of the form

```
FuncExpr ( Args )
```

where *FuncExpr* is an expression and *Args* is an argument list, *FuncExpr* must be of a function type or of type *Any*.

If *FuncExpr* is of type *Any* or of an object type that has no call signatures but is a subtype of the *Function* interface, the call is an **untyped function call**. In an untyped function call, *Args* can be any argument list, no contextual types are provided for the argument expressions, and the result is always of type *Any*.

If *FuncExpr* is of a function type, the call is a **typed function call**. TypeScript employs **overload resolution** in typed function calls in order to support functions with multiple call signatures. The purpose of overload resolution is to ensure that at least one signature is applicable, to provide contextual types for the arguments, and determine the result type of the function call, which could differ between the multiple applicable signatures. Overload resolution has no impact on the run-time behavior of a function call. Since JavaScript doesn't support function overloading, all that matters at run-time is the name of the function.

The compile-time processing of a typed function call consists of the following steps:

- First, a set of candidate signatures is constructed. This consists of all applicable call signatures declared by the function type.
- If the set of candidate signatures is empty, the function call is an error.
- Otherwise, for every signature *S* in the set, if another signature is a better match for the argument list, *S* is eliminated from the set.
- The result type of the call is the best common type (section 3.8) of the return types of the remaining signatures in the set. If no such best common type exists, the function call is ambiguous and a compile-time error occurs.

A signature is said to be an **applicable signature** with respect to an argument list when

- each non-optional parameter has a corresponding argument, and
- each argument expression, contextually typed (section 4.18) by the corresponding parameter type in the signature, is of a type that is assignable to (section 3.6.3) that parameter type.

Given an argument list *A* with a set of argument types  $\{A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n\}$  and two applicable signatures *P* and *Q* with parameter types  $\{P_1, P_2, \dots, P_n\}$  and  $\{Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_n\}$ , *P* is a **better match** than *Q* when

- for each argument, the conversion from  $A_x$  to  $Q_x$  is not better than the conversion from  $A_x$  to  $P_x$ , and
- for at least one argument, the conversion from  $A_x$  to  $P_x$  is better than the conversion from  $A_x$  to  $Q_x$ .

Given a conversion  $C_1$  from a type *S* to a type  $T_1$  and a conversion  $C_2$  from a type *S* to a type  $T_2$ , the **better conversion** of the two conversions is determined as follows:

- If  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are identical types, neither conversion is better.
- If *S* is identical to  $T_1$ ,  $C_1$  is the better conversion.
- If *S* is identical to  $T_2$ ,  $C_2$  is the better conversion.
- If  $T_1$  is a subtype of  $T_2$ ,  $C_1$  is the better conversion.
- If  $T_2$  is a subtype of  $T_1$ ,  $C_2$  is the better conversion.
- Otherwise, neither conversion is better.

## 4.13 Type Assertions

TypeScript extends the JavaScript expression grammar with the ability to assert a type for an expression:

*UnaryExpression: (Modified)*

```
...  
< Type > UnaryExpression
```

A type assertion expression consists of a type enclosed in < and > followed by a unary expression. Type assertion expressions are purely a compile-time construct. Type assertions are *not* checked at run-time and have no impact on the emitted JavaScript (and therefore no run-time cost). The type and the enclosing < and > are simply removed from the generated code.

A type assertion expression of the form < *T* > *e* requires the type of *e* to be assignable to *T* or *T* to be assignable to the type of *e*, or otherwise a compile-time error occurs. The type of the result is *T*.

Type assertions check for assignment compatibility in both directions. Thus, type assertions allow type conversions that *might* be correct, but aren't *known* to be correct. In the example

```
class Shape { ... }  
  
class Circle extends Shape { ... }  
  
function createShape(kind: string): Shape {  
    if (kind === "circle") return new Circle();  
    ...  
}  
  
var circle = <Circle> createShape("circle");
```

the type annotations indicate that the 'createShape' method *might* return a 'Circle' (because 'Circle' is a subtype of 'Shape'), but isn't *known* to do so (because its return type is 'Shape'). Therefore, a type assertion is needed to treat the result as a 'Circle'.

As mentioned above, type assertions are not checked at run-time and it is up to the programmer to guard against errors, for example using the instanceof operator:

```
var shape = createShape(shapeKind);  
if (shape instanceof Circle) {  
    var circle = <Circle> shape;  
    ...  
}
```

## 4.14 Unary Operators

The subsections that follow specify the compile-time processing rules of the unary operators. In general, if the operand of a unary operator does not meet the stated requirements, a compile-time error occurs and the result of the operation defaults to type Any in further processing.

#### 4.14.1 The ++ and -- operators

These operators, in prefix or postfix form, require their operand to be of type Any or the Number primitive type and classified as a reference (section 4.1). They produce a result of the Number primitive type.

#### 4.14.2 The +, −, and ~ operators

These operators permit their operand to be of any type and produce a result of the Number primitive type.

The unary + operator can conveniently be used to convert a value of any type to the Number primitive type:

```
function getValue() { ... }  
  
var n = +getValue();
```

The example above converts the result of 'getValue()' to a number if it isn't a number already. The type inferred for 'n' is the Number primitive type regardless of the return type of 'getValue'.

#### 4.14.3 The ! operator

The ! operator permits its operand to be of any type and produces a result of the Boolean primitive type.

Two unary ! operators in sequence can conveniently be used to convert a value of any type to the Boolean primitive type:

```
function getValue() { ... }  
  
var b = !!getValue();
```

The example above converts the result of 'getValue()' to a Boolean if it isn't a Boolean already. The type inferred for 'b' is the Boolean primitive type regardless of the return type of 'getValue'.

#### 4.14.4 The delete Operator

The delete operator takes an operand of any type and produces a result of the Boolean primitive type.

#### 4.14.5 The void Operator

The void operator takes an operand of any type and produces the value undefined. The type of the result is the Undefined type (3.2.5).

#### 4.14.6 The typeof Operator

The typeof operator takes an operand of any type and produces a value of the String primitive type.

### 4.15 Binary Operators

The subsections that follow specify the compile-time processing rules of the binary operators. In general, if the operands of a binary operator do not meet the stated requirements, a compile-time error occurs

and the result of the operation defaults to type any in further processing. Tables that summarize the compile-time processing rules for operands of the Any type, the Boolean, Number, and String primitive types, and all object types are provided.

#### 4.15.1 The \*, /, %, -, <<, >>, >>>, &, ^, and | operators

These operators require their operands to be of type Any or the Number primitive type. If one operand is the null or undefined value, it is treated as having the type of the other operand. The result is always of the Number primitive type.

|         | Any    | Boolean | Number | String | Object |
|---------|--------|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| Any     | Number |         | Number |        |        |
| Boolean |        |         |        |        |        |
| Number  | Number |         | Number |        |        |
| String  |        |         |        |        |        |
| Object  |        |         |        |        |        |

#### 4.15.2 The + operator

The binary + operator requires both operands to be of the Number primitive type, or at least one of the operands to be of type Any or the String primitive type. If one operand is the null or undefined value, it is treated as having the type of the other operand. If both operands are of the Number primitive type, the result is of the Number primitive type. If one or both operands are of the String primitive type, the result is of the String primitive type. Otherwise, the result is of type Any.

|         | Any    | Boolean | Number | String | Object |
|---------|--------|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| Any     | Any    | Any     | Any    | String | Any    |
| Boolean | Any    |         |        | String |        |
| Number  | Any    |         | Number | String |        |
| String  | String | String  | String | String | String |
| Object  | Any    |         |        | String |        |

A value of any type can be converted to the String primitive type by adding an empty string:

```
function getValue() { ... }

var s = getValue() + "";
```

The example above converts the result of 'getValue()' to a string if it isn't a string already. The type inferred for 's' is the String primitive type regardless of the return type of 'getValue'.

#### 4.15.3 The <, >, <=, >=, ==, !=, ===, and !== operators

These operators require one operand type to be identical to or a subtype of the other operand type. The result is always of the Boolean primitive type.

|         | Any     | Boolean | Number  | String  | Object  |
|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|---------|
| Any     | Boolean | Boolean | Boolean | Boolean | Boolean |
| Boolean | Boolean | Boolean |         |         |         |
| Number  | Boolean |         | Boolean |         |         |
| String  | Boolean |         |         | Boolean |         |
| Object  | Boolean |         |         |         | Boolean |

#### 4.15.4 The instanceof operator

The instanceof operator requires the left operand to be of type Any or an object type, and the right operand to be of type Any or a subtype of the 'Function' interface type. The result is always of the Boolean primitive type.

Note that object types containing one or more call or construct signatures are automatically subtypes of the 'Function' interface type, as described in section 3.3.

#### 4.15.5 The in operator

The in operator requires the left operand to be of type Any or the String primitive type, and the right operand to be of type Any or an object type. The result is always of the Boolean primitive type.

#### 4.15.6 The && operator

The && operator permits the operands to be of any type and produces a result of the same type as the second operand.

|         | Any | Boolean | Number | String | Object |
|---------|-----|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| Any     | Any | Boolean | Number | String | Object |
| Boolean | Any | Boolean | Number | String | Object |
| Number  | Any | Boolean | Number | String | Object |
| String  | Any | Boolean | Number | String | Object |
| Object  | Any | Boolean | Number | String | Object |



### 4.15.7 The || operator

The || operator permits the operands to be of any type and produces a result that is of the best common type (section 3.8) of the two operand types, or of type Any if no best common type can be determined.

|         | Any | Boolean | Number | String | Object |
|---------|-----|---------|--------|--------|--------|
| Any     | Any | Any     | Any    | Any    | Any    |
| Boolean | Any | Boolean | Any    | Any    | Any    |
| Number  | Any | Any     | Number | Any    | Any    |
| String  | Any | Any     | Any    | String | Any    |
| Object  | Any | Any     | Any    | Any    | Object |

### 4.16 The Conditional Operator

In a conditional expression of the form

$$Cond \ ? \ Expr1 \ : \ Expr2$$

the *Cond* expression may be of any type, and *Expr1* and *Expr2* expressions must be of identical types or the type of one must be a subtype of the other. The result is of the best common type (section 3.8) of the two expressions.

### 4.17 Assignment Operators

An assignment of the form

$$VarExpr = ValueExpr$$

requires *VarExpr* to be classified as a reference (section 4.1). *ValueExpr* is contextually typed (section 4.18) by the type of *VarExpr*, and the type of *ValueExpr* must be assignable to (section 3.6.3) the type of *VarExpr*, or otherwise a compile-time error occurs. The result is a value with the type of *ValueExpr*.

A compound assignment of the form

$$VarExpr \ Operator = ValueExpr$$

where *Operator=* is of the compound assignment operators

$$*= \ /= \ \% = \ += \ -= \ <<= \ >>= \ >>>= \ \&= \ ^= \ |=$$

is subject to the same requirements, and produces a value of the same type, as the corresponding non-compound operation. A compound assignment furthermore requires *VarExpr* to be classified as a

reference (section 4.1) and the type of the non-compound operation to be assignable to the type of *VarExpr*.

## 4.18 Contextually Typed Expressions

In certain situations, parameter and return types of function expressions are automatically inferred from the contexts in which the function expressions occur. For example, given the declaration

```
var f: (s: string) => string;
```

the assignment

```
f = function(s) { return s.toLowerCase(); }
```

infers the type of the 's' parameter to be the String primitive type even though there is no type annotation to that effect. The function expression is said to be **contextually typed** by the variable to which it is being assigned. Contextual typing occurs in the following situations:

- In variable and member declarations with a type annotation and an initializer, the initializer expression is contextually typed by the type of the variable or property.
- In assignment expressions, the right hand expression is contextually typed by the type of the left hand expression.
- In typed function calls, argument expressions are contextually typed by their parameter types.
- In return statements, if the containing function has a known return type, the expression is contextually typed by that return type. A function's return type is known if the function includes a return type annotation or is itself contextually typed.
- In contextually typed object literals, property assignments are contextually typed by their property types.
- In contextually typed array literals, element expressions are contextually typed by the array element type.

Contextual typing of an expression *e* by a type *T* proceeds as follows:

- If *e* is an *ObjectLiteral* and *T* is an object type, *e* is processed with the contextual type *T*, as described in section 4.5.
- If *e* is an *ArrayLiteral* and *T* is an array type, *e* is processed with the contextual type *T*, as described in section 4.6.
- If *e* is a *FunctionExpression* or *ArrowFunctionExpression* with no parameter or return type annotations and *T* is an object type with exactly one call signature, *e* is processed with the contextual type *T*, as described in section 4.9.
- Otherwise, *e* is processed without a contextual type.

The rules above require expressions be of the exact syntactic forms specified in order to be processed as contextually typed constructs. For example, given the declaration of the variable 'f' above, the assignment

```
f = s => s.toLowerCase();
```

causes the function expression to be contextually typed, inferring the String primitive type for 's'. However, simply enclosing the construct in parentheses

```
f = (s => s.toLowerCase());
```

causes the function expression to be processed without a contextual type, now inferring 's' and the result of the function to be of type Any as no type annotations are present.

In the following example

```
interface EventObject {
  x: number;
  y: number;
}

interface EventHandlers {
  mousedown?: (event: EventObject) => void;
  mouseup?: (event: EventObject) => void;
  mousemove?: (event: EventObject) => void;
}

function setEventHandlers(handlers: EventHandlers) { ... }

setEventHandlers({
  mousedown: e => { startTracking(e.x, e.y); },
  mouseup: e => { endTracking(); }
});
```

the object literal passed to 'setEventHandlers' is contextually typed to the 'EventHandlers' type. This causes the two property assignments to be contextually typed to the unnamed function type '(event: EventObject) => void', which in turn causes the 'e' parameters in the arrow function expressions to automatically be typed as 'EventObject'.



## 5 Statements

*TODO: Describe type checking for statements.*

### 5.1 Variable Statements

Variable statements are extended to include optional type annotations.

```
VariableDeclaration: ( Modified )  
    Identifier TypeAnnotationopt Initialiseropt
```

```
VariableDeclarationNoIn: ( Modified )  
    Identifier TypeAnnotationopt InitialiserNoInopt
```

```
TypeAnnotation:  
    : Type
```

The type associated with a variable is determined as follows:

- If the declaration includes a type annotation, the stated type becomes the type of the variable. If an initializer is present, the initializer expression is contextually typed (see section 4.18) by the stated type and must be assignable to the stated type, or otherwise a compile-time error occurs.
- If the declaration includes an initializer but no type annotation, the widened type (see section 3.7) of the initializer expression becomes the type of the property.
- If the declaration includes neither a type annotation nor an initializer, the type of the variable becomes the Any type.

Below are some examples of variable declarations and their associated types.

```
var a; // any  
var b: number; // number  
var c = 1; // number  
var d = { x: 1, y: "hello" }; // { x: number; y: string; }  
var e: any = "test"; // any
```

In the following example, all five variables are of the same type, '{ x: number; y: number; }'.

```
interface Point { x: number; y: number; }  
  
var a = { x: 0, y: <number> undefined };  
var b: Point = { x: 0; y: undefined };  
var c = <Point> { x: 0, y: undefined };  
var d: { x: number; y: number; } = { x: 0, y: undefined };  
var e = <{ x: number; y: number; }> { x: 0, y: undefined };
```



## 6 Functions

TypeScript extends JavaScript functions to include optional parameter and return type annotations, overloads, default parameter values, and rest parameters.

### 6.1 Function Declarations

Function declarations consist of an optional set of function overloads followed by an actual function implementation.

```
FunctionDeclaration: ( Modified )  
    FunctionOverloadsopt FunctionImplementation  
  
FunctionOverloads:  
    FunctionOverload  
    FunctionOverloads FunctionOverload  
  
FunctionOverload:  
    function FunctionSignature ;  
  
FunctionImplementation:  
    function FunctionSignature { FunctionBody }
```

A function declaration introduces a function with the given name in the containing declaration space. Function overloads, if present, must specify the same name as the function implementation. If a function declaration includes overloads, the overloads determine the call signatures of the type given to the function object and the function implementation signature must be assignable to that type. Otherwise, the function implementation itself determines the call signature. Function overloads have no other effect on a function declaration.

### 6.2 Function Signatures

Function signatures are used to specify the name, parameter list, and return type of a function's overloads (if any) and its implementation.

```
FunctionSignature:  
    Identifier ( ParameterListopt ) ReturnTypeAnnotationopt
```

*ParameterList:*

*RequiredParameterList*

*OptionalParameterList*

*RestParameter*

*RequiredParameterList* , *OptionalParameterList*

*RequiredParameterList* , *RestParameter*

*OptionalParameterList* , *RestParameter*

*RequiredParameterList* , *OptionalParameterList* , *RestParameter*

*RequiredParameterList:*

*RequiredParameter*

*RequiredParameterList* , *RequiredParameter*

*RequiredParameter:*

*PublicOrPrivate*<sub>opt</sub> *Identifier* *TypeAnnotation*<sub>opt</sub>

*PublicOrPrivate:*

*public*

*private*

*OptionalParameterList:*

*OptionalParameter*

*OptionalParameterList* , *OptionalParameter*

*OptionalParameter:*

*PublicOrPrivate*<sub>opt</sub> *Identifier* ? *TypeAnnotation*<sub>opt</sub>

*PublicOrPrivate*<sub>opt</sub> *Identifier* *TypeAnnotation*<sub>opt</sub> *Initialiser*

*RestParameter:*

*... RequiredParameter*

*ReturnTypeAnnotation:*

*: ReturnType*

*ReturnType:*

*Type*

*void*

A function signature's parameter list consists of zero or more required parameters, followed by zero or more optional parameters, finally followed by an optional rest parameter.

Parameter names must be unique. A compile-time error occurs if two or more parameters have the same name.

A parameter is permitted to include a `public` or `private` modifier only if it occurs in the parameter list of a *ConstructorImplementation* (section 8.3.1).



A parameter with a type annotation is considered to be of that type. A type annotation for a rest parameter must denote an array type.

A parameter with no type annotation or initializer is considered to be of type `any`, unless it is a rest parameter, in which case it is considered to be of type `any[]`.

A parameter can be marked optional by following its name with a question mark (`?`). Additionally, in the signature of a function implementation, a parameter can be marked optional by following it with an initializer.

An optional parameter with an initializer but no type annotation has its type inferred from the initializer. Specifically, the type of such a parameter is the widened form of the type of the initializer expression.

An initializer expression for a given parameter is permitted to reference parameters that are declared to the left of that parameter, but it is a compile-time error to access other parameters or locals. For each parameter with an initializer, a statement that substitutes the default value for an omitted argument is included in the generated JavaScript. This is described further in section 6.4.

*TODO: Rest parameters.*

If present, a function signature's return type annotation specifies the type of the value computed and returned by the function. In a function overload with no return type annotation, the return type is `any`. In a function implementation with no return type annotation, the return type is inferred from the function body as described in section 6.4.

In a return type annotation, the `void` keyword references the `Void` type and indicates that the function does not return value.

## 6.3 Function Overloads

Function overloads allow a more accurate specification of the patterns of invocation supported by a function than is possible with a single signature. The compile-time processing of a call to an overloaded function chooses the best candidate overload for the particular arguments and the return type of that overload becomes the result type the function call expression. Thus, using overloads it is possible to statically describe the manner in which a function's return type varies based on its arguments. Overload resolution in function calls is described further in section 4.12.

Function overloads are purely a compile-time construct. They have no impact on the emitted JavaScript and thus no run-time cost.

The parameter list of a function overload cannot specify default values for parameters. In other words, an overload may use only the `?` form when specifying optional parameters.

The following is an example of a function with overloads.

```

function attr(name: string): string;
function attr(name: string, value: string): Accessor;
function attr(map: any): Accessor;
function attr(nameOrMap: any, value: string): any {
    if (nameOrMap && typeof nameOrMap === "object") {
        // handle map case
    }
    else {
        // handle string case
    }
}

```

Note that each overload and the final implementation specify the same identifier. The type of the local variable 'attr' introduced by this declaration is

```

{
    (name: string): string;
    (name: string, value: string): Accessor;
    (map: any): Accessor;
}

```

Note that the signature of the actual function implementation is not included in the type.

## 6.4 Function Implementations

The JavaScript syntax for function bodies is extended to include type annotations on local variables and functions.

*FunctionImplementation:*

```
function FunctionSignature { FunctionBody }
```

A function implementation without a return type annotation is said to be an **implicitly typed function**. The return type of an implicitly typed function  $f$  is inferred from its function body as follows:

- If there are no return statements with expressions in  $f$ 's function body, the inferred return type is Void.
- Otherwise, if  $f$ 's function body directly references  $f$  or references any implicitly typed functions that through this same analysis reference  $f$ , the inferred return type is Any.
- Otherwise, the inferred return type is the widened form (section 3.7) of the best common type (section 3.8) of the return statement expressions in the function body, ignoring return statements with no expressions. A compile-time error occurs if no best common type can be determined.

In the example

```

function f(x: number) {
    if (x <= 0) return x;
    return g(x);
}

```

```
function g(x: number) {
    return f(x - 1);
}
```

the inferred return type for 'f' and 'g' is Any because the functions reference themselves through a cycle with no return type annotations. Adding an explicit return type 'number' to either breaks the cycle and causes the return type 'number' to be inferred for the other.

The type of `this` in a function implementation is the Any type.

If a function has optional parameters with initializers, the generated JavaScript includes statements that substitute the default values for omitted arguments. These statements are inserted at the beginning of the function body. The example

```
function strange(x: number, y = x * 2, z = x + y) {
    return z;
}
```

generates JavaScript that is equivalent to

```
function strange(x, y, z) {
    if (typeof y === "undefined") { y = x * 2; }
    if (typeof z === "undefined") { z = x + y; }
    return z;
}
```

## 6.5 Code Generation

A function declaration generates JavaScript code that is equivalent to:

```
function <FunctionName>(<FunctionParameters>) {
    <DefaultValueAssignments>
    <FunctionStatements>
}
```

*FunctionName* is the name of the function (or nothing in the case of a function expression).

*FunctionParameters* is a comma separated list of the function's parameter names.

*DefaultValueAssignments* is a sequence of default property value assignments, one for each parameter with a default value, in the order they are declared, of the form

```
if (typeof <Parameter> === "undefined") { <Parameter> = <Default>; }
```

where *Parameter* is the parameter name and *Default* is the default value expression.

*FunctionStatements* is the code generated for the statements specified in the function body.



## 7 Interfaces

Interfaces provide the ability to give names to object types and the ability to compose existing named object types into new ones.

Interfaces have no run-time representation—they are purely a compile-time construct. Interfaces are particularly useful for documenting and validating the required shape of properties, objects passed as parameters, and objects returned from functions.

Because TypeScript has a structural type system, an interface type with a particular set of members is considered identical to, and can be substituted for, another interface type or object type literal with the same set of members.

Class declarations may reference interfaces in their implements clause to validate that they provide an implementation of the interfaces.

### 7.1 Interface Declarations

An interface declaration declares a new named object type.

*InterfaceDeclaration:*

```
interface Identifier InterfaceExtendsClauseopt ObjectType
```

*InterfaceExtendsClause:*

```
extends InterfaceNameList
```

*InterfaceNameList:*

```
InterfaceName
```

```
InterfaceNameList , InterfaceName
```

*InterfaceName:*

```
TypeName
```

An interface can inherit from zero or more **base interfaces**. The names of the base interfaces, if any, are specified in the *InterfaceExtendsClause*.

An interface has the members specified in the *ObjectType* of its declaration and furthermore inherits all base interface members that aren't hidden by declarations in the interface:

- A base interface property is hidden by a property declaration with the same name.
- A base interface call signature is hidden by a call signature declaration with the same number of parameters and identical parameter types in the respective positions.
- A base interface construct signature is hidden by a construct signature declaration with the same number of parameters and identical parameter types in the respective positions.

- A base interface index signature is hidden by an index signature declaration with the same parameter type.

The following constraints must be satisfied by an interface declaration or otherwise a compile-time error occurs:

- An interface cannot, directly or indirectly, be a base interface of itself.
- Inherited properties with the same name must have identical (section 3.6.1) types.
- The declared interface must be a subtype (section 3.6.2) of each of its base interfaces.

Below is an example of two interfaces that contain properties with the same name but different types:

```
interface Mover
{
    move(): void;
    getStatus(): { speed: number; };
}

interface Shaker
{
    shake(): void;
    getStatus(): { frequency: number; };
}
```

An interface that extends 'Mover' and 'Shaker' must declare a new 'getStatus' property as it would otherwise inherit two 'getStatus' properties with different types. The new 'getStatus' property must be declared such that the resulting 'MoverShaker' is a subtype of both 'Mover' and 'Shaker':

```
interface MoverShaker extends Mover, Shaker
{
    getStatus(): { speed: number; frequency: number; };
}
```

Since function and constructor types are just object types containing call and construct signatures, interfaces can be used to declare named function and constructor types. For example:

```
interface StringComparer { (a: string, b: string): number; }
```

This declares type 'StringComparer' to be a function type taking two strings and returning a number.

## 7.2 Dynamic Type Checks

TypeScript does not provide a direct mechanism for dynamically testing whether an object implements a particular interface. Instead, TypeScript code can use the JavaScript technique of checking whether an appropriate set of members are present on the object, for example:

```
var obj: any = getSomeObject();
if (obj && obj.move && obj.shake && obj.getStatus) {
    var moverShaker = <MoverShaker> obj;
    ...
}
```

If such a test is used often it can be abstracted into a function:

```
function asMoverShaker(obj: any): MoverShaker {
    return obj && obj.move && obj.shake && obj.getStatus ? obj : null;
}
```





## 8 Classes

TypeScript supports classes that are closely aligned with those proposed for ECMAScript 6, and includes extensions for instance and static member declarations and properties declared and initialized from constructor parameters.

*NOTE: TypeScript currently doesn't support class expressions or nested class declarations from the ECMAScript 6 proposal.*

### 8.1 Class Declarations

Class declarations introduce named types and provide implementations of those types. Classes support inheritance, allowing derived classes to extend and specialize base classes.

*ClassDeclaration:*

```
class Identifier ClassHeritage { ClassBody }
```

A *ClassDeclaration* declares a **class instance type** and a **constructor function**, both with the name given by *Identifier*, in the containing module. The class instance type is created from the instance members declared in the class body and the instance members inherited from the base class. The constructor function is created from the constructor declaration, the static member declarations in the class body, and the static members inherited from the base class. The constructor function initializes and returns an instance of the class instance type.

The following example introduces both a type called 'Point' (the class instance type) and a member called 'Point' (the constructor function) in the containing module.

```
class Point
{
  constructor(public x: number, public y: number) { }
  public length() { return Math.sqrt(this.x * this.x + this.y * this.y); }
  static origin = new Point(0, 0);
}
```

The 'Point' type has the following members (excluding the unique brand given to the class):

```
{
  x: number;
  y: number;
  length(): number;
}
```

and the 'Point' member is of an anonymous constructor type with the following members:

```

{
  new(x: number, y: number): Point;
  origin: Point;
}

```

The context in which a class is referenced distinguishes between the class instance type and the constructor function. For example, in the assignment statement

```
var p: Point = new Point(10, 20);
```

the identifier 'Point' in the type annotation refers to the class instance type, whereas the identifier 'Point' in the new expression refers to the constructor function object.

### 8.1.1 Class Heritage Specification

The heritage specification of a class consists of optional `extends` and `implements` clauses. The `extends` clause specifies the base class of the class and the `implements` clause specifies a set of interfaces for which to validate the class provides an implementation.

*ClassHeritage:*

*ClassExtendsClause*<sub>opt</sub> *ImplementsClause*<sub>opt</sub>

*ClassExtendsClause:*

`extends` *ClassName*

*ClassName:*

*TypeName*

*ImplementsClause:*

`implements` *InterfaceNameList*

A class that includes an `extends` clause is called a **derived class**, and the class specified in the `extends` clause is called the **base class** of the derived class. When a class heritage specification omits the `extends` clause, the class does not have a base class. However, as is the case with every object type (section 3.3), the class instance type will appear to have the members of the global interface type named 'Object' unless those members are hidden by members with the same name in the class.

The following constraints must be satisfied by the class heritage specification or otherwise a compile-time error occurs:

- A class cannot, directly or indirectly, be a base class of itself.
- The class instance type declared by the class declaration must be a subtype of the base class instance type and each of the interfaces listed in the `implements` clause.
- The constructor function type created by the class declaration must be a subtype of the base class constructor function type, ignoring construct signatures.

The only situation in which the second or third constraints above are violated is when a class overrides one or more base class members with incompatible new members.

Note that because TypeScript has a structural type system, a class doesn't need to explicitly state that it implements an interface—it suffices for the class to simply contain the appropriate set of instance members. The `implements` clause of a class provides a mechanism to assert and validate that the class contains the appropriate sets of instance members, but otherwise it has no effect on the class type.

## 8.1.2 Class Body

The class body consists of zero or more constructor or member declarations. Statements are not allowed in the body of a class—they must be placed in the constructor or in members.

*ClassBody:*

*ClassElements<sub>opt</sub>*

*ClassElements:*

*ClassElement*

*ClassElements ClassElement*

*ClassElement:*

*ConstructorDeclaration*

*MemberDeclaration*

The body of class may optionally contain a single constructor declaration. Constructor declarations are described in section 8.3.

Member declarations are used to declare instance and static members of the class. Member declarations are described in section 8.4.

## 8.2 Members

The members of a class consist of the members introduced through member declarations in the class body and the members inherited from the base class.

Members are either ***instance members*** or ***static members***.

Instance members are members of the class instance type. Within constructors, instance member functions, and instance member accessors, the type of `this` is the class instance type.

Static members are declared using the `static` modifier and are members of the constructor function type. Within static member functions and static member accessors, the type of `this` is the constructor function type.

## 8.2.1 Accessibility

Members have either **public** or **private** accessibility. The default is public accessibility, but member declarations may include a `public` or `private` modifier to explicitly specify the desired accessibility.

Public members can be accessed everywhere, whereas private members can be accessed only within the class body that contains their declaration. Any attempt to access a private member outside the class body that contains its declaration results in a compile-time error.

Private accessibility is enforced only at compile-time and serves as no more than an *indication of intent*. Since JavaScript provides no mechanism to create private properties on an object, it is not possible to enforce the private modifier in dynamic code at run-time. For example, private accessibility can be defeated by changing an object's static type to `Any` and accessing the member dynamically.

It is not possible to specify the accessibility of statics—they are effectively always public.

## 8.2.2 Inheritance and Overriding

A derived class **inherits** all members from its base class it doesn't **override**. Inheritance means that a derived class implicitly contains all non-overridden members of the base class. Both public and private members are inherited, but only public members can be overridden. A member in a derived class is said to override a member in a base class when the derived class member has the same name and kind (instance or static) as the base class member. The type of an overriding member must be a subtype (section 3.6.2) of the type of the overridden member, or otherwise a compile-time error occurs.

Base class instance member functions can be overridden by derived class instance member functions, but not by other kinds of members.

Base class instance member variables and accessors can be overridden by derived class instance member variables and accessors, but not by other kinds of members.

Base class static members can be overridden by derived class static members of any kind as long as the types are compatible, as described above.

## 8.2.3 Class Instance Types

The named type declared by a class declaration is called the class instance type. Within the constructor and member functions of a class, the type of `this` is the class instance type. The class instance type has the following members:

- A property for each instance member variable declaration in the class body.
- A property of a function type for each instance member function declaration in the class body.
- A property for each uniquely named instance member accessor declaration in the class body.
- A property for each constructor parameter declared with a `public` or `private` modifier.
- A new brand specific to the class.
- All base class instance type properties that are not overridden in the class.
- All base class brands.

In the example

```
class A
{
  public x: number;
  public f() { }
  public g(a: any) { return undefined; }
  static s: string;
}

class B extends A
{
  public y: number;
  public g(b: bool) { return false; }
}
```

the class instance type of 'A' (excluding brands) is

```
{
  x: number;
  f: () => void;
  g: (a: any) => any;
}
```

and the class instance type of 'B' (excluding brands) is

```
{
  x: number;
  y: number;
  f: () => void;
  g: (b: bool) => bool;
}
```

Additionally, the instance type of 'A' contains the unique brand of 'A', and the instance type of 'B' contains the unique brands of 'A' and 'B'.

Note that static declarations in a class do not contribute to the class instance type—rather, static declarations introduce properties on the constructor function object. Also note that the declaration of 'g' in 'B' overrides the member inherited from 'A'.

## 8.2.4 Constructor Function Types

The type of the constructor function introduced by a class declaration is called the constructor function type. The constructor function type has the following members:

- If the class contains no constructor declaration and has no base class, a single construct signature with no parameters, returning the class instance type.

- If the class contains no constructor declaration and has a base class, a set of construct signatures with the same parameters as those of the base class constructor function type, but returning the class instance type.
- If the class contains a constructor declaration with no overloads, a construct signature with the parameter list of the constructor implementation, returning the class instance type.
- If the class contains a constructor declaration with overloads, a set of construct signatures with the parameter lists of the overloads, returning the class instance type.
- A property for each static member variable declaration in the class body.
- A property of a function type for each static member function declaration in the class body.
- A property for each uniquely named static member accessor declaration in the class body.
- A property named 'prototype' of the class instance type.
- All base class constructor function type properties that are not overridden in the class.

## 8.3 Constructor Declarations

A constructor declaration declares the constructor function of a class.

*ConstructorDeclaration:*

*ConstructorOverloads*<sub>opt</sub> *ConstructorImplementation*

*ConstructorOverloads:*

*ConstructorOverload*

*ConstructorOverloads* *ConstructorOverload*

*ConstructorOverload:*

`constructor ( ParameterListopt ) ;`

*ConstructorImplementation:*

`constructor ( ParameterListopt ) { FunctionBody }`

A class may contain at most one constructor declaration. If a class contains no constructor declaration, an automatic constructor is provided, as described in section 8.3.3.

If a constructor declaration includes overloads, the overloads determine the construct signatures of the type given to the constructor function object, and the constructor implementation signature must be assignable to that type. Otherwise, the constructor implementation itself determines the construct signature. This exactly parallels the way overloads are processed in a function declaration (section 6.3).

The function body of a constructor is permitted to contain return statements. If return statements are present, they must specify expressions of types that are assignable to the class instance type.

### 8.3.1 Constructor Parameters

Similar to functions, only the constructor implementation (and not constructor overloads) can specify default value expressions for optional parameters. It is a compile-time error for such default value

expressions to reference `this`. For each parameter with a default value, a statement that substitutes the default value for an omitted argument is included in the JavaScript generated for the constructor function.

A parameter of a *ConstructorImplementation* may be prefixed with a `public` or `private` modifier. This is called a **parameter property declaration** and is shorthand for declaring a property with the same name as the parameter and initializing it with the value of the parameter. For example, the declaration

```
class Point
{
  constructor(public x: number, public y: number) {
    // Constructor body
  }
}
```

is equivalent to writing

```
class Point
{
  public x: number;
  public y: number;

  constructor(x: number, y: number) {
    this.x = x;
    this.y = y;
    // Constructor body
  }
}
```

### 8.3.2 Super Calls

Super calls (section 4.8.1) are used to call the constructor of the base class. A super call consists of the keyword `super` followed by an argument list enclosed in parentheses. For example:

```
class ColoredPoint extends Point
{
  constructor(x: number, y: number, public color: string) {
    super(x, y);
  }
}
```

Constructors of classes with no `extends` clause may not contain super calls, whereas constructors of derived classes must contain at least one super call somewhere in their function body. Super calls are not permitted outside constructors or in local functions inside constructors.

The first statement in the body of a constructor *must* be a super call if both of the following are true:

- The containing class is a derived class.
- The constructor declares parameter properties or the containing class declares instance member variables with initializers.

In such a required super call, it is a compile-time error for argument expressions to reference `this`.

Initialization of parameter properties and instance member variables with initializers takes place immediately at the beginning of the constructor body if the class has no base class, or immediately following the super call if the class is a derived class.

### 8.3.3 Automatic Constructors

If a class omits a constructor declaration, an **automatic constructor** is provided.

In a class with no `extends` clause, the automatic constructor has no parameters and performs no action other than executing the instance member variable initializers (section 8.4.1), if any.

In a derived class, the automatic constructor has the same parameter list (and possibly overloads) as the base class constructor. The automatically provided constructor first forwards the call to the base class constructor using a call equivalent to

```
BaseClass.apply(this, arguments);
```

and then executes the instance member variable initializers, if any.

## 8.4 Member Declarations

Member declarations can be member variable declarations, member function declarations, or member accessor declarations.

*MemberDeclaration:*

*MemberVariableDeclaration*

*MemberFunctionDeclaration*

*MemberAccessorDeclaration*

Member declarations without a `static` modifier are called instance member declarations. Instance member declarations declare properties in the class instance type (section 8.2.3), and must specify names that are unique among all instance member and parameter property declarations in the containing class, with the exception that instance get and set accessor declarations may pairwise specify the same name.

Member declarations with a `static` modifier are called static member declarations. Static member declarations declare properties in the constructor function type (section 8.2.4), and must specify names that are unique among all static member declarations in the containing class, with the exception that static get and set accessor declarations may pairwise specify the same name.

Note that the declaration spaces of instance and static members are separate. Thus, it is possible to have instance and statics members with the same name.

Except for overrides, as described in section 8.2.2, it is an error for a derived class to declare a member with the same name and kind (instance or static) as a base class member.



Every class automatically contains a static member named 'prototype' of the class instance type. It is an error to explicitly declare a static member with that name.

Below is an example of a class containing both instance and static declarations:

```
class Point
{
    constructor(public x: number, public y: number) { }

    public distance(p: Point) {
        var dx = this.x - p.x;
        var dy = this.y - p.y;
        return Math.sqrt(dx * dx + dy * dy);
    }

    static origin = new Point(0, 0);
    static distance(p1: Point, p2: Point) { return p1.distance(p2); }
}
```

The class instance type 'Point' has the members:

```
{
    x: number;
    y: number;
    distance(p: Point);
}
```

and the constructor function type of 'Point' has the members:

```
{
    new(x: number, y: number): Point;
    origin: Point;
    distance(p1: Point, p2: Point): number;
}
```

#### 8.4.1 Member Variable Declarations

A member variable declaration declares an instance member variable or a static member variable.

*MemberVariableDeclaration:*

```
PublicOrPrivateopt staticopt VariableDeclaration ;
```

The type associated with a member variable declaration is determined in the same manner as an ordinary variable declaration (see section 5.1). Member variable initializer expressions are not permitted to access `this`.

An instance member variable declaration introduces a member in the class instance type and optionally initializes a property on instances of the class. Initializers in instance member variable declarations are

executed once for every new instance of the class and are equivalent to assignments to properties of `this` in the constructor.

A static member variable declaration introduces a property in the constructor function type and optionally initializes a property on the constructor function object.

Since instance member variable initializers are equivalent to assignments to properties of `this` in the constructor, the example

```
class Employee
{
    public name: string;
    public address: string;
    public retired = false;
    public manager: Employee = null;
    public reports: Employee[] = [];
}
```

is equivalent to

```
class Employee
{
    public name: string;
    public address: string;
    public retired: bool;
    public manager: Employee;
    public reports: Employee[];

    constructor() {
        this.retired = false;
        this.manager = null;
        this.reports = [];
    }
}
```

#### 8.4.2 Member Function Declarations

A member function declaration declares an instance member function or a static member function.

*MemberFunctionDeclaration:*

*MemberFunctionOverloads<sub>opt</sub> MemberFunctionImplementation*

*MemberFunctionOverloads:*

*MemberFunctionOverload*

*MemberFunctionOverloads MemberFunctionOverload*

*MemberFunctionOverload:*

*PublicOrPrivate<sub>opt</sub> static<sub>opt</sub> FunctionSignature ;*

*MemberFunctionImplementation:*

*PublicOrPrivate<sub>opt</sub> static<sub>opt</sub> FunctionSignature { FunctionBody }*

A member function declaration is processed in the same manner as an ordinary function declaration (section 6.1), except that in a member function `this` has a known type.

All overloads of a member function must have the same accessibility (public or private) and kind (instance or static).

An instance member function declaration declares a property in the class instance type and assigns a function object to a property on the prototype object of the class. In the body of instance member function declaration, `this` is of the class instance type.

A static member function declaration declares a property in the constructor function type and assigns a function object to a property on the constructor function object. In the body of static member function declaration, `this` is of the constructor function type.

A member function can access overridden base class members using a `super` property access (section 4.8.2). For example

```
class Point {
  constructor(public x: number, public y: number) { }
  public toString() {
    return "x=" + this.x + " y=" + this.y;
  }
}

class ColoredPoint extends Point
{
  constructor(x: number, y: number, public color: string) {
    super(x, y);
  }
  public toString() {
    return super.toString() + " color=" + this.color;
  }
}
```

### 8.4.3 Member Accessor Declarations

A member accessor declaration declares an instance member accessor or a static member accessor.

*MemberAccessorDeclaration:*

*PublicOrPrivate<sub>opt</sub> GetAccessorSignature { FunctionBody }*

*PublicOrPrivate<sub>opt</sub> SetAccessorSignature { FunctionBody }*

*GetAccessorSignature:*

*get Identifier ( ) ReturnTypeAnnotation<sub>opt</sub>*

*SetAccessorSignature:*

```
set Identifier ( RequiredParameter )
```

A get accessor declaration is processed in the same manner as an ordinary function declaration (section 6.1) with no parameters, and a set accessor declaration is processed in the same manner as an ordinary function declaration with a single parameter and a Void return type.

If a class declares both a get and a set accessor for a particular member name and kind (instance or static), and if the set accessor omits the type annotation for its parameter, the parameter type is inferred to be the return type of the get accessor (which in turn might be inferred from the get accessor body).

Accessors for the same member name must specify the same accessibility.

An instance member accessor declaration declares a property in the class instance type and defines a property on the prototype object of the class with a get or set accessor. In the body of an instance member accessor declaration, `this` is of the class instance type.

A static member accessor declaration declares a property in the constructor function type and defines a property on the constructor function object of the class with a get or set accessor. In the body of a static member accessor declaration, `this` is of the constructor function type.

Get and set accessors are emitted as calls to 'Object.defineProperty' in the generated JavaScript, as described in section 8.5.1.

## 8.5 Code Generation

This section describes the structure of the JavaScript code generated from TypeScript classes.

### 8.5.1 Classes Without Extends Clauses

A class with no `extends` clause generates JavaScript equivalent to the following:

```
var <ClassName> = (function () {  
    function <ClassName>(<ConstructorParameters>) {  
        <DefaultValueAssignments>  
        <ParameterPropertyAssignments>  
        <MemberVariableAssignments>  
        <ConstructorStatements>  
    }  
    <MemberAndStaticStatements>  
    return <ClassName>;  
})();
```

*ClassName* is the name of the class.

*ConstructorParameters* is a comma separated list of the constructor's parameter names.

*DefaultValueAssignments* is a sequence of default property value assignments corresponding to those generated for a regular function declaration, as described in section 6.5.

*ParameterPropertyAssignments* is a sequence of assignments, one for each parameter property declaration in the constructor, in order they are declared, of the form

```
this.<ParameterName> = <ParameterName>;
```

where *ParameterName* is the name of a parameter property.

*MemberVariableAssignments* is a sequence of assignments, one for each instance member variable declaration with an initializer, in the order they are declared, of the form

```
this.<MemberName> = <InitializerExpression>;
```

where *MemberName* is the name of the member variable and *InitializerExpression* is the code generated for the initializer expression.

*ConstructorStatements* is the code generated for the statements specified in the constructor body.

*MemberAndStaticStatements* is a sequence of statements, one for each static member variable declaration with an initializer, member function declaration, or member accessor declaration, in the order they are declared.

A static variable declaration with an initializer generates a statement of the form

```
<ClassName>.<MemberName> = <InitializerExpression>;
```

where *MemberName* is the name of the static variable, and *InitializerExpression* is the code generated for the initializer expression.

An instance member function declaration generates a statement of the form

```
<ClassName>.prototype.<MemberName> = function (<FunctionParameters>) {  
    <DefaultValueAssignments>  
    <FunctionStatements>  
}
```

and static member function declaration generates a statement of the form

```
<ClassName>.<MemberName> = function (<FunctionParameters>) {  
    <DefaultValueAssignments>  
    <FunctionStatements>  
}
```

where *MemberName* is the name of the member function, and *FunctionParameters*, *DefaultValueAssignments*, and *FunctionStatements* correspond to those generated for a regular function declaration, as described in section 6.5.

A get or set instance member accessor declaration, or a pair of get and set instance member accessor declarations with the same name, generates a statement of the form

```
Object.defineProperty(<ClassName>.prototype, "<MemberName>", {
  get: function () {
    <GetAccessorStatements>
  },
  set: function (<ParameterName>) {
    <SetAccessorStatements>
  },
  enumerable: true,
  configurable: true
});
```

and a get or set static member accessor declaration, or a pair of get and set static member accessor declarations with the same name, generates a statement of the form

```
Object.defineProperty(<ClassName>, "<MemberName>", {
  get: function () {
    <GetAccessorStatements>
  },
  set: function (<ParameterName>) {
    <SetAccessorStatements>
  },
  enumerable: true,
  configurable: true
});
```

where *MemberName* is the name of the member accessor, *GetAccessorStatements* is the code generated for the statements in the get accessor's function body, *ParameterName* is the name of the set accessor parameter, and *SetAccessorStatements* is the code generated for the statements in the set accessor's function body. The 'get' property is included only if a get accessor is declared and the 'set' property is included only if a set accessor is declared.

## 8.5.2 Classes With Extends Clauses

A class with an extends clause generates JavaScript equivalent to the following:

```

var <ClassName> = (function (_super) {
  __extends(<ClassName>, _super);
  function <ClassName>(<ConstructorParameters>) {
    <DefaultValueAssignments>
    <SuperCallStatement>
    <ParameterPropertyAssignments>
    <MemberVariableAssignments>
    <ConstructorStatements>
  }
  <MemberAndStaticStatements>
  return <ClassName>;
})(<BaseClassName>);

```

In addition, the ‘\_\_extends’ method below is emitted at the beginning of the JavaScript source file. It copies all properties from the base constructor function object to the derived constructor function object (in order to inherit statics), and appropriately establishes the ‘prototype’ property of the derived constructor function object.

```

var __extends = this.__extends || function(d, b) {
  for (var p in b) if (b.hasOwnProperty(p)) d[p] = b[p];
  function f() { this.constructor = d; }
  f.prototype = b.prototype;
  d.prototype = new f();
}

```

*BaseClassName* is the class name specified in the extends clause.

If the class has no explicitly declared constructor, the *SuperCallStatement* takes the form

```

_super.apply(this, arguments);

```

Otherwise the *SuperCallStatement* is present if the constructor function is required to start with a super call, as discussed in section 8.3.2, and takes the form

```

_super.call(this, <SuperCallArguments>)

```

where *SuperCallArguments* is the argument list specified in the super call. Note that this call precedes the code generated for parameter properties and member variables with initializers. Super calls elsewhere in the constructor generate similar code, but the code generated for such calls will be part of the *ConstructorStatements* section.

A super property access in the constructor, a member function, or a member accessor generates JavaScript equivalent to

```

_super.prototype.<PropertyName>

```

where *PropertyName* is the name of the referenced base class property. When the super property access appears in a function call, the generated JavaScript is equivalent to

```
_super.prototype.<PropertyName>.call(this, <Arguments>)
```

where *Arguments* is the code generated for the argument list specified in the function call.



## 9 Programs and Modules

TypeScript implements modules that are closely aligned with those proposed for ECMAScript 6 and supports code generation targeting CommonJS and AMD module systems.

*NOTE: TypeScript currently doesn't support the full proposed capabilities of the ECMAScript 6 import and export syntax. We expect to align more closely on the syntax as the ECMAScript 6 specification evolves.*

### 9.1 Programs

A TypeScript **program** consists of one or more source files that are either **implementation source files** or **declaration source files**. Source files with extension '.ts' are *ImplementationSourceFiles* containing statements and declarations. Source files with extension '.d.ts' are *DeclarationSourceFiles* containing ambient declarations only.

*SourceFile:*

*ImplementationSourceFile*

*DeclarationSourceFile*

*ImplementationSourceFile:*

*ModuleElements<sub>opt</sub>*

*ModuleElements:*

*ModuleElement*

*ModuleElements ModuleElement*

*ModuleElement:*

*Statement*

*FunctionDeclaration*

*ClassDeclaration*

*InterfaceDeclaration*

*ModuleDeclaration*

*ImportDeclaration*

*ExportDeclaration*

*AmbientDeclaration*

When a TypeScript program is compiled, all of the program's source files are processed together. Statements and declarations in different source files can depend on each other, possibly in a circular fashion. By default, a JavaScript output file is generated for each implementation source file in a compilation, but no output is generated from declaration source files.

The *SourceElements* permitted in a TypeScript implementation source file are a superset of those supported by JavaScript. Specifically, TypeScript extends the JavaScript grammar's existing *VariableDeclaration* (section 5.1) and *FunctionDeclaration* (section 6.1) productions, and adds

*ClassDeclaration* (section 8.1), *InterfaceDeclaration* (section 7.1), *ModuleDeclaration* (section 9.2), *ImportDeclaration* (section 9.2.2), *ExportDeclaration* (section 9.2.1), and *AmbientDeclaration* productions (section 0).

Declaration source files are restricted to contain declarations only. Declaration source files can be used to declare the static type information associated with existing JavaScript code in an adjunct manner. They are entirely optional but enable the TypeScript compiler and tools to provide better verification and assistance when integrating existing JavaScript code and libraries in a TypeScript application. Declaration source files are described in further detail in section 0.

Implementation and declaration source files that contain no import or export declarations form the single **global module**. Entities declared in the global module are in scope everywhere in a program. Initialization order of the source files that make up the global module ultimately depends on the order in which the generated JavaScript files are loaded at run-time (which, for example, may be controlled by `<script/>` tags that reference the generated JavaScript files).

Implementation and declaration source files that contain at least one import or export declaration are considered separate external modules. Entities declared in an external module are in scope only in that module, but exported entities can be imported into other modules using import declarations. Initialization order of external modules is determined by the module loader being used but generally it is the case that non-circularly dependent modules are automatically loaded and initialized in the correct order.

### 9.1.1 Source Files Dependencies

The TypeScript compiler automatically determines a source file's dependencies and includes those dependencies in the program being compiled. The determination is made from "reference comments" and import declarations as follows:

- A comment of the form `///  
reference path="..."/>` adds a dependency on the source file specified in the path argument. The path is resolved relative to the directory of the containing source file.
- An import declaration that specifies a relative external module name (section 9.4.1) resolves the name relative to the directory of the containing source file. If a source file with the resulting path and file extension `' .ts'` exists, that file is added as a dependency. Otherwise, if a source file with the resulting path and file extension `' .d.ts'` exists, that file is added as a dependency.
- An import declaration that specifies a top-level external module name (section 9.4.1) resolves the name in a host dependent manner (typically by resolving the name relative to a module name space root or searching for the name in a series of directories). If a source file with extension `' .ts'` or `' .d.ts'` corresponding to the reference is located, that file is added as a dependency.

Any files included as dependencies in turn have their references analyzed in a transitive manner until all dependencies have been determined.

## 9.2 Module Declarations

A module is a body of statements and declarations that create and initialize a singleton module instance. Members exported from a module become properties on the module instance. The body of a module corresponds to a function that is executed once, thereby providing a mechanism for maintaining local state with assured isolation.

*ModuleDeclaration:*

```
module IdentifierPathopt { ModuleBody }
```

*IdentifierPath:*

*Identifier*

*IdentifierPath* . *Identifier*

*ModuleBody:*

*ModuleElements<sub>opt</sub>*

TypeScript supports two types of modules.

**Internal modules** (section 9.2.2) are local or exported members of other modules (including the global module and external modules). Internal modules are declared using *ModuleDeclarations* that specify their name and body. A name path with more than one identifier is equivalent to a series of nested internal module declarations.

**External modules** (section 9.4) are separately loaded bodies of code referenced using **external module names**. An external module is written as a separate source file that contains at least one import or export declaration. In addition, external modules can be declared using *AmbientModuleDeclarations* in the global module that directly specify the external module names as string literals. This is described further in section 0.

### 9.2.1 Export Declarations

An export declaration declares an externally accessible module member.

*ExportDeclaration:*

```
export VariableStatement
```

```
export FunctionDeclaration
```

```
export ClassDeclaration
```

```
export InterfaceDeclaration
```

```
export ModuleDeclaration
```

```
export AmbientDeclaration
```

An export declaration is simply a regular declaration prefixed with the keyword `export`.

Exported variable, function, class, and module declarations become properties on the module instance and together establish the module's **instance type**. This type has the following members:

- A property for each exported variable declaration.
- A property of a function type for each exported function declaration.
- A property of a constructor type for each exported class declaration.
- A property of an object type for each exported internal module declaration.

Module instance types are referenced by using module identifiers as type names.

An exported member depends on a (possibly empty) set of named types (section 3.5.2). Those named types must be at least as accessible as the exported member, or otherwise an error occurs.

The named types upon which a member depends are the named types occurring in the transitive closure of the **directly depends on** relationship defined as follows:

- A variable directly depends on its type.
- A function directly depends on its function type.
- A class directly depends on its constructor function type and its class instance type.
- An interface directly depends on the type it declares.
- A module directly depends on its module instance type.
- An object type (section 3.3) directly depends on the types of each of its public properties and the parameter and return types of each of its call, construct, and index signatures.

A named type *T* having a root module *R* (section 2.2) is said to be **at least as accessible as** a member *M* if

- *R* is the global module or an external module, or
- *R* is an internal module in the parent module chain of *M*.

In the example

```
interface A { x: string; }

module M
{
  export interface B { x: A; }

  export interface C { x: B; }

  export function foo(c: C) { ... }
}
```

the 'foo' function depends upon the named types 'A', 'B', and 'C'. In order to export 'foo' it is necessary to also export 'B' and 'C' as they otherwise would not be at least as accessible as 'foo'. The 'A' interface is already at least as accessible as 'foo' because it is declared in a parent module of foo's module.

## 9.2.2 Import Declarations

Import declarations are used to import internal or external modules and create local aliases by which they may be referenced.

*ImportDeclaration:*

```
import Identifier = ModuleReference ;
```

*ModuleReference:*

*ExternalModuleReference*

*ModuleName*

*ExternalModuleReference:*

```
module ( StringLiteral )
```

An import declaration introduces a local identifier that references a given module. The local identifier is itself classified as a module and behaves exactly as such. It is not possible to export a module identifier declared in an import declaration.

The string literal specified in an *ExternalModuleReference* is interpreted as an external module name (section 9.4.1). Import declarations in external modules can specify either *ExternalModuleReferences* or *ModuleNames*, but import declarations in internal modules can only specify *ModuleNames*.

*TODO: Specify the exact restrictions on import declarations referencing other import declarations. We minimally want to disallow circular references.*

### 9.2.3 Module Identifiers

A module declaration or an import declaration declares an identifier that references a module. A module identifier may be used as a *PrimaryExpression* (section 4.3), in which case it denotes the singleton module instance, as a *TypeName* (section 3.5.2), in which case it denotes the module instance type, or as a *ModuleName* (section 3.5.2), in which case it denotes a container of module and type names. For example:

```
module M
{
  export interface P { x: number; y: number; }
  export var a = 1;
}

var p: M.P;           // Used as ModuleName
var m: M = M;        // Used as TypeName and PrimaryExpression
var x1 = M.a;        // Used as PrimaryExpression
var x2 = m.a;        // Same as M.a
var q: m.P;          // Error
```

Above, when 'M' is used as a *PrimaryExpression* it denotes an object instance with a single member 'x', when 'M' is used as a *TypeName* it denotes the type of the object instance, and when 'M' is used as a *ModuleName* it denotes a container with a single type member 'P'.

The final line in the example is an error because 'm' is a variable which cannot be referenced in a type name.

## 9.3 Internal Modules

Internal modules are declared using *ModuleDeclarations*. An internal module is a local or exported member of another module (which might be the global module or an external module).

The following is an example of an internal module:

```
module Utils
{
  var toString = Object.prototype.toString;

  export function isFunction(obj) {
    return toString.call(obj) == "[object Function]";
  }

  export function isNumber(obj) {
    return toString.call(obj) == "[object Function]";
  }
}
```

The JavaScript code emitted for this module is:

```
var Utils;
(function(Utils) {
  var toString = Object.prototype.toString;

  function isFunction(obj) {
    return toString.call(obj) == "[object Function]";
  }
  Utils.isFunction = isFunction;

  function isNumber(obj) {
    return toString.call(obj) == "[object Function]";
  }
  Utils.isNumber = isNumber;
})(Utils||(Utils={}));
```

Note that the entire module is emitted as an anonymous function that is immediately executed. This ensures that local variables are in their own lexical environment isolated from the surrounding context. Also note that the function doesn't create and return a 'Utils' module instance, but rather it extends the existing instance (which may have just been created in the function call). This ensures that internal modules can extend each other.

Internal modules are "open-ended" and internal module declarations with the same qualified name relative to a common root (as defined in section 2.2) contribute to a single module. For example, the following two declarations of a module *outer* might be located in separate source files.

File *a.ts*:

```

module outer
{
  var local = 1;           // Non-exported local variable

  export var a = local; // outer.a

  export module inner
  {
    export var x = 10; // outer.inner.x
  }
}

```

File b.ts:

```

module outer
{
  var local = 2;           // Non-exported local variable

  export var b = local; // outer.b

  export module inner
  {
    export var y = 20; // outer.inner.y
  }
}

```

Assuming the two source files are part of the same program, the two declarations will have the global module as their common root and will therefore contribute to the same module instance, the instance type of which will be:

```

{
  a: number;
  b: number;
  inner: {
    x: number;
    y: number;
  };
}

```

If the *IdentifierPath* of an internal module specifies more than one identifier, it corresponds to a series of nested module declarations where all but the first identifier are automatically exported. For example

```

module A.B.C
{
  export var x = 1;
}

```

corresponds to

```

module A
{
  export module B
  {
    export module C
    {
      export var x = 1;
    }
  }
}

```

Unlike external modules, internal modules do not have to be imported before they can be referenced. As long as an internal module's identifier is in scope it is possible to reference the internal module directly. For example:

```

module A.B.C
{
  export var x = 1;
}

module M
{
  var y = A.B.C.x;
}

```

Internal module aliases created by import declarations are evaluated lazily. In intuitive terms, internal module aliases behave as if the module name paths they represent are substituted in their place. This means that import declarations can contain forward references as long as expressions that use those import declarations aren't evaluated until after the module instances are created. In the example

```

module A.B.C
{
  import XYZ = X.Y.Z;

  export function ping(x: number) {
    if (x > 0) XYZ.pong(x - 1);
  }
}

module X.Y.Z
{
  import ABC = A.B.C;

  export function pong(x: number) {
    if (x > 0) ABC.ping(x - 1);
  }
}

```



the references to 'XYZ.pong' and 'ABC.ping' behave exactly as if 'X.Y.Z.pong' and 'A.B.C.ping' had been written. Had the import declarations instead been variable declarations, the example would fail because module 'A.B.C' would attempt to evaluate the expression 'X.Y.Z' prior to module X.Y.Z's creation.

## 9.4 External Modules

External modules are separately loaded bodies of code referenced using external module names. External modules are written as separate source files that contain at least one *ImportDeclaration* or *ExportDeclaration*.

Below is an example of two external modules written in separate source files.

File main.ts:

```
import log = module("log");
log.message("hello");
```

File log.ts:

```
export function message(s: string) {
    console.log(s);
}
```

The import declaration in the 'main' module references the 'log' module and compiling the 'main.ts' file causes the 'log.ts' file to also be compiled as part of the program. At run-time, the import declaration loads the 'log' module and produces a reference to its module instance through which it is possible to reference the exported function.

TypeScript supports two patterns of JavaScript code generation for external modules: The CommonJS Modules pattern (section 9.4.2), typically used by server frameworks such as node.js, and the Asynchronous Module Definition (AMD) pattern (section 9.4.3), an extension to CommonJS Modules that permits asynchronous module loading, as is typical in browsers. The desired module code generation pattern is selected through a compiler option and does not affect the TypeScript source code. Indeed, it is possible to author external modules that can be compiled for use both on the server side (e.g. using node.js) and on the client side (using an AMD compliant loader) with no changes to the TypeScript source code.

### 9.4.1 External Module Names

External modules are identified and referenced using external module names. The following definition is copied from the [CommonJS Modules 1.0](#) specification, with the term 'module identifier' changed to 'external module name':

- An external module name is a string of "terms" delimited by forward slashes.
- A term must be a camelCase identifier, ".", or "..".
- External module names may not have file-name extensions like ".js".

- External module names may be “relative” or “top-level”. An external module name is “relative” if the first term is “.” or “..”.
- Top-level names are resolved off the conceptual module name space root.
- Relative names are resolved relative to the name of the module in which they occur.

For purposes of resolving external module references, TypeScript associates a file path with every external module. The file path is simply the path of the module’s source file without the file extension. For example, an external module contained in the source file ‘C:\src\lib\io.ts’ has the file path ‘C:/src/lib/io’ and an external module contained in the source file ‘C:\src\ui\editor.d.ts’ has the file path ‘C:/src/ui/editor’.

An external module name in an import declaration is resolved as follows:

- If the import declaration specifies a relative external module name, the name is resolved relative to the directory of the referencing module’s file path. The program must contain a module with the resulting file path or otherwise an error occurs. For example, in a module with the file path ‘C:/src/ui/main’, the external module names ‘./editor’ and ‘../lib/io’ reference modules with the file paths ‘C:/src/ui/editor’ and ‘C:/src/lib/io’.
- If the import declaration specifies a top-level external module name and the program contains an *AmbientModuleDeclaration* (section 10.1.4) with a string literal that specifies that exact name, then the import declaration references that ambient external module.
- If the import declaration specifies a top-level external module name and the program contains no *AmbientModuleDeclaration* (section 10.1.4) with a string literal that specifies that exact name, the name is resolved in a host dependent manner (for example by considering the name relative to a module name space root). If a matching module cannot be found an error occurs.

## 9.4.2 CommonJS Modules

The [CommonJS Modules](#) definition specifies a methodology for writing JavaScript modules with implied privacy, the ability to import other modules, and the ability to explicitly export members. A CommonJS compliant system provides a ‘require’ function that can be used to synchronously load other external modules to obtain their singleton module instance, as well as an ‘exports’ variable to which a module can add properties to define its external API.

The ‘main’ and ‘log’ example from above generates the following JavaScript code when compiled for the CommonJS Modules pattern:

File main.js:

```
var log = require("log");
log.message("hello");
```

File log.js:

```
exports.message = function(s) {
  console.log(s);
}
```

An import declaration is represented in the generated JavaScript as a variable initialized by a call to the 'require' function provided by the module system host. A variable declaration and 'require' call is emitted for a particular imported module only if the imported module is referenced as a *PrimaryExpression* somewhere in the body of the importing module. If an imported module is referenced only as a *TypeName* or *ModuleName*, nothing is emitted.

An example:

File geometry.ts:

```
export interface Point { x: number; y: number };

export function point(x: number, y: number): Point {
  return { x: x, y: y };
}
```

File game.ts:

```
import g = module("geometry");
var p = g.point(10, 20);
```

The 'game' module references the imported 'geometry' module in an expression (through its alias 'g') and a 'require' call is therefore included in the emitted JavaScript:

```
var g = require("geometry");
var p = g.point(10, 20);
```

Had the 'game' module instead been written to only reference 'geometry' in a type position

```
import g = module("geometry");
var p: g.Point = { x: 10, y: 20 };
```

the emitted JavaScript would have no dependency on the 'geometry' module and would simply be

```
var p = { x: 10, y: 20 };
```

TypeScript's code generation scheme for import declarations ensures minimal dependencies in the generated JavaScript and is particularly useful in situations where the decision to load a module is based on program logic. For example:

```
import Geometry = module("geometry");
...
if (useGeometry()) {
  var g: Geometry = require("geometry");
  var p = g.Point(10, 20);
  ...
}
```

In this example, the 'geometry' module is loaded only if the 'useGeometry' function returns true. Since the 'Geometry' alias is referenced only in a type position, no 'require' is emitted for the import declaration. Instead, 'require' is manually called and the 'Geometry' alias is used as the type of the resulting module instance. Through this instance it is then possible to reference the members of the 'geometry' module in a strongly typed fashion.

### 9.4.3 AMD Modules

The [Asynchronous Module Definition](#) (AMD) specification extends the CommonJS Modules specification with a pattern for authoring asynchronously loadable modules with associated dependencies. Using the AMD pattern, modules are emitted as calls to a global 'define' function taking an array of dependencies, specified as external module names, and a callback function containing the module body. The global 'define' function is provided by including an AMD compliant loader in the application. The loader arranges to asynchronously load the module's dependencies and, upon completion, calls the callback function passing resolved module instances as arguments in the order they were listed in the dependency array.

The "main" and "log" example from above generates the following JavaScript code when compiled for the AMD pattern.

File main.js:

```
define(["require", "exports", "log"], function(require, exports, log) {  
    log.message("hello");  
})
```

File log.js:

```
define(["require", "exports"], function(require, exports) {  
    exports.message = function(s) {  
        console.log(s);  
    }  
})
```

The special 'require' and 'exports' dependencies are always present. Additional entries are added to the dependencies array and the parameter list as required to represent imported external modules. Similar to the code generation for CommonJS Modules, a dependency entry is generated for a particular imported module only if the imported module is referenced as a *PrimaryExpression* somewhere in the body of the importing module. If an imported module is referenced only as a *TypeName* or *ModuleName*, no dependency is generated for that module.

## 9.5 Code Generation

### 9.5.1 Internal Modules

An internal module generates JavaScript code that is equivalent to the following:

```
var <ModuleName>;  
(function(<ModuleName>) {  
  <ModuleStatements>  
})(<ModuleName> || (<ModuleName>={}));
```

*ModuleName* is the name of the module.

*ModuleStatements* is the code generated for the statements in the module body.

*TODO: Finish this section.*



# 10 Ambients

Ambient declarations are used to provide static typing over existing JavaScript code. Ambient declarations differ from regular declarations in that no JavaScript code is emitted for them. Instead of introducing new variables, functions, classes, or modules, ambient declarations provide type information for entities that exist “ambiently” and are included in a program by external means, for example by referencing a JavaScript library in a `<script/>` tag.

In implementation source files (files with a `.ts` extension), ambient declarations are written using the `declare` keyword. In declaration source files (files with a `.d.ts` extension), a `declare` keyword is implicitly present on every declaration.

*TODO: Finish this chapter.*

## 10.1 Ambient Declarations

Ambient declarations can declare variables, functions, classes, or modules.

*AmbientDeclaration:*

```
declare AmbientVariableDeclaration
declare AmbientFunctionDeclaration
declare AmbientClassDeclaration
declare AmbientModuleDeclaration
```

### 10.1.1 Ambient Variable Declarations

An ambient variable declaration introduces a variable in the containing declaration space.

*AmbientVariableDeclaration:*

```
var Identifier TypeAnnotationopt ;
```

An ambient variable declaration may optionally include a type annotation. If no type annotation is present, the variable is assumed to have type `Any`.

An ambient variable declaration does not permit an initializer expression to be present.

### 10.1.2 Ambient Function Declarations

An ambient function declaration introduces a function in the containing declaration space.

*AmbientFunctionDeclaration:*

```
function FunctionSignature ;
```

Ambient functions may be overloaded by specifying multiple ambient function declarations with the same name, but no two declarations for the same name may have the same number of parameters and identical parameter types in the respective positions.

Ambient function declarations cannot specify a function bodies and do not permit default parameter values.

### 10.1.3 Ambient Class Declarations

An ambient class declaration declares a class instance type and a constructor function in the containing module.

*AmbientClassDeclaration:*

```
class Identifier ClassHeritage { AmbientClassBody }
```

*AmbientClassBody:*

```
AmbientClassBodyElementsopt
```

*AmbientClassBodyElements:*

```
AmbientClassBodyElement  
AmbientClassBodyElements AmbientClassBodyElement
```

*AmbientClassBodyElement:*

```
AmbientConstructorDeclaration  
AmbientMemberDeclaration  
AmbientStaticDeclaration
```

*AmbientConstructorDeclaration:*

```
constructor ( ParameterListopt ) ;
```

*AmbientMemberDeclaration:*

```
PublicOrPrivateopt Identifier TypeAnnotationopt ;  
PublicOrPrivateopt FunctionSignature ;
```

*AmbientStaticDeclaration:*

```
static Identifier TypeAnnotationopt ;  
static FunctionSignature ;
```

### 10.1.4 Ambient Module Declarations

An ambient module declaration declares an internal or external module.

*AmbientModuleDeclaration:*

```
module AmbientModuleIdentification { AmbientModuleBody }
```

*AmbientModuleIdentification:*

```
IdentifierPath  
StringLiteral
```

*AmbientModuleBody:*

```
AmbientElementsopt
```



*AmbientElements:*

*AmbientElement*  
*AmbientElements AmbientElement*

*AmbientElement:*

*export*<sub>opt</sub> *AmbientVariableDeclaration*  
*export*<sub>opt</sub> *AmbientFunctionDeclaration*  
*export*<sub>opt</sub> *AmbientClassDeclaration*  
*export*<sub>opt</sub> *InterfaceDeclaration*  
*export*<sub>opt</sub> *AmbientModuleDeclaration*  
*ImportDeclaration*

An *AmbientModuleIdentification* with a *StringLiteral* declares an external module. This type of declaration is permitted only in the global module. The *StringLiteral* must specify a top-level external module name. Relative external module names are not permitted.

An *ImportDeclaration* in an *AmbientModuleDeclaration* for an external module may reference other external modules only through top-level external module names. Relative external module names are not permitted.

An *AmbientElement* declared an internal or external module must specify an export modifier (unless it is an *ImportDeclaration*). Conversely, an *AmbientElement* declared in the global module cannot specify an export modifier.

## 10.2 Declaration Source Files

Declaration source files (files with a '.d.ts' extension) are restricted to contain ambient declarations only. Declaration source files can be used to declare the static type information associated with existing JavaScript code in an adjunct manner.

*DeclarationSourceFile:*

*AmbientElements*<sub>opt</sub>

A *DeclarationSourceFile* that contains no import or export declarations contributes to the global module.

A *DeclarationSourceFile* that contains at least one import or export declaration is considered a separate external module.