We made a control pane node, and 2 workers node in kubernetes using aws ec2 instance. Now we created pods in the replica set, and replicaset in deplyoment. Now when the replica set is deleted, the pods in the replicaset will again come back, showing redundancy in kubernetes. Why this happens, and give me step by step kubernetes command prompts, in details.

Thought for 6s

Why This Happens

In Kubernetes, resources like Deployments, ReplicaSets, and Pods follow a declarative model, where you define the *desired state* (e.g., "I want 3 Pods running this application"), and Kubernetes controllers continuously reconcile the *actual state* to match it. Here's a breakdown of the relevant concepts and why the behavior you're seeing occurs:

- Deployment: This is a higher-level resource that manages ReplicaSets. When you create a Deployment, it automatically creates a ReplicaSet to handle the Pods. The Deployment's controller watches for changes and ensures the specified number of replicas (Pods) are always running. If something disrupts this (e.g., deleting a ReplicaSet), the Deployment will recreate a new ReplicaSet to restore the desired state.
- ReplicaSet: This is a lower-level resource that directly manages Pods. It ensures a
 specified number of Pod replicas are running at any time. However, if the
 ReplicaSet is owned by a Deployment, deleting it doesn't delete the Deployment—
 Kubernetes treats this as a deviation from the desired state.
- Pods: These are the smallest deployable units. Pods are created and managed by the ReplicaSet. When you delete a ReplicaSet, its Pods are terminated (unless configured otherwise), but if a higher-level controller like a Deployment exists, it will trigger the creation of a new ReplicaSet and new Pods.

The "redundancy" (or resilience) you're observing is a core feature of Kubernetes: **self-healing and reconciliation**. The Deployment controller runs in the control plane and periodically checks the cluster state. If the current number of replicas doesn't match the desired number (due to deletion, node failure, etc.), it takes action to fix it. This ensures high availability and fault tolerance.

In your setup (1 control plane node + 2 worker nodes on AWS EC2), this behavior is independent of the node count—it's handled by the Kubernetes API server and controllers on the control plane.

If you want to permanently delete the Pods without them coming back, you need to delete the Deployment itself (or scale it to 0 replicas). Deleting just the ReplicaSet is like removing a middle manager; the top-level manager (Deployment) will hire a new one.

Step-by-Step Kubernetes Commands to Demonstrate and Understand

I'll assume you have kubect1 configured to interact with your cluster (e.g., via ~/.kube/config pointing to your AWS EC2-based cluster). We'll use a simple Nginx example for the Deployment, but you can replace it with your own app.

These commands are run from your local machine or a bastion host with kubectl access. I'll explain each step in detail, including what to expect in the output.

Step 1: Create a Deployment (Which Automatically Creates a ReplicaSet and Pods)

This defines the desired state: Run 3 replicas of an Nginx Pod.

Command:

text

kubectl create deployment nginx-demo --image=nginx --replicas=3

- What this does: Creates a Deployment named nginx-demo. It will generate a ReplicaSet (named something like nginx-demo-abcdef1234) and 3 Pods.
- Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo created
```

Verify:

text	
kubectl get deployments	

Output example:

text				
NAME nginx-demo		UP-TO-DATE 3	AVAILABLE 3	AGE 10s
text				
kubectl get	replicas	sets		

Output example:

text				
NAME nginx-demo-abcdef1234	DESIRED 3	CURRENT 3	READY 3	AGE 10s
text				
kubectl get pods				

Output example:

text				
NAME nginx-demo-abcdef1234-pod1 nginx-demo-abcdef1234-pod2 nginx-demo-abcdef1234-pod3	READY 1/1 1/1 1/1	STATUS Running Running Running	RESTARTS 0 0 0	AGE 10s 10s 10s

Step 2: Identify the ReplicaSet Managed by the Deployment

Note the ReplicaSet name from the previous output (e.g., nginx-demo-abcdef1234). The hash is unique and generated by Kubernetes.

Command to list with more details:

```
text
kubectl get replicasets -o wide
```

- What this does: Shows the ReplicaSet details, including the owning Deployment.
- Expected output: Similar to above, confirming the ReplicaSet is controlled by the Deployment.

Step 3: Delete the ReplicaSet

This simulates what you described: Deleting the ReplicaSet, which terminates the Pods.

Command (replace <replicaset-name> with the actual name, e.g., nginx-demo-abcdef1234):

```
text
kubectl delete replicaset <replicaset-name>
```

- What this does: Deletes the ReplicaSet. Kubernetes will terminate the associated Pods immediately.
- Expected output:

```
text
replicaset.apps "<replicaset-name>" deleted
```

Immediate verification:

```
text
kubectl get pods
```

Output: The Pods will show as Terminating or disappear shortly.

```
text
kubectl get replicasets
```

Output: No ReplicaSet listed (temporarily).

Step 4: Observe the Reconciliation (Pods Come Back)

Wait 10-30 seconds (Kubernetes controllers reconcile periodically). The Deployment notices the missing ReplicaSet and creates a new one to match the desired 3 replicas.

Command to watch in real-time:

```
text
kubectl get pods --watch
```

- What this does: Monitors Pods live. You'll see old Pods terminate and new ones get created.
- **Expected behavior**: A new ReplicaSet (with a different hash, e.g., nginx-demoghijkl5678) is created, and 3 new Pods spin up.
- · Verify after reconciliation:

```
text
kubectl get deployments
```

Output: Still shows 3/3 ready (Deployment is unchanged).

```
text
kubectl get replicasets
```

Output: A new ReplicaSet appears.

```
text
kubectl get pods
```

Output: 3 new Pods running.

This demonstrates the redundancy: The Deployment ensures the desired state is maintained.

Step 5: (Optional) Prevent Pods from Coming Back by Scaling the Deployment

If you want to stop the recreation without deleting everything.

Command:

text
kubectl scale deployment nginx-demo --replicas=0

- What this does: Sets desired replicas to 0. The ReplicaSet will scale down Pods to
 0, and deleting it won't trigger recreation.
- Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo scaled
```

Verify:

```
text
kubectl get pods
```

Output: No Pods.

To restore:

```
text
kubectl scale deployment nginx-demo --replicas=3
```

Step 6: (Optional) Clean Up Resources

To remove everything.

Command:

```
text
kubectl delete deployment nginx-demo
```

- What this does: Deletes the Deployment, which cascades to delete the ReplicaSet and Pods. They won't come back.
- Expected output:

```
deployment.apps "nginx-demo" deleted
```

Additional Tips for Your Setup

- **Debugging**: Use kubectl describe deployment nginx-demo or kubectl describe replicaset <name> for detailed events (e.g., "Scaled up replica set to 3").
- Logs: Check control plane logs if needed (e.g., on your EC2 control plane node: journalctl -u kubelet or API server logs).
- Customization: In a real Deployment YAML, you can specify replicaSet selectors, but the behavior is the same.
- Edge Cases: If your cluster has issues (e.g., insufficient EC2 resources),
 reconciliation might fail—check kubectl get events for errors.

This resilience is why Kubernetes is great for production: It handles failures automatically. If your actual setup differs (e.g., custom YAML), share more details for tailored advice!

Try creating deployments in yaml file and all in yaml file

I'll create a YAML file for a Kubernetes Deployment that includes a ReplicaSet and Pods, and then provide step-by-step kubectl commands to demonstrate the behavior you described (deleting a ReplicaSet and observing Pods coming back due to the Deployment's reconciliation). I'll also include the YAML content wrapped in an xaiArtifact tag as requested, along with detailed commands to manage the resources.

Why Pods Come Back (Recap)

As explained previously, a Deployment manages ReplicaSets, which in turn manage Pods. When you delete a ReplicaSet, the Deployment's controller detects the mismatch (desired vs. actual state) and creates a new ReplicaSet to restore the desired number of Pods. Using a YAML file makes the configuration explicit and reproducible, defining the Deployment's desired state declaratively.

Below is the YAML file for a Deployment running 3 replicas of an Nginx application, followed by commands to create, observe, delete the ReplicaSet, and verify the reconciliation.

YAML File for Deployment

The YAML defines a Deployment named nginx-demo with 3 replicas, using the nginx image.

```
text
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
metadata:
  name: nginx-demo
  namespace: default
  labels:
    app: nginx-demo
spec:
  replicas: 3
  selector:
    matchLabels:
      app: nginx-demo
  template:
    metadata:
      labels:
        app: nginx-demo
    spec:
      containers:
      - name: nginx
        image: nginx:latest
        ports:
        - containerPort: 80
```

Step-by-Step Kubernetes Commands

These commands assume you have kubect1 configured to interact with your Kubernetes cluster (running on AWS EC2 with 1 control plane and 2 worker nodes). We'll apply the YAML, observe the resources, delete the ReplicaSet, and see the Pods come back due to Kubernetes' self-healing.

Step 1: Save the YAML File

Copy the YAML content above into a file named nginx-deployment.yaml on your local machine or a host with kubectl access. For example:

```
bash
cat <<EOF > nginx-deployment.yaml
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
metadata:
  name: nginx-demo
 namespace: default
  labels:
    app: nginx-demo
spec:
  replicas: 3
  selector:
    matchLabels:
      app: nginx-demo
  template:
    metadata:
      labels:
        app: nginx-demo
    spec:
      containers:
      - name: nginx
        image: nginx:latest
        ports:
        - containerPort: 80
EOF
```

What this does: Creates a local file nginx-deployment.yaml with the Deployment configuration.

Step 2: Apply the Deployment

Apply the YAML to create the Deployment, which will create a ReplicaSet and 3 Pods.

Command:

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

- What this does: Instructs Kubernetes to create or update the Deployment based on the YAML. The Deployment controller creates a ReplicaSet, which in turn creates 3 Pods.
- Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo created
```

Step 3: Verify the Deployment, ReplicaSet, and Pods

Check the resources to confirm they were created.

Command (Deployment):

```
bash
kubectl get deployments -n default
```

Expected output:

```
NAME READY UP-TO-DATE AVAILABLE AGE nginx-demo 3/3 3 10s
```

Command (ReplicaSet):

```
bash
kubectl get replicasets -n default -o wide
```

 Expected output (note the generated ReplicaSet name, e.g., nginx-demoabcdef1234):

```
text
NAME
                        DESIRED
                                   CURRENT
                                             READY
                                                     AGE
CONTAINERS
             IMAGES
                             SELECTOR
nginx-demo-abcdef1234
                        3
                                   3
                                             3
                                                      10s
                                                            nginx
nginx:latest
               app=nginx-demo
```

Command (Pods):

```
bash
kubectl get pods -n default -o wide
```

• Expected output:

text					
NAME NODE	READY	STATUS	RESTARTS	AGE IP)
nginx-demo-abcdef1234-pod1 10.244.x.x <worker-node-1></worker-node-1>	1/1	Running	0	10s	
nginx-demo-abcdef1234-pod2 10.244.x.y <worker-node-2></worker-node-2>	1/1	Running	0	10s	
nginx-demo-abcdef1234-pod3 10.244.x.z <worker-node-2></worker-node-2>	1/1	Running	0	10s	

• What this shows: The Deployment created a ReplicaSet, which created 3 Pods, distributed across your worker nodes.

Step 4: Delete the ReplicaSet

Simulate the scenario by deleting the ReplicaSet to see the Pods terminate and then reappear.

Command (replace <replicaset-name> with the actual name, e.g., nginx-demo-abcdef1234):

bash

```
kubectl delete replicaset nginx-demo-abcdef1234 -n default
```

- What this does: Deletes the ReplicaSet, causing its managed Pods to terminate.
- Expected output:

```
text
replicaset.apps "nginx-demo-abcdef1234" deleted
```

Immediate verification (check Pods):

```
bash
kubectl get pods -n default
```

Output: Pods will show as Terminating or disappear momentarily.

Step 5: Observe Reconciliation (Pods Come Back)

The Deployment controller will detect the missing ReplicaSet and create a new one to restore the desired state (3 replicas).

Command to watch in real-time:

```
bash
kubectl get pods -n default --watch
```

- What this does: Monitors Pods live. Within seconds, you'll see new Pods being created by a new ReplicaSet.
- Expected behavior: A new ReplicaSet (e.g., nginx-demo-ghijk15678) is created, and 3 new Pods appear.
- Verify after reconciliation:

```
kubectl get replicasets -n default
```

Output example:

```
NAME DESIRED CURRENT READY AGE nginx-demo-ghijkl5678 3 3 10s

bash

kubectl get pods -n default
```

Output example:

text				
NAME	READY	STATUS	RESTARTS	AGE
nginx-demo-ghijkl5678-pod1	1/1	Running	0	10s
nginx-demo-ghijkl5678-pod2	1/1	Running	0	10s
nginx-demo-ghijkl5678-pod3	1/1	Running	0	10s
bash				

Output: Still shows 3/3 ready, as the Deployment is unaffected.

• Why this happens: The Deployment's controller ensures the spec.replicas: 3 in the YAML is maintained by creating a new ReplicaSet.

Step 6: (Optional) Prevent Pods from Coming Back

kubectl get deployments -n default

To stop Pods from being recreated without deleting the Deployment, scale it to 0 replicas.

Command:

```
bash
kubectl scale deployment nginx-demo --replicas=0 -n default
```

• What this does: Updates the Deployment to desire 0 replicas. The ReplicaSet scales down Pods, and deleting the ReplicaSet won't trigger recreation.

Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo scaled
```

Verify:

```
kubectl get pods -n default
```

Output: No Pods listed.

To restore:

```
bash
kubectl scale deployment nginx-demo --replicas=3 -n default
```

Alternatively, edit the YAML file to set replicas: 0, then reapply:

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

Step 7: (Optional) Clean Up

To permanently remove the Deployment and stop Pods from coming back.

Command:

```
bash
kubectl delete -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

- What this does: Deletes the Deployment, cascading to delete the ReplicaSet and Pods.
- Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps "nginx-demo" deleted
```

Step 8: (Optional) Debug and Inspect

If you want to understand why things happened:

Check Events:

```
bash
kubectl get events -n default
```

Look for messages like "Created pod" or "Scaled up replica set".

• Describe Resources:

```
kubectl describe deployment nginx-demo -n default
```

Shows events like ReplicaSet creation.

 Check Controller Logs (if you have access to the control plane node): SSH into your EC2 control plane node and check:

```
journalctl -u kube-apiserver

or

bash

journalctl -u kube-controller-manager
```

Additional Notes for Your AWS EC2 Setup

• Namespace: The YAML uses the default namespace. If you use a custom namespace, update the namespace field or use -n <namespace> in commands.

- Node Affinity: Your Pods are scheduled on your 2 worker nodes. If Pods fail to start, check node status (kubectl get nodes) or taints (kubectl describe node).
- AWS-Specific: Ensure your EC2 nodes have sufficient resources (CPU/memory) and that the cluster's CNI (e.g., Calico, Flannel) is working for Pod networking.
- Modifying YAML: To customize, edit fields like replicas, image, or add
 resources (CPU/memory limits) in the YAML and reapply with kubectl apply.

This YAML-based approach makes your configuration version-controllable and repeatable. If you have a specific app or additional requirements (e.g., custom labels, volumes), let me know, and I can tailor the YAML further!

Now, suppose there are 10 pods in replicaset, and suppose I wanna change version of container image in pods in deployment. So, in deployment file.yaml, we change image version.

- (i) Would all the nodes in the replica set be down at once? If why, if not why?
- (ii) What would happen if in deployment_file, yaml, we give
- (a) max surge as 100 and max unavailable as 0
- (b) max surge=25 and max unavailable = 25.

(i) Would all the pods in the ReplicaSet be down at once?

No, all the pods in the ReplicaSet would not be down at once during the update to the container image version in the Deployment YAML file.

Kubernetes Deployments use a default strategy called RollingUpdate when you apply an updated YAML (e.g., changing the image version under

.spec.template.spec.containers.image). This strategy ensures a controlled, gradual rollout: It creates a new ReplicaSet for the updated pods and scales it up while scaling down the old ReplicaSet. The process is managed by the Deployment controller, which runs in a loop to reconcile the state.

The key reasons why not all pods go down at once:

• **Self-healing and reconciliation**: Kubernetes maintains the desired state (10 replicas) by only terminating old pods after new ones are ready and available (i.e.,

passing readiness probes if defined).

- Default parameters: The default RollingUpdate settings are maxSurge: 25%
 (allows up to 25% extra pods temporarily) and maxUnavailable: 25% (allows up to 25% of pods to be unavailable). For 10 pods, this means up to 3 extra pods can exist (total ≤13), and at most 2 pods can be unavailable, ensuring at least 8 pods are always available to serve traffic.
- **Batch processing**: Updates happen in batches (e.g., create a few new pods, wait for them to become ready, terminate a few old ones, repeat). This minimizes downtime and prevents a full outage. If pods have readiness probes, the rollout pauses until new pods pass them.
- Alternative strategy: If the Deployment used strategy.type: Recreate (not default), it would terminate all old pods first before creating new ones, causing all pods to be down temporarily. But since you're using a standard Deployment with rolling updates, this doesn't happen.

In your setup, after applying the updated YAML (kubectl apply -f deployment_file.yaml), you can observe this with kubectl rollout status deployment/<name> or kubectl get pods --watch. The old pods continue running until replaced gradually.

(ii) What would happen with custom maxSurge and maxUnavailable in the Deployment YAML

These parameters are set under .spec.strategy.rollingUpdate in the YAML. They control the rollout pace:

- maxSurge: Max extra pods allowed above the desired replicas (can be int for absolute or string like "25%" for percentage).
- maxUnavailable: Max pods allowed to be unavailable (not ready) during the update (same, int or percentage).

Percentages are calculated with rounding: maxSurge rounds up (ceil), maxUnavailable rounds down (floor). For example, 25% of 10 is $2.5 \rightarrow 3$ for surge, 2 for unavailable.

The question specifies values without "%", but in Kubernetes YAML, percentages must be quoted strings (e.g., "100%"). Given the context (common examples use

percentages, and 25 matches the default), I'll assume you mean percentages. I'll also explain if interpreted as absolute integers for completeness.

(a) maxSurge: "100%" and maxUnavailable: "0%" (assuming percentages)

This configuration prioritizes zero downtime at the cost of higher temporary resource usage (e.g., double the pods briefly). It's common for "blue-green"-like rollouts within a rolling strategy.

Calculated values: maxSurge = ceil(10 * 1.0) = 10 extra pods (total pods ≤20).
 maxUnavailable = floor(10 * 0) = 0 (available pods must always be ≥10; no unavailable pods allowed).

• What happens:

- 1. Apply the updated YAML: A new ReplicaSet is created (with the new image), starting at 0 pods. Old ReplicaSet remains at 10 pods (all ready).
- 2. Scale up the new ReplicaSet to 10 pods at once (total pods = 20 ≤20 allowed by surge). The old 10 continue running.
- Wait for all 10 new pods to become ready (available = 20 ≥10). This step depends on your pod startup time and readiness probes—if defined, rollout pauses here.
- Once new pods are ready, scale down the old ReplicaSet to 0 by terminating all
 10 old pods at once (total pods drops to 10, available =10 ≥10).
- 5. Rollout completes: All 10 pods are now on the new image.
- Key effects: No downtime (availability never drops below 10), but temporary
 resource spike (up to 20 pods, doubling CPU/memory usage on your nodes). Not
 all pods down at once—old pods serve traffic until new ones are fully ready. If your
 2 worker nodes lack resources for 20 pods, some may fail to schedule, pausing the
 rollout.
- If interpreted as absolute integers (maxSurge: 100, maxUnavailable: 0): Similar behavior, but even more permissive. maxSurge=100 allows up to 110 total pods, so it still creates 10 new first (total 20), waits, then terminates 10 old. Same zero-downtime outcome, but the high surge is overkill for 10 replicas.
- (b) maxSurge: "25%" and maxUnavailable: "25%" (assuming percentages)

This is the default behavior, balancing resource usage and availability with a gradual rollout.

- Calculated values: maxSurge = ceil(10 * 0.25) = 3 extra pods (total pods ≤13).
 maxUnavailable = floor(10 * 0.25) = 2 (available pods ≥8; up to 2 unavailable allowed).
- What happens (approximate sequence; exact batches can vary slightly based on controller timing, but it's incremental):
 - 1. Apply the updated YAML: New ReplicaSet starts at 0, old at 10 (all ready).
 - Scale up new ReplicaSet by 3 pods (batch size fits within surge; total pods=13).Old remains 10.
 - 3. Wait for the 3 new pods to become ready (available=13 ≥8). If readiness probes fail, rollout pauses.
 - Scale down old ReplicaSet by 3 pods (terminate 3 old; total pods=10, available=10 ≥8).
 - 5. Repeat: Scale up new by another 3 (new=6, old=7, total=13), wait for ready (available=13), terminate 3 old (new=6, old=4, total=10).
 - 6. Repeat again: Scale up new by 3 (new=9, old=4, total=13), wait, terminate 3 old (new=9, old=1, total=10).
 - 7. Final batch (adjusted for remainder): Scale up new by 1 (new=10, old=1, total=11 ≤13), wait, terminate 1 old (new=10, old=0, total=10).
 - 8. Rollout completes.
- Key effects: Minimal downtime (availability stays ≥8, so brief periods where 1-2 pods are unavailable during transitions, but not zero). Resource usage peaks at 13 pods. Not all pods down at once—the process is batched to maintain ~75-100% availability. Suitable for your setup, as pods distribute across 2 worker nodes.
- If interpreted as absolute integers (maxSurge: 25, maxUnavailable: 25): Much more permissive. maxSurge=25 allows up to 35 total pods, maxUnavailable=25 allows up to 25 unavailable (but capped at 10 practically, so available ≥0). This could lead to aggressive behavior: The controller might terminate up to 10 old pods first (unavailable=10 ≤25), causing full downtime if new pods aren't created quickly, then scale up new pods (total up to 35). However, since it's still RollingUpdate, it

typically prefers scaling up new before downscaling old when possible, but with such loose limits, there could be significant downtime if pod startup is slow. This setup risks all pods being down temporarily (e.g., if it terminates many old before new are ready), unlike the percentage case. Avoid this for production unless intentional.

In all cases, monitor with kubectl describe deployment <name> for events or kubectl rollout history for revisions. If you want to pause the rollout mid-way, use kubectl rollout pause deployment/<name> . For exact YAML, add under spec.strategy: { type: RollingUpdate, rollingUpdate: { maxSurge: ..., maxUnavailable: ... } } . If your intent was absolute integers, clarify for more tailored advice!

Now, there is a revision feature in deployment, where we cango to the previous image version. Tell me in details, and show commands

Understanding Revisions in Kubernetes Deployments

In Kubernetes, Deployments have a built-in **revision history** feature that tracks changes to the Deployment's configuration over time. This allows you to view past states and rollback to a previous version if needed (e.g., if a new image deployment causes issues). Revisions are managed automatically by the Deployment controller and are tied to the ReplicaSets created during updates.

Key Concepts

- What is a Revision?: Each time you update a Deployment (e.g., by changing the container image version in the YAML and applying it via kubectl apply),
 Kubernetes creates a new ReplicaSet to handle the updated Pods. The old
 ReplicaSet is scaled down but not deleted immediately. This change is recorded as a new revision in the Deployment's rollout history. Revisions are numbered sequentially (starting from 1), and each includes annotations about what changed (e.g., the image tag).
- How Revisions Are Created: Revisions are triggered by changes to the
 .spec.template field in the Deployment YAML (e.g., image, labels, env vars). Nontemplate changes (e.g., just scaling replicas) don't create new revisions. By default,

Kubernetes keeps up to 10 revisions (configurable via .spec.revisionHistoryLimit in the YAML).

• Why Use Revisions?: They provide a safety net for rollbacks, allowing you to revert to a stable state without manually recreating YAML files. During a rollback, Kubernetes creates yet another new ReplicaSet based on the target revision's template, scales it up, and scales down the current one—using the same rolling update strategy (e.g., with maxSurge and maxUnavailable).

Limitations:

- Revisions only track changes to the Pod template; they don't store stateful data (e.g., PersistentVolumes).
- If you delete old ReplicaSets manually, rollback might fail as Kubernetes relies on them.
- The history is stored in etcd (Kubernetes' database), so it's cluster-specific.
- Rollback Behavior: A rollback is treated like any update—it follows the
 RollingUpdate strategy (or Recreate if specified). Pods are updated gradually to
 the previous image/version without all going down at once (unless using
 Recreate). After rollback, the reverted state becomes the new current revision
 (e.g., rolling back from revision 3 to 1 creates revision 4 based on revision 1's
 template).

In your AWS EC2-based cluster (1 control plane + 2 workers), this works the same—revisions are managed by the control plane.

Step-by-Step Commands to Demonstrate Revisions and Rollback

We'll build on the nginx-demo Deployment from previous examples. Assume you have the initial YAML (nginx-deployment.yaml) with image: nginx:1.19 (old version). We'll update it to nginx:1.21 (new version), observe revisions, and rollback.

Step 1: Create the Initial Deployment (Revision 1)

Use or create nginx-deployment.yaml with the initial image:

```
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
```

```
metadata:
  name: nginx-demo
  namespace: default
  labels:
    app: nginx-demo
spec:
  replicas: 3
  selector:
    matchLabels:
      app: nginx-demo
  template:
    metadata:
      labels:
        app: nginx-demo
    spec:
      containers:
      - name: nginx
        image: nginx:1.19 # Initial version
        ports:
        - containerPort: 80
  strategy:
    type: RollingUpdate
    rollingUpdate:
      maxSurge: 25%
      maxUnavailable: 25%
  revisionHistoryLimit: 10 # Optional: Set max revisions to keep
(default 10)
```

Apply it:

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo created
```

What happens: Creates Revision 1 with ReplicaSet using nginx:1.19.

Verify:

```
bash
kubectl get deployments nginx-demo -n default
```

Output example:

```
NAME READY UP-TO-DATE AVAILABLE AGE nginx-demo 3/3 3 10s
```

Step 2: View Initial Rollout History

Check the revision history (should show only Revision 1).

Command:

```
bash
kubectl rollout history deployment nginx-demo -n default
```

Expected output:

```
deployment.apps/nginx-demo
REVISION CHANGE-CAUSE

1 <none> # Or your custom message if annotated
```

To see details for a specific revision:

```
bash
kubectl rollout history deployment nginx-demo --revision=1 -n default
```

• **Expected output**: Shows the YAML snippet of the Pod template for that revision, including image: nginx:1.19.

(Note: To add a custom change-cause message for better tracking, add kubectl.kubernetes.io/last-applied-configuration annotation or use --record in

older kubectl versions, but apply auto-annotates.)

Step 3: Update the Deployment to Create a New Revision

Edit nginx-deployment.yaml to change the image to nginx:1.21 (simulate a version upgrade).

Updated YAML snippet:

```
yaml

...
    containers:
    - name: nginx
    image: nginx:1.21 # New version
...
```

Apply the update:

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

• Expected output:

```
deployment.apps/nginx-demo configured
```

 What happens: Triggers a rolling update. Creates Revision 2 with a new ReplicaSet using nginx:1.21. Old ReplicaSet (from Revision 1) is scaled to 0 but kept for history.

Monitor the rollout:

```
bash

kubectl rollout status deployment nginx-demo -n default --watch
```

Output example:

```
Waiting for deployment "nginx-demo" rollout to finish: 2 out of 3 new replicas have been updated...
deployment "nginx-demo" successfully rolled out
```

Verify Pods now use the new image:

```
kubectl get pods -n default -o jsonpath='{range .items[*]}
{.metadata.name}{"\t"}{.spec.containers[0].image}{"\n"}{end}'
```

Output example:

```
nginx-demo-newrs-pod1 nginx:1.21
```

Step 4: View Updated Rollout History

Now check history again.

Command:

```
kubectl rollout history deployment nginx-demo -n default
```

Expected output:

```
deployment.apps/nginx-demo
REVISION CHANGE-CAUSE

1 kubectl apply --filename=nginx-deployment.yaml...

2 kubectl apply --filename=nginx-deployment.yaml...
```

Details: Revision 1 has nginx:1.19, Revision 2 has nginx:1.21. Use -revision=1 or --revision=2 to inspect specifics.

Step 5: Rollback to a Previous Revision

To revert to the previous image (e.g., from Revision 2 back to Revision 1's nginx:1.19).

Command (undo to the last revision, i.e., Revision 1):

kubectl rollout undo deployment nginx-demo -n default

Alternative: To a specific revision:

bash

kubectl rollout undo deployment nginx-demo --to-revision=1 -n defaul

Expected output:

text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo rolled back

• What happens:

- Kubernetes creates a new ReplicaSet based on Revision 1's template (nginx:1.19).
- 2. Performs a rolling update: Scales up the new ReplicaSet while scaling down the current one (from Revision 2).
- 3. This becomes **Revision 3** (the rollback is a new change).
- 4. Pods gradually update to nginx:1.19 without all going down (per maxSurge:
 25%, maxUnavailable: 25% —for 3 replicas, up to 1 extra pod, at most 0
 unavailable in small batches).
- Old ReplicaSets from previous revisions are retained (up to revisionHistoryLimit).

Monitor:

bash

to the state of th

After, check history:

```
bash
kubectl rollout history deployment nginx-demo -n default
```

Output example:

Verify Pods use the old image:

```
bash
kubectl get pods -n default -o jsonpath='{range .items[*]}{.metadata.na
```

Step 6: (Optional) Pause and Resume Rollouts

If you want to pause mid-rollback (e.g., for testing):

```
bash
kubectl rollout pause deployment nginx-demo -n default
```

Resume:

```
bash
kubectl rollout resume deployment nginx-demo -n default
```

Step 7: (Optional) Clean Up Old Revisions

Kubernetes auto-prunes beyond revisionHistoryLimit. To manually delete a ReplicaSet (but avoid if needed for rollback):

```
bash
kubectl delete replicaset <old-replicaset-name> -n default
```

Additional Tips

- **Custom History Limit**: Set .spec.revisionHistoryLimit: 5 in YAML to keep only 5 revisions (saves etcd space).
- **Debugging**: Use kubectl describe deployment nginx-demo to see events like "Scaled up replica set for revision X".
- In Production: Combine with CI/CD tools (e.g., Helm, ArgoCD) for automated rollbacks. Test in staging to ensure image pulls work (your EC2 nodes need internet/Docker Hub access).
- Edge Cases: If the target revision's ReplicaSet was deleted, rollback fails. Rollbacks
 don't revert replica counts if changed separately.

This feature ensures safe deployments with easy reversibility. If you have a specific scenario or error, share details!

Rollback, roll update commands

Below, I'll provide a focused explanation of Kubernetes **rollback** and **rolling update** commands for a Deployment, building on your scenario with a Deployment managing a ReplicaSet and Pods (e.g., 10 Pods, as mentioned previously). I'll include detailed **kubect1** commands for rolling updates (e.g., updating the container image version) and rollbacks (reverting to a previous revision), assuming you're using the **nginx-demo** Deployment from the provided YAML on your AWS EC2-based Kubernetes cluster (1 control plane, 2 worker nodes). The commands are concise, with explanations of their effects, expected outputs, and how they relate to your setup.

Key Concepts

 Rolling Update: This is the default strategy for Deployment updates (e.g., changing the image version in the YAML). Kubernetes creates a new ReplicaSet with the updated Pod template, scales it up gradually, and scales down the old ReplicaSet, respecting maxSurge and maxUnavailable settings (e.g., 25% each for 10 Pods means ≤13 total pods, ≥8 available). This ensures minimal downtime and no simultaneous Pod termination.

- Rollback: Reverts the Deployment to a previous revision (e.g., an older image version) stored in the rollout history. Kubernetes creates a new ReplicaSet based on the target revision's template, performs a rolling update to switch, and adds a new revision. Rollbacks are seamless and follow the same RollingUpdate strategy.
- Revision History: Each change to .spec.template (e.g., image version) creates a
 new revision. Rollbacks reference these revisions (up to revisionHistoryLimit,
 default 10).

Commands for Rolling Updates

These commands trigger or manage a rolling update when you update the Deployment (e.g., changing the image version).

1. Trigger a Rolling Update

Update the Deployment's YAML (e.g., nginx-deployment.yaml) to change the image from nginx:1.19 to nginx:1.21.

Example YAML snippet (update only the image field):

```
yaml

...
    containers:
    - name: nginx
    image: nginx:1.21 # Changed from nginx:1.19
...
```

Apply the update:

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

- What it does: Updates the Deployment, creating a new ReplicaSet with
 nginx:1.21. The controller performs a rolling update: scales up new Pods (up to 3
 extra for 10 replicas, per maxSurge: 25%), waits for them to be ready, and scales
 down old Pods (keeping ≥8 available, per maxUnavailable: 25%).
- Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo configured
```

• **Effect**: For 10 Pods, it might create 3 new Pods, wait, terminate 3 old, repeat until all 10 are on nginx:1.21. No full downtime (at least 8 Pods remain available).

Alternatively, update the image directly without editing YAML:

```
bash
kubectl set image deployment/nginx-demo nginx=nginx:1.21 -n default
```

• Same effect, but modifies the Deployment in-place. Creates a new revision.

2. Monitor the Rolling Update

Check the rollout progress:

```
bash
kubectl rollout status deployment/nginx-demo -n default --watch
```

Expected output (example for 10 Pods):

```
Waiting for deployment "nginx-demo" rollout to finish: 7 of 10 updated replicas are available...
deployment "nginx-demo" successfully rolled out
```

View Pods during update:

bash

```
kubectl get pods -n default --watch
```

• **Effect**: Shows old Pods (e.g., nginx-demo-oldrs-xyz) terminating and new Pods (e.g., nginx-demo-newrs-abc) starting. Never all down at once due to rolling strategy.

3. Pause a Rolling Update (Optional)

If you need to halt the update (e.g., to inspect):

kubectl rollout pause deployment/nginx-demo -n default

- What it does: Pauses the rollout. No further Pods are created/terminated.
- Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo paused
```

Resume:

bash
kubectl rollout resume deployment/nginx-demo -n default

Output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo resumed
```

4. Check Rollout History

View revisions after the update (new revision created):

```
bash
kubectl rollout history deployment/nginx-demo -n default
```

• Expected output (assuming this is the second change):

```
deployment.apps/nginx-demo
REVISION CHANGE-CAUSE
1          kubectl apply --filename=nginx-deployment.yaml... #
nginx:1.19
2          kubectl apply --filename=nginx-deployment.yaml... #
nginx:1.21
```

Details for a revision:

```
bash
kubectl rollout history deployment/nginx-demo --revision=2 -n default
```

• Output: Shows Pod template (e.g., image: nginx:1.21).

Commands for Rollback

These commands revert the Deployment to a previous revision (e.g., back to nginx:1.19 from Revision 1).

1. Rollback to the Previous Revision

Undo to the last revision (e.g., from Revision 2 to Revision 1):

```
bash
kubectl rollout undo deployment/nginx-demo -n default
```

- What it does: Creates a new ReplicaSet based on Revision 1's template
 (nginx:1.19), performs a rolling update to switch (same
 maxSurge / maxUnavailable rules: ≤13 total Pods, ≥8 available), and adds a new
 revision (e.g., Revision 3). Old ReplicaSet (Revision 2) scales to 0 but is retained.
- Expected output:

```
text
```

```
deployment.apps/nginx-demo rolled back
```

2. Rollback to a Specific Revision

If you want a specific revision (e.g., Revision 1):

```
bash
kubectl rollout undo deployment/nginx-demo --to-revision=1 -n default
```

- What it does: Same as above, but explicitly targets Revision 1's template. Creates
 Revision 3 with nginx:1.19.
- Output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo rolled back
```

3. Monitor the Rollback

Check progress:

```
bash
kubectl rollout status deployment/nginx-demo -n default --watch
```

Output:

```
Waiting for deployment "nginx-demo" rollout to finish: 8 of 10 updated replicas are available...
deployment "nginx-demo" successfully rolled out
```

Verify Pods use the old image:

```
bash

kubectl get pods -n default -o jsonpath='{range .items[*]}
{.metadata.name}{"\t"}{.spec.containers[0].image}{"\n"}{end}'
```

Output example:

```
nginx-demo-newrs-pod1 nginx:1.19
```

4. Check History After Rollback

```
bash
kubectl rollout history deployment/nginx-demo -n default
```

Output:

```
deployment.apps/nginx-demo
REVISION CHANGE-CAUSE
2     kubectl apply --filename=nginx-deployment.yaml... #
nginx:1.21 (scaled down)
1     kubectl apply --filename=nginx-deployment.yaml... #
nginx:1.19
3     kubectl rollout undo ... # nginx:1.19 (current)
```

Notes for Your Setup

- AWS EC2 Cluster: Rollbacks and updates rely on the control plane (API server, controller manager). Ensure your EC2 control plane node is healthy (kubectl get nodes). Worker nodes must pull images (nginx:1.19, nginx:1.21)—verify internet access or private registry setup.
- No Full Downtime: Both rollback and update use RollingUpdate (e.g., 25% surge/unavailable for 10 Pods ensures ≥8 Pods always available). If you used strategy.type: Recreate, all Pods would terminate before new ones start, causing downtime—avoid unless intentional.
- Revision Cleanup: Old ReplicaSets persist until revisionHistoryLimit (default 10). To reduce etcd storage, set .spec.revisionHistoryLimit: 5 in YAML and reapply.

• **Debugging**: If rollback fails (e.g., old ReplicaSet deleted), check <u>kubectl describe</u> deployment/nginx-demo for events. For control plane issues, SSH to your EC2 control plane and run <u>journalctl -u kube-controller-manager</u>.

Example Workflow

- 1. Apply initial Deployment (nginx:1.19 → Revision 1).
- 2. Update to nginx:1.21 (kubectl apply → Revision 2, rolling update).
- 3. If issues arise (e.g., app fails with nginx:1.21), rollback (kubectl rollout undo → Revision 3, reverts to nginx:1.19 via rolling update).
- 4. Monitor with kubectl rollout status and verify with kubectl get pods.

If you need a specific YAML tweak or have errors (e.g., image pull issues), share details for tailored quidance!

Now discuss scaling a rolling update policy in deployment in details with commands; and talk about - scale deployment, autoscale deployment and rolling update strategy with commands

Thought for 5s

Scaling a Rolling Update Policy in Deployment

In Kubernetes, the **rolling update policy** for a Deployment is defined under .spec.strategy.rollingUpdate in the Deployment YAML. This policy controls how updates (e.g., changing the container image version) are rolled out to Pods managed by the ReplicaSet. The key parameters are maxSurge and maxUnavailable, which determine the rollout's pace, resource overhead, and availability.

- Scaling the Policy: These parameters can be absolute integers (e.g., maxSurge: 3 means up to 3 extra Pods) or percentages (e.g., maxSurge: "25%" means up to 25% extra Pods, calculated based on the current .spec.replicas value).
 Percentages make the policy scalable—as you increase the number of replicas (e.g., from 10 to 100 Pods), the rollout automatically adapts without editing the YAML. For example:
 - With 10 replicas: $\max Surge$: "25%" = ceil(10 * 0.25) = 3 extra Pods (total ≤ 13).
 - With 100 replicas: Same setting = ceil(100 * 0.25) = 25 extra Pods (total ≤125).

This scalability ensures the rollout remains proportional: Larger deployments have more parallelism for faster updates, while maintaining relative availability. Absolute values don't scale automatically—if you scale replicas from 10 to 100 but keep maxSurge: 3, the rollout becomes slower relatively (only 3 extra Pods for 100 replicas).

How It Works During an Update:

- Kubernetes creates a new ReplicaSet with the updated Pod template.
- It scales up new Pods (up to maxSurge extra) and scales down old Pods (keeping unavailable Pods ≤ maxUnavailable).
- Calculations: Percentages use ceil for maxSurge (round up) and floor for maxUnavailable (round down). For small replica counts (e.g., 1-4), percentages might resolve to 1, leading to serialized updates.
- Trade-offs: High maxSurge speeds up rollouts but increases temporary resource usage (e.g., CPU/memory on your worker nodes). Low maxUnavailable ensures high availability but slows the process.
- Edge Cases: If maxSurge: 0 and maxUnavailable: "25%", it terminates old Pods first (up to 25% unavailable) before creating new ones—risking brief downtime. If both are high, rollouts are aggressive.

To configure scaling in the policy, edit the Deployment YAML and apply it. This change applies to future updates but doesn't trigger an immediate rollout unless the Pod template changes.

Example YAML for Scalable Rolling Update Policy

Update nginx-deployment.yaml to include scalable parameters (percentages for auto-scaling with replica count):

```
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
metadata:
   name: nginx-demo
   namespace: default
spec:
   replicas: 10 # Starting with 10 Pods
```

```
selector:
   matchLabels:
      app: nginx-demo
 template:
   metadata:
      labels:
       app: nginx-demo
    spec:
      containers:
      - name: nginx
        image: nginx:1.21
        ports:
        - containerPort: 80
  strategy:
    type: RollingUpdate # Default; alternative is Recreate (not
scalable/recommended)
    rollingUpdate:
      maxSurge: "25%" # Scalable: 25% extra Pods during update
      maxUnavailable: "25%" # Scalable: At most 25% unavailable
```

Commands to Apply and Test Scaling the Policy

1. Apply the Updated YAML (sets the scalable policy):

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo configured
```

- Effect: Updates the policy. For 10 replicas, this means ≤13 total Pods and ≥8 available during updates.
- 2. Trigger a Rollout to Test (e.g., change image to simulate update):

```
bash
kubectl set image deployment/nginx-demo nginx=nginx:1.22 -n default
```

Effect: Starts rolling update with scaled policy (e.g., batches of ~3 Pods for 10 replicas). Observe with:

bash
kubectl rollout status deployment/nginx-demo -n default --watch

Output example:

text

Waiting for deployment "nginx-demo" rollout to finish: 7 out of 10 new replicas have been updated...

3. Scale Replicas and Retest (to see policy scaling):

bash
kubectl scale deployment/nginx-demo --replicas=20 -n default

- Effect: Increases to 20 Pods. Now, a new rollout (e.g., image change) uses maxSurge: "25%" = 5 extra (total ≤25), maxUnavailable: "25%" = 5 unavailable (≥15 available).
- Trigger and monitor as above.

4. View Current Policy:

kubectl get deployment/nginx-demo -o yaml -n default | grep -A 3
strategy

Output example:

strategy:
 rollingUpdate:
 maxSurge: 25%
 maxUnavailable: 25%

Scale Deployment

Manually scaling a Deployment changes the <code>.spec.replicas</code> field, adjusting the number of Pods in the ReplicaSet. This is immediate and doesn't involve rolling updates unless the Pod template changes. Kubernetes adds/removes Pods to match the new count, distributing them across nodes (e.g., your 2 worker nodes).

- Use Case: Quick adjustments for load spikes; not dynamic like autoscaling.
- **Behavior**: Scaling up creates new Pods; scaling down terminates excess Pods (gracefully, with pod deletion policy).

Commands for Scaling Deployment

1. Scale Up/Down Manually:

```
bash
kubectl scale deployment/nginx-demo --replicas=15 -n default
```

Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo scaled
```

• **Effect**: Sets replicas to 15. If current is 10, creates 5 new Pods.

2. Verify Scaling:

```
bash
kubectl get deployment/nginx-demo -n default
```

Output example:

```
NAME READY UP-TO-DATE AVAILABLE AGE nginx-demo 15/15 15 1h
```

3. Scale via YAML Edit: Edit replicas: 15 in nginx-deployment.yaml, then:

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

Autoscale Deployment

Autoscaling uses a **Horizontal Pod Autoscaler (HPA)** resource to dynamically adjust the Deployment's replicas based on metrics (e.g., CPU utilization). This is more advanced than manual scaling—Kubernetes monitors Pods and scales between minReplicas and maxReplicas.

- Requirements: Your cluster needs metrics-server installed (common in AWS EKS, but verify on EC2 with kubectl top pods). Default metric is CPU (e.g., target 50% utilization).
- Behavior: HPA checks metrics every 15-30 seconds (configurable). Scales up if average > target, down if < target. Stabilizes after scaling to avoid flapping.
- Custom Metrics: Possible with Prometheus adapter (e.g., requests per second).

Commands for Autoscaling Deployment

1. Create HPA:

```
bash

kubectl autoscale deployment/nginx-demo --min=5 --max=20 --cpu-
percent=50 -n default
```

Expected output:

```
text
horizontalpodautoscaler.autoscaling/nginx-demo autoscaled
```

 Effect: Autoscales between 5-20 replicas, targeting 50% average CPU across Pods.

2. Verify HPA:

```
kubectl get hpa -n default
```

Output example:

```
NAME REFERENCE TARGETS MINPODS MAXPODS
REPLICAS AGE
nginx-demo Deployment/nginx-demo 0%/50% 5 20
5 10s
```

3. **Describe HPA** (for events):

```
bash
kubectl describe hpa/nginx-demo -n default
```

4. Delete HPA (to stop autoscaling):

```
kubectl delete hpa/nginx-demo -n default
```

5. **Test Autoscaling**: Generate load (e.g., via a Service exposing the Deployment), monitor with:

```
bash
kubectl get hpa/nginx-demo -n default --watch
```

• Scales up if CPU >50%, down if <50%.

Rolling Update Strategy

The rolling update strategy (strategy.type: RollingUpdate) is the default for Deployments, enabling zero/minimal-downtime updates. It contrasts with Recreate (terminates all Pods first, causing downtime). Configured via

maxSurge / maxUnavailable (as discussed), it's triggered by Pod template changes (e.g., image version).

- Process: New ReplicaSet created; gradual shift from old to new Pods.
- **Commands**: See "Trigger a Rolling Update" above. To force a restart (no template change):

```
kubectl rollout restart deployment/nginx-demo -n default
```

• Effect: Restarts all Pods in rolling fashion (uses current policy).

For all operations, monitor with kubectl get pods --watch to see distribution on your worker nodes. If issues (e.g., insufficient EC2 resources), check events with kubectl get events.

How rolling update is achieved by replicaset in deployment?

The answer would be new replicaset will be created.

Now explain in lucid way how.

Let's break down how a **rolling update** is achieved by a **ReplicaSet** in a **Kubernetes Deployment** in a clear, straightforward way. We'll focus on the mechanics of how ReplicaSets facilitate this process, especially in the context of your AWS EC2-based Kubernetes cluster (1 control plane, 2 worker nodes) with a Deployment managing, say, 10 Pods. I'll explain step-by-step how a new ReplicaSet is created and how it orchestrates the update, avoiding technical jargon where possible, and conclude with commands to observe it.

What's a Rolling Update?

A rolling update is Kubernetes' way of updating Pods (e.g., changing the container image from nginx:1.19 to nginx:1.21) without taking all Pods offline at once. It ensures your application stays available by replacing old Pods with new ones gradually, like swapping out parts of a running engine without stopping the car.

Why ReplicaSets Are Involved

- A Deployment is the boss—it defines the desired state (e.g., "I want 10 Pods running nginx:1.21").
- A **ReplicaSet** is the worker—it directly manages the Pods, ensuring the right number are running and match the template (e.g., image version, labels).
- When you update the Deployment (e.g., change the image in the YAML), the
 Deployment creates a new ReplicaSet to handle the new Pod configuration. The old
 ReplicaSet sticks around temporarily to manage existing Pods, and Kubernetes
 coordinates between them to perform the rolling update.

How the Rolling Update Happens with ReplicaSets

Let's say you have a Deployment (nginx-demo) with 10 Pods running nginx:1.19, managed by a ReplicaSet we'll call RS-Old. The Deployment's YAML has a rolling update policy with maxSurge: 25% (up to 3 extra Pods, so total ≤13) and maxUnavailable: 25% (at least 8 Pods must stay available). You update the image to nginx:1.21. Here's how it unfolds, step-by-step, in a lucid way:

1. You Trigger an Update:

- You edit the Deployment's YAML to change the image to nginx:1.21 and run kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml.
- The Deployment notices the change in the Pod template (the part defining the container image).

2. New ReplicaSet Is Created:

- The Deployment creates a new ReplicaSet (let's call it RS-New) with the updated template (nginx:1.21).
- RS-New starts with 0 Pods, while RS-01d still manages the 10 Pods running nginx:1.19.

3. Gradual Scaling Up of New Pods:

- Kubernetes starts creating new Pods under RS-New. Because of maxSurge:
 25%, it can add up to 3 extra Pods (total Pods ≤13).
- For example, it creates 3 new Pods on your worker nodes. Now: RS-01d has 10
 Pods, RS-New has 3 Pods, total = 13.

• Kubernetes waits for these new Pods to become "ready" (e.g., passing readiness probes, if defined, meaning the app is up and responding).

4. Scaling Down Old Pods:

- Once the 3 new Pods are ready, Kubernetes checks availability. With 13 Pods total (10 old + 3 new), all ready, you have 13 available Pods, which satisfies
 maxUnavailable: 25% (requiring ≥8 available).
- Kubernetes tells RS-01d to terminate 3 old Pods. Now: RS-01d has 7 Pods,
 RS-New has 3 Pods, total = 10 (back to desired replicas).

5. Repeat the Cycle:

- Kubernetes repeats this process in batches:
 - Create another 3 Pods in RS-New (now RS-New = 6, RS-01d = 7, total = 13).
 - Wait for new Pods to be ready (still ≥8 available).
 - Terminate 3 more old Pods (RS-Old = 4, RS-New = 6, total = 10).
- Next batch: Add 3 more to RS-New (RS-New = 9, RS-01d = 4, total = 13), wait, terminate 3 (RS-01d = 1, RS-New = 9, total = 10).
- Final batch: Add 1 to RS-New (RS-New = 10, RS-01d = 1, total = 11), wait, terminate the last old Pod (RS-01d = 0, RS-New = 10).

6. Rollout Completes:

- RS-New now manages all 10 Pods running nginx:1.21. RS-Old is scaled to 0
 Pods but kept for rollback (up to revisionHistoryLimit).
- The Deployment's desired state is met, and the application stayed available (at least 8 Pods running throughout).

Why This Works

- **No Full Downtime**: The maxUnavailable: 25% ensures at least 8 Pods are always available to serve traffic. New Pods are added before old ones are removed.
- Resource Control: maxSurge: 25% limits extra resource usage (e.g., max 13 Pods, which your 2 worker nodes must handle).
- **Self-Healing**: If a new Pod fails to start (e.g., image pull error on an EC2 node), the rollout pauses until resolved, preventing widespread failure.

 New ReplicaSet Role: RS-New takes over Pod creation with the updated template, while RS-01d manages the old Pods until they're phased out. This separation allows smooth transitions.

Why a New ReplicaSet?

- Immutability: ReplicaSets are tied to a specific Pod template (e.g., nginx:1.19).
 Changing the template (e.g., to nginx:1.21) requires a new ReplicaSet because the old one can't manage Pods with a different configuration.
- **History Tracking**: Keeping RS-01d allows rollbacks (e.g., revert to nginx:1.19) without recreating configurations.
- Parallel Management: The Deployment coordinates both ReplicaSets, scaling them up/down to achieve the rolling update.

Commands to Observe and Manage the Rolling Update

Assuming the nginx-deployment.yaml from previous examples (10 replicas, maxSurge: 25%, maxUnavailable: 25%):

1. Apply Initial Deployment (if not already running):

```
bash
cat <<EOF > nginx-deployment.yaml
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
metadata:
  name: nginx-demo
  namespace: default
spec:
  replicas: 10
  selector:
    matchLabels:
      app: nginx-demo
  template:
    metadata:
      labels:
        app: nginx-demo
    spec:
      containers:
      - name: nginx
        image: nginx:1.19
```

```
ports:
    - containerPort: 80
strategy:
    type: RollingUpdate
    rollingUpdate:
        maxSurge: 25%
        maxUnavailable: 25%
EOF
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

- Output: deployment.apps/nginx-demo created
- Creates RS-Old with 10 Pods (nginx:1.19).

2. Update Image to Trigger Rolling Update:

```
bash
kubectl set image deployment/nginx-demo nginx=nginx:1.21 -n default
```

- Output: deployment.apps/nginx-demo configured
- Effect: Creates RS-New with nginx:1.21, starts rolling update (batches of ~3 Pods).

3. Monitor the Process:

```
bash
kubectl get pods -n default --watch
```

What you see: New Pods (e.g., nginx-demo-newrs-abc-xyz) appear, old Pods
 (e.g., nginx-demo-oldrs-def-uvw) terminate gradually. Total Pods ≤13,
 available ≥8.

Check ReplicaSets:

```
bash
kubectl get replicasets -n default -o wide
```

Output example (mid-rollout):

text					
NAME CONTAINERS IMAGES	DESIRED	CURRENT	READY	AGE	
nginx-demo-oldrs-def nginx:1.19	7	7	7	5m	nginx
nginx-demo-newrs-abc nginx:1.21	3	3	3	10s	nginx

4. Track Rollout Status:

bash
kubectl rollout status deployment/nginx-demo -n default

• Output example:

Waiting for deployment "nginx-demo" rollout to finish: 7 of 10 updated replicas are available...
deployment "nginx-demo" successfully rolled out

5. Check Rollout History (post-update):

bash

kubectl rollout history deployment/nginx-demo -n default

• Output:

6. Rollback (Optional):

If the update fails:

```
bash
kubectl rollout undo deployment/nginx-demo -n default
```

 Creates a new ReplicaSet (Revision 3) based on RS-01d 's template (nginx:1.19), performs another rolling update.

In Your AWS EC2 Context

- Worker Nodes: Pods are scheduled across your 2 worker nodes. With 10 Pods and maxSurge: 25%, up to 13 Pods may run briefly, so ensure your EC2 instances have enough CPU/memory.
- Control Plane: The Deployment controller (running on your EC2 control plane node) manages ReplicaSet scaling. Check journalctl -u kube-controllermanager if issues arise.
- Networking: Pods need to pull images (nginx:1.21). Ensure nodes have internet
 access or a private registry.

Why It's "Lucid"

- Like a Relay Race: Old Pods (managed by RS-01d) pass the baton to new Pods (managed by RS-New) in small groups, never dropping the service.
- Safety First: The maxUnavailable rule ensures most Pods keep running, like keeping most lights on while changing bulbs.
- **New Team for New Plan**: A new ReplicaSet is like hiring a new team for the updated app version, while the old team phases out gracefully.

If you want to tweak the policy (e.g., maxSurge: 100% for faster rollouts) or test specific scenarios, let me know!

In production, How will client get access of our application - We will create deployment, not replicaset. And the client can access service, which will be atteched to our deployment.

This was said by our trainer. Is it true? if yes, how; if no,why.

Yes, your trainer's statement is essentially true in the context of Kubernetes production setups. It's a standard best practice to create a **Deployment** (not a raw ReplicaSet) to manage your application, and clients access it via a **Service** that indirectly "attaches" to the Deployment by targeting its Pods. However, the phrasing "attached to our deployment" is a bit loose—Services don't attach directly to Deployments but to Pods via label selectors. I'll explain why this is true, how it works step-by-step, and address any nuances, assuming a typical production scenario on your AWS EC2-based Kubernetes cluster (1 control plane + 2 worker nodes).

Why It's True: Key Concepts

- Deployment vs. ReplicaSet: In production, you rarely create a standalone
 ReplicaSet directly because Deployments provide higher-level features like rolling
 updates, rollbacks, and revision history (as we've discussed). A Deployment
 automatically creates and manages one or more ReplicaSets behind the scenes.
 Creating a Deployment is the recommended way to run stateless applications
 reliably.
- Service for Client Access: Pods are ephemeral (they can die, restart, or move between nodes). Clients can't reliably access Pods directly by IP because those change. A Service acts as a stable endpoint (with a fixed IP/DNS name) that loadbalances traffic to the Pods. It "attaches" by selecting Pods based on labels, which match the Deployment's Pod template.
- Production Relevance: In production, this setup ensures high availability, scalability, and zero-downtime updates. Clients (e.g., users, other apps) access the Service externally (via LoadBalancer or Ingress), not the Deployment or ReplicaSet directly.

If you tried to create just a ReplicaSet without a Deployment, you'd miss out on update/rollback features, making it unsuitable for production. And without a Service, clients couldn't access the app consistently.

How It Works: Step-by-Step

Let's use your nginx-demo example (a simple web app). We'll create a Deployment (which handles ReplicaSets), then a Service for access. Clients access the Service, which routes to Pods managed by the Deployment's ReplicaSet.

Step 1: Create the Deployment (Manages ReplicaSet and Pods)

You define the app in a YAML file (nginx-deployment.yaml). This creates the Deployment, which auto-creates a ReplicaSet and Pods.

YAML example:

```
yaml
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
metadata:
  name: nginx-demo
  namespace: default
spec:
  replicas: 3 # Example: 3 Pods for redundancy
  selector:
    matchLabels:
      app: nginx-demo # Labels to select Pods
  template:
    metadata:
      labels:
        app: nginx-demo # Pods get this label
    spec:
      containers:
      - name: nginx
        image: nginx:latest
        ports:
        - containerPort: 80 # App listens on port 80
```

Apply it:

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

What happens:

- Kubernetes creates the Deployment object.
- The Deployment creates a ReplicaSet (e.g., nginx-demo-abcdef1234), which ensures 3 Pods are running.
- Pods are scheduled on your worker nodes (e.g., 2 on one node, 1 on the other for balance).
- No client access yet—Pods have internal IPs only.

Verify:

```
bash
kubectl get deployments -n default
```

Output: Shows nginx-demo with 3/3 ready.

```
bash
kubectl get replicasets -n default
```

Output: Shows the auto-created ReplicaSet.

```
kubectl get pods -n default -l app=nginx-demo
```

Output: Lists 3 Pods with label app: nginx-demo.

Step 2: Create the Service (Provides Client Access)

Now, create a Service YAML (nginx-service.yaml) that selects Pods by the same labels as the Deployment.

YAML example (using LoadBalancer type for external access in production; alternatives: NodePort for testing, ClusterIP for internal-only):

```
yaml

apiVersion: v1
kind: Service
metadata:
name: nginy-demo-service
```

```
namespace: default

spec:
    type: LoadBalancer # Exposes externally via AWS ELB in your EC2 setu selector:
    app: nginx-demo # Matches Deployment's Pod labels

ports:
    protocol: TCP
    port: 80 # Service listens here
    targetPort: 80 # Forwards to Pod's containerPort
```

Apply it:

```
bash
kubectl apply -f nginx-service.yaml
```

What happens:

- The Service gets a stable cluster-internal IP (and an external IP if LoadBalancer).
- It watches for Pods matching selector: app: nginx-demo (same as Deployment).
- Traffic to the Service is load-balanced to any matching Pod (managed by the ReplicaSet).
- In your AWS EC2 cluster (if using AWS integrations like EKS or kops),
 LoadBalancer provisions an AWS Elastic Load Balancer (ELB) for public access.

Verify:

```
bash
kubectl get services -n default
```

Output example:

```
NAME TYPE CLUSTER-IP EXTERNAL-IP PORT(S) AGE
```

```
nginx-demo-service LoadBalancer 10.100.123.45 203.0.113.1
80:31234/TCP 1m
```

EXTERNAL-IP is the public endpoint (wait a few minutes for AWS to provision).

Step 3: Client Accesses the Application

- How clients access:
 - Internal clients (e.g., other Pods): Use the Service's DNS name (nginx-demo-service.default.svc.cluster.local:80) or cluster IP.
 - External clients (e.g., users via browser): Hit the EXTERNAL-IP:80 (e.g., http://203.0.113.1). This routes through the Service to a Pod.
 - The Service automatically updates if Pods change (e.g., during scaling or updates)—no client disruption.
- **Example**: Curl from outside the cluster:

```
bash
curl http://<EXTERNAL-IP>
```

Output: Nginx welcome page (from one of the Pods).

 During Updates: If you update the Deployment (e.g., new image), it creates a new ReplicaSet for rolling updates. The Service seamlessly shifts traffic to new Pods (still matching the labels), maintaining access.

Step 4: Scaling and Maintenance (Why Deployment + Service Wins in Production)

Scale the Deployment:

```
bash
kubectl scale deployment/nginx-demo --replicas=5 -n default
```

- ReplicaSet adds 2 more Pods; Service auto-load-balances to all 5.
- Update the app:

```
bash
```

- New ReplicaSet rolls out; Service keeps routing to ready Pods (old and new).
- If a Pod dies: ReplicaSet recreates it; Service updates endpoints automatically.

Nuances and Why Not "No"

- Not Directly Attached: The Service selects Pods by labels, not the Deployment object. But since the Deployment ensures Pods have those labels (via its template and ReplicaSet), it's effectively "attached." This decouples concerns—Services can span multiple Deployments if needed.
- Alternatives in Production:
 - For HTTP apps, use an Ingress (with controller like nginx-ingress) on top of the Service for domain-based routing (e.g., app.example.com).
 - In non-AWS clusters, LoadBalancer might need cloud-provider integration;
 otherwise, use NodePort and expose via external LB.
- If No Service: Clients couldn't access reliably—Pods' IPs change, leading to downtime.
- If Using Raw ReplicaSet: Possible but not recommended—lacks Deployment's update/rollback smarts, making production maintenance harder.

This setup is how most production Kubernetes apps (e.g., web services) are exposed. If your trainer meant something specific (e.g., headless Services), clarify, but based on the statement, it's spot-on. For hands-on testing, apply the YAMLs above!

On top of deployment, we create service..... what is meant by that?

In Kubernetes, the phrase "on top of deployment, we create service" is a common way to describe the layered architecture for running and exposing applications. It means that after you create a **Deployment** (which manages your application's Pods and ensures they're running reliably), you create a **Service** as an additional resource that sits "on top" of (or abstracts) the Deployment to provide stable network access to those Pods. This layering allows clients (e.g., users, browsers, or other apps) to reach

your application consistently, without directly dealing with the underlying Pods' impermanence.

Why "On Top"?

- Deployment's Role: A Deployment is responsible for the lifecycle of your app's
 Pods (e.g., creating, scaling, updating via ReplicaSets). However, Pods have shortlived IPs that change when they restart, scale, or move between nodes (like your
 AWS EC2 worker nodes). You don't expose Deployments directly to clients
 because they're not designed for networking—they focus on orchestration.
- Service's Role: The Service acts as a stable "front door" or abstraction layer "on top" of the Deployment. It provides a fixed IP, DNS name, and load balancing to route traffic to the Pods. The Service doesn't manage Pods; it discovers them dynamically via label selectors that match the Deployment's Pod labels. This decoupling makes the system modular: Update the Deployment (e.g., roll out a new version), and the Service automatically adapts without downtime.

In essence, the Deployment handles the "what" and "how many" (Pods/replicas), while the Service handles the "how to access" (networking). This is a best practice in production to achieve reliability and scalability.

How It Works

- 1. Create the Deployment First: This sets up your app's Pods.
 - Example YAML (deployment.yaml):

```
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
metadata:
   name: my-app
spec:
   replicas: 3
   selector:
     matchLabels:
      app: my-app
template:
   metadata:
     labels:
```

```
app: my-app # Key: Pods get this label
spec:
    containers:
    - name: my-container
    image: myimage:latest
    ports:
    - containerPort: 8080
```

- Apply: kubectl apply -f deployment.yaml
- Result: Creates Pods with label app: my-app.
- 2. Create the Service "On Top": This exposes the Deployment's Pods.
 - Example YAML (service.yaml):

```
apiVersion: v1
kind: Service
metadata:
    name: my-app-service
spec:
    type: LoadBalancer # Or ClusterIP/NodePort for different
exposure
    selector:
    app: my-app # Matches Deployment's Pod labels
ports:
    - protocol: TCP
    port: 80 # External port
    targetPort: 8080 # Pod's port
```

- Apply: kubectl apply -f service.yaml
- Result: The Service watches for Pods with app: my-app (from the Deployment)
 and load-balances traffic to them.

3. Access Flow:

- Clients hit the Service's endpoint (e.g., external IP for LoadBalancer).
- Service forwards to available Pods (managed by Deployment's ReplicaSet).
- If you scale/update the Deployment, the Service seamlessly updates its endpoints.

Benefits in Production

- Stability: Service IP/DNS doesn't change, even if Pods do.
- Load Balancing: Distributes traffic across Pods on your worker nodes.
- Zero Downtime: During rolling updates, Service routes to both old/new Pods.
- Scalability: Add an Ingress "on top" of the Service for advanced routing (e.g., HTTPS, domains).

If this doesn't match your trainer's context or you have a specific YAML/example, provide more details!

port service, cluster ip service, load balancer service in lucid way

In Kubernetes, a **Service** is a resource that provides a stable way for clients (e.g., users, apps) to access your application's Pods, which are managed by a Deployment (and its ReplicaSet) in a production setup like your AWS EC2-based cluster (1 control plane, 2 worker nodes). The phrase "on top of deployment, we create service" (as your trainer mentioned) refers to creating a Service to expose the Pods managed by a Deployment. There are different types of Services—**ClusterIP**, **NodePort**, and **LoadBalancer**—each serving a specific purpose for how clients access the application. Below, I'll explain each type in a clear, lucid way, avoiding jargon, and provide commands to demonstrate how they work with your nginx-demo Deployment.

Why Services Are Needed

Pods have short-lived IPs that change when they restart, scale, or move across nodes (like your 2 EC2 worker nodes). A Service acts like a fixed "front door" to your app, giving clients a reliable way to reach the Pods without tracking their IPs. Each Service type controls *how* and *where* the app is accessible:

- ClusterIP: Internal access within the cluster.
- NodePort: Access via worker node IPs (useful for testing).
- LoadBalancer: External access via a cloud provider's load balancer (ideal for production on AWS).

The Three Service Types Explained

Imagine your app (e.g., nginx-demo with 3 Pods) is a restaurant. The Service is the entrance, and the type determines who can walk in and how.

1. ClusterIP Service (Default)

- What it is: The default Service type. It creates a stable *internal* IP and DNS name that only works inside the Kubernetes cluster. It's like a private staff entrance for your restaurant—only other Pods or services within the cluster can use it.
- **Use case**: For apps that only need to talk to other apps inside the cluster (e.g., a backend API accessed by a frontend Pod).
- How it works:
 - Assigns a cluster-internal IP (e.g., 10.100.123.45).
 - Routes traffic to Pods matching the Service's selector (e.g., app: nginx-demo).
 - Load-balances across Pods (e.g., your 3 nginx Pods).
 - Only accessible within the cluster unless you use tricks like kubectl portforward.
- Example YAML (nginx-clusterip-service.yaml):

```
apiVersion: v1
kind: Service
metadata:
    name: nginx-demo-clusterip
    namespace: default
spec:
    type: ClusterIP # Default, can omit
    selector:
        app: nginx-demo # Matches Deployment's Pod labels
    ports:
    - protocol: TCP
        port: 80 # Service's port (internal)
        targetPort: 80 # Pod's port
```

Apply:

```
kubectl apply -f nginx-clusterip-service.yaml
```

• Output: service/nginx-demo-clusterip created

Verify:

```
kubectl get services -n default
```

Output example:

```
NAME TYPE CLUSTER-IP EXTERNAL-IP
PORT(S) AGE
nginx-demo-clusterip ClusterIP 10.100.123.45 <none>
80/TCP 1m
```

Access:

- Inside cluster: Use nginx-demo-clusterip.default.svc.cluster.local:80 or 10.100.123.45:80 (e.g., from another Pod).
- For testing: kubectl port-forward service/nginx-demo-clusterip 8080:80 n default, then curl localhost:8080 locally.
- Not for external clients: No public IP, so users outside the cluster (e.g., browsers) can't reach it directly.
- In your setup: Useful if your nginx app serves internal microservices on your EC2 cluster, not public users.

2. NodePort Service

• What it is: Exposes the app on a specific port (e.g., 30000-32767) of every worker node's IP in your cluster. It's like opening a side door on each restaurant location—anyone who knows a node's IP and port can access it.

 Use case: Testing or temporary external access, often before setting up a proper LoadBalancer or Ingress. Not ideal for production due to non-standard ports and node-specific IPs.

• How it works:

- Assigns a cluster-internal IP (like ClusterIP) and a high-numbered port on all nodes (e.g., 31000).
- Traffic to <node-ip>:31000 routes to Pods via the Service's internal load balancing.
- Kubernetes picks a port unless you specify one (within the nodePort range).
- Example YAML (nginx-nodeport-service.yaml):

```
apiVersion: v1
kind: Service
metadata:
    name: nginx-demo-nodeport
    namespace: default
spec:
    type: NodePort
    selector:
    app: nginx-demo
    ports:
    - protocol: TCP
        port: 80 # Service's internal port
        targetPort: 80 # Pod's port
        nodePort: 31000 # Optional: Specify port (30000-32767)
```

Apply:

```
kubectl apply -f nginx-nodeport-service.yaml
```

- Output: service/nginx-demo-nodeport created
- Verify:

```
kubectl get services -n default
```

Output example:

```
NAME TYPE CLUSTER-IP EXTERNAL-IP
PORT(S) AGE
nginx-demo-nodeport NodePort 10.100.123.46 <none>
80:31000/TCP 1m
```

Access:

- Get worker node IPs: kubectl get nodes -o wide (e.g., 192.168.1.10, 192.168.1.11 for your 2 EC2 workers).
- Curl: curl http://192.168.1.10:31000 or curl http://192.168.1.11:31000.
- Works externally if node IPs are public and firewall allows port 31000.
- **Limitation**: Non-standard port (31000) isn't user-friendly for production; clients must know node IPs.
- In your setup: Good for debugging your nginx app on EC2 nodes, but not for public-facing apps due to node-specific access.

3. LoadBalancer Service

- What it is: Exposes the app externally via a cloud provider's load balancer (e.g., AWS Elastic Load Balancer in your EC2 setup). It's like a grand public entrance to your restaurant, accessible via a single public IP or hostname.
- **Use case**: Production-grade external access for web apps (e.g., your nginx app serving users via browsers). Ideal for public-facing services.

• How it works:

- Builds on ClusterIP: Gets an internal IP and load-balances to Pods.
- Requests a cloud load balancer (AWS ELB in your case) with a public IP.
- Traffic to the ELB's IP routes to Pods via the Service.

- Requires cloud-provider integration (e.g., AWS cloud controller for Kubernetes).
- Example YAML (nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml):

```
apiVersion: v1
kind: Service
metadata:
    name: nginx-demo-loadbalancer
    namespace: default
spec:
    type: LoadBalancer
    selector:
    app: nginx-demo
ports:
    - protocol: TCP
    port: 80 # External port (ELB listens here)
    targetPort: 80 # Pod's port
```

• Apply:

```
bash

kubectl apply -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
```

- Output: service/nginx-demo-loadbalancer created
- Verify:

```
bash
kubectl get services -n default
```

• Output example (EXTERNAL-IP pending initially, then populated):

```
NAME TYPE CLUSTER-IP
EXTERNAL-IP PORT(S) AGE
```

Access:

- Wait 1-5 minutes for AWS to provision the ELB.
- Curl: curl http://203.0.113.1 (public IP).
- Browser: Open http://203.0.113.1 to see nginx's welcome page.
- Production-ready: Standard port 80, single reliable endpoint, auto-scales with Pods.
- In your setup: Perfect for exposing your nginx app to the internet on your EC2 cluster. AWS ELLmB distributes traffic to your 2 worker nodes' Pods.

Lucid Analogy

- Restaurant analogy:
 - ClusterIP: Only staff inside the restaurant (other Pods) can order food via an internal phone line (cluster IP).
 - NodePort: Customers can pick up food at any restaurant branch (worker node) through a side door (high port like 31000), but they need to know each branch's address.
 - LoadBalancer: Customers order via a single, fancy website (public IP) that delivers from any branch seamlessly.
- Your Deployment: The kitchen (Pods) cooking food, managed by the Deployment's ReplicaSet. The Service is how customers get the food.

Why Your Trainer's Statement Holds

- Deployment First: You create the Deployment (nginx-demo) to run and manage
 Pods (e.g., 3 nginx Pods).
- Service "On Top": You add a Service (ClusterIP/NodePort/LoadBalancer) to expose those Pods. In production, LoadBalancer is common for external access (as in AWS EC2 with ELB).
- How it connects: The Service's selector matches the Deployment's Pod labels
 (app: nginx-demo), ensuring traffic reaches the right Pods, even during scaling or

rolling updates.

 No ReplicaSet directly: You don't create a standalone ReplicaSet because the Deployment manages it automatically, providing updates/rollbacks.

Commands to Test All Three

Assuming your nginx-demo Deployment is running (from previous examples):

1. Create All Services:

```
kubectl apply -f nginx-clusterip-service.yaml
kubectl apply -f nginx-nodeport-service.yaml
kubectl apply -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
```

2. Check All Services:

```
kubectl get services -n default
```

See ClusterIP, NodePort, and LoadBalancer with their IPs/ports.

3. Test Access:

- ClusterIP: kubectl port-forward service/nginx-demo-clusterip 8080:80 -n default, then curl localhost:8080.
- NodePort: Get node IPs (kubectl get nodes -o wide), then curl http://<node-ip>:31000.
- LoadBalancer: Wait for EXTERNAL-IP, then curl http://<external-ip>.

4. Clean Up:

```
kubectl delete service nginx-demo-clusterip nginx-demo-nodeport
nginx-demo-loadbalancer -n default
```

- ClusterIP: For internal microservices (e.g., nginx serving a backend).
- NodePort: For testing on your 2 worker nodes (check EC2 security groups for port access, e.g., 31000).
- LoadBalancer: For production—AWS creates an ELB. Ensure your EC2 cluster has the AWS cloud provider configured (e.g., via kops or EKS).
- Gotcha: If LoadBalancer's EXTERNAL-IP stays <pending>, verify AWS credentials and cloud integration.

If you need Ingress for HTTPS/domains or have specific app requirements, let me know!

In our kubernetes cluster, if control pane fails, will our app fail? Will our pods stop? what will happen?

To address your question about what happens if the **control plane** fails in your Kubernetes cluster (running on AWS EC2 with 1 control plane node and 2 worker nodes), let's break it down clearly and comprehensively. We'll examine whether your application (managed by a Deployment and exposed via a Service, as discussed previously) will fail, whether Pods will stop, and what exactly happens when the control plane is unavailable. I'll also provide commands to verify and monitor the behavior, tailored to your setup.

Understanding the Control Plane

The **control plane** in Kubernetes is the brain of the cluster, responsible for managing and orchestrating resources. In your setup, it runs on a single EC2 control plane node and consists of components like:

- API Server: Handles all requests (e.g., kubectl commands, Pod scheduling).
- Controller Manager: Runs controllers (e.g., Deployment controller for ReplicaSets, Pod creation).
- Scheduler: Assigns Pods to worker nodes.
- etcd: Stores the cluster's state (e.g., Deployment specs, Pod info).

Your application's Pods (e.g., nginx-demo with 3 replicas, exposed via a Service) run on the 2 worker nodes, managed by the **kubelet** (agent on each node) and networked

What Happens If the Control Plane Fails?

If your single control plane node fails (e.g., EC2 instance crashes, network partition, or power outage), the control plane components become unavailable. Let's analyze the impact step-by-step:

1. Will Your Application Fail?

• Short Answer: Your application is unlikely to fail immediately and can continue running, provided the worker nodes and Pods remain healthy. However, the application's ability to self-heal, scale, or update is impaired.

Why:

- Pods Keep Running: Pods are managed locally by the kubelet on each
 worker node. The kubelet doesn't need constant communication with the
 control plane to keep Pods running. If your nginx-demo Pods are already
 running on the worker nodes, they'll continue serving traffic (e.g., via the
 Service's LoadBalancer IP).
- Service Continues Load Balancing: The Service's networking (handled by kube-proxy on worker nodes) continues to route traffic to healthy Pods.
 Kube-proxy uses iptables or IPVS rules, which persist even if the control plane is down.
- But No New Management: Without the control plane, Kubernetes can't respond to changes (e.g., Pod crashes, scaling requests, or updates), which could lead to application issues over time (see below).

2. Will Your Pods Stop?

• Short Answer: Existing Pods will not stop simply because the control plane fails. They'll keep running unless something else (e.g., node failure, resource exhaustion) affects them.

Why:

Kubelet Autonomy: The kubelet on each worker node (your 2 EC2 instances) manages Pods independently, using the last-known desired

- state from the API server (stored locally). It ensures Pods stay running and restarts them if they crash, as long as the worker node is healthy.
- No External Dependency: Pods (e.g., your nginx containers) don't rely on the control plane for their runtime execution—just for orchestration events like creation or deletion.

3. What Will Happen?

- Immediate Impact: Minimal disruption to running applications.
 - Your nginx-demo Pods continue serving traffic via the Service (e.g., LoadBalancer on AWS ELB).
 - Clients can still access the app (e.g., curl http://<external-ip> works).
- Longer-Term Impacts (if control plane stays down):
 - No Self-Healing: If a Pod crashes, the kubelet tries to restart it locally, but if
 it can't (e.g., image pull needed), the Deployment controller (on control
 plane) can't create new Pods to replace failed ones.
 - No Scaling: You can't scale the Deployment (e.g., kubectl scale) or autoscale via HPA, as these require the API server and controller manager.
 - No Updates/Rollbacks: Rolling updates or rollbacks (e.g., changing nginx:1.21 to 1.22) are impossible without the API server to process kubectl apply or rollout commands.
 - No New Resources: Creating new Deployments, Services, or other objects fails because kubectl can't reach the API server.
 - Monitoring Issues: Tools like kubectl get pods fail (no API server), though running Pods persist.
 - Potential Drift: If worker nodes lose connectivity to etcd (e.g., for Pod state), kubelet behavior depends on configuration but may keep Pods running in a stale state.

4. Risks in Your Single Control Plane Setup:

 Single Point of Failure: With only one control plane node, there's no redundancy. In production, a highly available (HA) control plane (multiple nodes running API server, etcd, etc.) is recommended to mitigate this. If your EC2 control plane node goes down, the entire orchestration layer is unavailable until it recovers.

• AWS-Specific: If the EC2 instance crashes, you'd need to restore it (e.g., via Auto Scaling Group or manual restart). If using kops or EKS, check if the control plane node is in an ASG for auto-recovery.

Scenarios and Outcomes

- **Pod Failure**: If an nginx Pod crashes, the kubelet restarts it locally. If it can't (e.g., needs a new Pod scheduled), the Deployment controller can't act, reducing available replicas (e.g., from 3 to 2), potentially degrading performance.
- Worker Node Failure: If one of your 2 worker nodes fails, Pods on it die. The scheduler (control plane) can't reschedule them, so your app runs with fewer Pods (e.g., 1-2 instead of 3).
- Client Access: The Service (e.g., LoadBalancer) continues working as long as some Pods are alive and kube-proxy rules persist. AWS ELB keeps routing traffic to remaining Pods.
- Long Outage: If the control plane is down for hours and Pods/nodes fail, availability degrades without self-healing.

Commands to Verify and Monitor

Since the control plane is down, kubectl commands (which rely on the API server) will fail with errors like Unable to connect to the server. However, you can still inspect the worker nodes directly if you have SSH access to your EC2 instances.

1. Check Running Pods (When Control Plane Is Up):

```
kubectl get pods -n default -l app=nginx-demo
```

- Normal output: Lists your 3 nginx-demo Pods.
- If control plane down: Fails with connection refused.

2. Check Worker Node Status (SSH to EC2 Worker Nodes):

SSH into a worker node (e.g., ssh ec2-user@<worker-ip>).

• List running Pods:

```
docker ps # If using Docker as container runtime
# OR
crictl ps # If using containerd
```

- Shows nginx containers running locally.
- Check kubelet logs:

```
journalctl -u kubelet
```

Look for Pod restarts or errors.

3. Test Application Access:

• If using a LoadBalancer Service:

```
bash

curl http://<external-ip> # From outside cluster
```

Should work as long as some Pods are running.

4. Simulate Control Plane Failure (For Testing, If Safe):

- Stop the control plane node (e.g., sudo systemctl stop kube-apiserver on the EC2 control plane node or shut down the instance).
- Try kubectl get pods (will fail).
- Test app access (curl <external-ip>)—should still work.
- Check Pods via SSH on workers (above).

5. Restore Control Plane:

Restart the EC2 instance or services:

```
bash
```

```
sudo systemctl start kube-apiserver kube-controller-manager
kube-scheduler
```

Verify cluster health:

```
kubectl get nodes
kubectl get pods -n default
```

Mitigating Control Plane Failure in Production

- High Availability (HA): Run multiple control plane nodes (e.g., 3 EC2 instances)
 with load-balanced API servers and replicated etcd. Tools like kops or EKS can set
 this up. Single-node control planes are risky for production.
- Auto-Recovery: Use AWS Auto Scaling Groups for the control plane node to autorestart on failure.
- Monitoring: Use tools like Prometheus to alert on control plane downtime.
- Backup etcd: Regularly back up etcd (e.g., etcdctl snapshot save) to restore cluster state if needed.

Lucid Analogy

- Control Plane as Restaurant Manager: The control plane is like a manager who schedules cooks (Pods), assigns tables (nodes), and updates the menu (rollouts). If the manager is absent, the kitchen (worker nodes) keeps cooking with existing staff (Pods), and customers (clients) can still eat via the waiter (Service). But no new cooks can be hired, shifts can't change, and the menu can't be updated until the manager returns.
- Your App: Your nginx-demo app keeps serving web pages as long as some Pods are running, but it can't adapt to new demands without the control plane.

In Your Context

 Will App Fail?: Not immediately—your nginx app will keep running via the Service (e.g., AWS ELB) as long as Pods and worker nodes are healthy.

- Will Pods Stop?: No, existing Pods continue unless disrupted by node issues or resource exhaustion.
- Risk: With only one control plane node, prolonged downtime risks degrading your app (e.g., if Pods fail). In production, add HA control planes.

If you need steps to test this (e.g., safely simulate failure) or set up HA, let me know!

Map load balancer service with deployment- give step by step commands.

To map a LoadBalancer Service to a Deployment in your Kubernetes cluster (running on AWS EC2 with 1 control plane and 2 worker nodes), you need to create a Deployment to manage your application's Pods and then create a LoadBalancer Service to expose those Pods externally via a stable endpoint (e.g., an AWS Elastic Load Balancer). The Service "maps" to the Deployment by selecting its Pods using matching labels, ensuring client traffic reaches the application. Below, I'll provide a clear, step-by-step guide with commands and YAML files to achieve this, using your nginx-demo example from previous discussions. I'll also explain how the mapping works and include the YAML in an <xaiArtifact> tag as requested.

Understanding the Mapping

- **Deployment**: Manages Pods (e.g., 3 replicas of an nginx app) via a ReplicaSet, ensuring the desired number of Pods are running on your worker nodes.
- LoadBalancer Service: Creates a stable external endpoint (AWS ELB in your case) that routes traffic to Pods matching its selector labels. The Service doesn't directly attach to the Deployment but targets its Pods based on labels defined in the Deployment's spec.template.metadata.labels.
- How They Connect: The Service's selector (e.g., app: nginx-demo) matches the labels on the Deployment's Pods, ensuring traffic is load-balanced to those Pods, even during scaling or rolling updates.

This setup is ideal for production, as it provides a public IP for clients (e.g., browsers, APIs) to access your app reliably.

Step-by-Step Commands to Map LoadBalancer Service to Deployment

We'll create a Deployment for an nginx application and a LoadBalancer Service to expose it. Commands assume kubect1 is configured to interact with your AWS EC2 Kubernetes cluster.

Step 1: Create the Deployment YAML

Define the Deployment to run 3 replicas of an nginx application. The Pods will have a label (app: nginx-demo) that the Service will use to select them.

```
text
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
metadata:
  name: nginx-demo
  namespace: default
  labels:
    app: nginx-demo
spec:
  replicas: 3
  selector:
    matchLabels:
      app: nginx-demo
  template:
    metadata:
      labels:
        app: nginx-demo # Pods get this label
    spec:
      containers:
      - name: nginx
        image: nginx:latest
        ports:
        - containerPort: 80
```

Show in sidebar >

Save and Apply:

```
cat <<EOF > nginx-deployment.yaml
apiVersion: apps/v1
kind: Deployment
```

```
metadata:
  name: nginx-demo
  namespace: default
  labels:
    app: nginx-demo
spec:
  replicas: 3
  selector:
    matchLabels:
      app: nginx-demo
  template:
    metadata:
      labels:
        app: nginx-demo
    spec:
      containers:
      - name: nginx
        image: nginx:latest
        ports:
        - containerPort: 80
EOF
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

- What it does: Creates a Deployment named nginx-demo that spawns a ReplicaSet, which creates 3 Pods running nginx. Pods are labeled app: nginx-demo and distributed across your 2 worker nodes.
- Expected output:

```
text
deployment.apps/nginx-demo created
```

Step 2: Verify the Deployment and Pods

Check that the Deployment and Pods are running.

```
bash
kubectl get deployments -n default
```

Output example:

text			
NAME nginx-demo	UP-TO-DATE	AVAILABLE 3	AGE 10s

```
bash
kubectl get pods -n default -l app=nginx-demo -o wide
```

Output example:

text					
NAME NODE	READY	STATUS	RESTARTS	AGE	ΙP
nginx-demo-abc123-pod1 10.244.1.2 worker-1	1/1	Running	0	10s	
nginx-demo-abc123-pod2 10.244.1.3 worker-1	1/1	Running	0	10s	
nginx-demo-abc123-pod3 10.244.2.4 worker-2	1/1	Running	0	10s	

• What this shows: Pods are running with the label app: nginx-demo, ready for the Service to select.

Step 3: Create the LoadBalancer Service YAML

Define a LoadBalancer Service to expose the Deployment's Pods externally via an AWS ELB. The selector matches the Pods' labels.

```
apiVersion: v1
kind: Service
metadata:
   name: nginx-demo-service
   namespace: default
spec:
   type: LoadBalancer
   selector:
    app: nginx-demo # Matches Deployment's Pod labels
   ports:
```

```
- protocol: TCP
port: 80 # ELB listens here
targetPort: 80 # Pods' port

Show in sidebar >
```

Save and Apply:

```
bash
cat <<EOF > nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
apiVersion: v1
kind: Service
metadata:
  name: nginx-demo-service
  namespace: default
spec:
  type: LoadBalancer
  selector:
    app: nginx-demo
  ports:
  - protocol: TCP
    port: 80
    targetPort: 80
E0F
kubectl apply -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
```

- What it does: Creates a Service that selects Pods with app: nginx-demo,
 provisions an AWS ELB, and routes external traffic to the 3 nginx Pods.
- Expected output:

```
text
service/nginx-demo-service created
```

Step 4: Verify the Service and Get External IP

Check the Service's status and wait for AWS to assign an external IP to the ELB.

```
bash
kubectl get services -n default -o wide
```

• Output example (initially):

```
NAME TYPE CLUSTER-IP EXTERNAL-IP
PORT(S) AGE
nginx-demo-service LoadBalancer 10.100.123.47 <pending>
80/TCP 10s
```

• Wait 1-5 minutes, then check again:

text			
NAME PORT(S) AGE	TYPE	CLUSTER-IP	EXTERNAL-IP
nginx-demo-service 80/TCP 5m	LoadBalancer	10.100.123.47	203.0.113.1

• What this shows: The Service has an internal CLUSTER-IP and an EXTERNAL-IP (ELB's public IP). Traffic to 203.0.113.1:80 reaches the Pods.

Step 5: Test Client Access

Test that the application is accessible via the LoadBalancer.

```
bash
curl http://<EXTERNAL-IP>
```

- Expected output: Nginx welcome page HTML (indicating traffic reached a Pod).
- Browser test: Open http://<EXTERNAL-IP> in a browser to see the nginx page.
- What happens: The ELB routes traffic to one of the 3 Pods, load-balanced by the Service.

Step 6: Verify Mapping During Updates

To ensure the Service stays mapped during a Deployment update (e.g., image change):

bash			

- What happens: The Deployment triggers a rolling update, creating a new ReplicaSet. The Service continues routing to Pods with app: nginx-demo (both old and new Pods during the transition).
- Monitor:

```
kubectl rollout status deployment/nginx-demo -n default kubectl get pods -n default --watch
```

• **Test again**: curl http://<EXTERNAL-IP> —still works, as the Service adapts automatically.

Step 7: (Optional) Clean Up

Remove the Service and Deployment if needed:

```
kubectl delete -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
kubectl delete -f nginx-deployment.yaml
```

Output:

```
text

service "nginx-demo-service" deleted
deployment.apps "nginx-demo" deleted
```

How the Mapping Works

- Label Selector: The Service's spec.selector: app: nginx-demo matches the Deployment's spec.template.metadata.labels: app: nginx-demo. This links the Service to the Pods, not the Deployment directly.
- Dynamic Updates: The Service (via kube-proxy) watches for Pods with matching labels. As the Deployment scales (e.g., to 5 replicas) or updates (new ReplicaSet), the Service automatically includes new Pods.

- AWS ELB: The LoadBalancer Service tells the AWS cloud provider (configured in your EC2 cluster) to create an ELB, which forwards traffic to the Service's endpoints (Pods).
- Resilience: If a Pod dies, the ReplicaSet recreates it, and the Service updates its
 endpoints. If you update the Deployment, the Service seamlessly handles the
 transition.

In Your AWS EC2 Context

- ELB Provisioning: Ensure your cluster has AWS cloud provider integration (e.g., via kops or EKS). If EXTERNAL-IP stays <pending>, check AWS credentials or security groups.
- Security Groups: Allow inbound traffic on port 80 in your EC2 security groups for the ELB and worker nodes.
- Worker Nodes: Pods run on your 2 worker nodes. Ensure they have enough resources (CPU/memory) for the Pods and can pull nginx:latest from Docker Hub.

Lucid Analogy

- Deployment: The kitchen staff (Pods) cooking food, managed by a head chef (ReplicaSet) under a restaurant manager (Deployment).
- LoadBalancer Service: The restaurant's public delivery service (AWS ELB) that takes orders from customers (clients) and delivers food from any available cook (Pod) with the right label (e.g., app: nginx-demo).
- Mapping: The delivery service knows which cooks to call based on their name tags (labels), ensuring orders reach the right team, even as cooks change shifts (rolling updates).

If you need Ingress for HTTPS or have issues (e.g., ELB not provisioning), share details for further guidance!

What is an EKS cluster? Why is it called PAAS? How EKS cluster is convenient than -

- (i) manual kubernetes
- (ii) KOps.

Let's dive into your questions about Amazon Elastic Kubernetes Service (EKS), why it's considered a Platform as a Service (PaaS), and how it compares to manual Kubernetes and KOps in terms of convenience, especially in the context of your AWS EC2-based Kubernetes cluster (1 control plane, 2 worker nodes). I'll explain each part clearly, avoiding jargon where possible, and provide a lucid comparison tailored to your setup, where you're managing a Deployment and LoadBalancer Service for an application like nginx-demo.

What is an EKS Cluster?

An **EKS cluster** is a managed Kubernetes cluster provided by Amazon Web Services (AWS). It's a service where AWS takes care of running and maintaining the Kubernetes **control plane** (the brain of the cluster, including the API server, controller manager, scheduler, and etcd), while you manage the **worker nodes** (EC2 instances running your application Pods, like your nginx app). You deploy your apps (e.g., Deployments, Services) on these nodes, and EKS ensures the control plane is highly available, secure, and updated.

Key Components:

- Control Plane: AWS hosts and manages the Kubernetes control plane in a highly available setup across multiple Availability Zones (AZs). You don't manage the EC2 instances running these components.
- Worker Nodes: You provision EC2 instances (or use AWS Fargate for serverless) to run your Pods. These are like your 2 worker nodes, but EKS integrates them seamlessly with the control plane.
- Networking: EKS uses a Container Network Interface (CNI), typically AWS VPC CNI, to provide networking for Pods and Services (e.g., your LoadBalancer Service maps to an AWS ELB).
- Integration: EKS integrates with AWS services like IAM for security,
 CloudWatch for monitoring, and ELB for load balancing, making it production-ready.
- Example: For your nginx-demo Deployment with a LoadBalancer Service, EKS would manage the control plane, automatically provision an ELB for the Service,

and let you run Pods on EC2 worker nodes, just like your current setup but with less overhead for the control plane.

Why is EKS Called a PaaS?

Platform as a Service (PaaS) is a cloud computing model where a provider manages the underlying infrastructure (servers, networking, storage) and offers a platform for you to deploy and run applications. You focus on your app (code, configuration) rather than server maintenance. EKS is considered a PaaS because:

- Managed Control Plane: AWS handles the Kubernetes control plane (API server, etcd, etc.), abstracting away tasks like setting up, scaling, upgrading, or patching the control plane. You don't need to manage EC2 instances for it, unlike your single control plane node.
- Simplified Operations: You deploy apps (e.g., your nginx-demo YAMLs) via kubect1, and AWS ensures the cluster's backbone is reliable and highly available.
 This is like renting a pre-built kitchen (platform) to cook your meals (apps).
- Focus on Apps: You manage the application layer (Deployments, Services, Pods)
 and worker nodes, while AWS handles the Kubernetes "platform" (control plane,
 integrations).
- Contrast with laaS/SaaS:
 - laaS (Infrastructure as a Service): Raw EC2 instances where you manually install Kubernetes (like your current setup)—you control everything.
 - SaaS (Software as a Service): Fully managed apps (e.g., a hosted website builder). EKS is in between: a platform for running containerized apps, not a fully managed app.
- Lucid Analogy: EKS is like renting a restaurant kitchen (control plane) that's fully
 equipped and maintained by the landlord (AWS). You bring your chefs (worker
 nodes) and recipes (Deployments/Services), but you don't worry about fixing the
 ovens or plumbing.

How EKS is Convenient Compared to Manual Kubernetes and KOps

Let's compare EKS to **manual Kubernetes** (like your current EC2 setup, where you manually manage the control plane and workers) and **KOps** (a tool to automate

Kubernetes cluster setup on AWS).

(i) EKS vs. Manual Kubernetes

Manual Kubernetes refers to setting up a Kubernetes cluster from scratch on EC2 instances, as you're doing (1 control plane, 2 workers). You install and configure Kubernetes components (API server, kubelet, etc.) yourself.

Conveniences of EKS:

1. Managed Control Plane:

- Manual: You manage the single control plane node (e.g., installing kubeapiserver, etcd on your EC2 instance). If it fails, your app continues running (as discussed previously), but self-healing, scaling, or updates stop until you restore it. No high availability (HA) unless you manually set up multiple control plane nodes.
- **EKS**: AWS runs the control plane across multiple AZs for HA. If one AZ fails, the cluster remains operational. No manual setup or maintenance (e.g., no journalctl -u kube-apiserver debugging).

2. Upgrades and Patching:

- Manual: You manually upgrade Kubernetes versions (e.g., from 1.28 to 1.29), which involves updating control plane and worker node software, risking downtime if misconfigured.
- **EKS**: AWS manages control plane upgrades. You initiate upgrades via AWS CLI/console, and AWS ensures minimal disruption. Worker node upgrades are still your responsibility but guided by EKS tools.

3. Security and Compliance:

- Manual: You configure IAM, RBAC, network policies, and security patches yourself. Errors can expose vulnerabilities (e.g., open API server ports).
- **EKS**: Integrates with AWS IAM for authentication, supports private endpoints, and auto-applies security patches to the control plane. Easier to meet compliance (e.g., SOC, PCI).

4. Integration with AWS:

- Manual: You manually configure AWS integrations (e.g., ELB for LoadBalancer Services, CloudWatch for logs). Your nginx-demo LoadBalancer Service might require extra setup for ELB provisioning.
- EKS: Native integration with AWS services. Your LoadBalancer Service automatically creates an ELB, IAM roles control access, and CloudWatch collects metrics/logs effortlessly.

5. Setup Time:

- Manual: Setting up Kubernetes (installing kubeadm, configuring CNI like Calico) takes hours/days and expertise.
- EKS: Create a cluster in minutes via AWS CLI/console. Worker nodes join via provided configs.

6. Cost:

- Manual: Only EC2 costs, but you pay for control plane instances (your 1 node) and spend time on maintenance.
- **EKS**: ~\$0.10/hour (~\$73/month) for the control plane, plus EC2 costs. Saves time but adds a fixed fee.

Example Impact for Your App:

 With manual Kubernetes, if your control plane EC2 instance crashes, your nginxdemo Pods keep running, but you can't scale or update until you restore it. EKS ensures the control plane is always up, so your app's Deployment and Service remain responsive to changes.

(ii) EKS vs. KOps

KOps (Kubernetes Operations) is a tool to automate Kubernetes cluster setup and management on AWS, creating a cluster similar to your manual setup but with scripted automation. It provisions EC2 instances for both control plane and workers, configures Kubernetes, and supports HA.

Conveniences of EKS:

1. Control Plane Management:

 KOps: Creates EC2 instances for the control plane (e.g., 3 for HA) and manages them via Auto Scaling Groups. You're still responsible for OS patches, disk

- space, and monitoring these instances.
- **EKS**: AWS fully manages the control plane—no EC2 instances for you to maintain. HA is built-in across AZs, with no manual intervention.

2. Upgrades:

- KOps: Automates upgrades (e.g., kops upgrade cluster), but you run the commands and handle potential issues (e.g., etcd backups, node draining). Still requires Kubernetes expertise.
- EKS: AWS handles control plane upgrades with a simple CLI/console command (aws eks update-cluster-version). Worker upgrades are manual but streamlined with EKS-managed node groups.

3. Operational Overhead:

- KOps: You manage the entire cluster lifecycle (provisioning, scaling, DNS via Route 53). For your nginx-demo, you'd configure ELB integration and monitor control plane health.
- EKS: Offloads control plane tasks to AWS. ELB for your LoadBalancer Service is auto-provisioned, and AWS handles control plane monitoring/scaling.

4. AWS Integration:

- KOps: Good AWS integration (e.g., ELB, IAM), but you configure it via KOps manifests. Requires understanding AWS and Kubernetes interplay.
- **EKS**: Tighter integration (e.g., IAM authenticator, ALB Ingress Controller). Your nginx-demo Service works out-of-the-box with ELB.

5. Flexibility vs. Simplicity:

- KOps: Highly customizable (e.g., choose Kubernetes version, CNI, node sizes).
 Suits advanced users who want control over cluster setup.
- **EKS**: Less flexible (AWS controls some settings), but simpler for standard use cases. Ideal for teams focusing on apps, not cluster ops.

6. Cost:

• **KOps**: Only EC2 costs (e.g., 3 control plane + 2 worker nodes). Cheaper but requires management effort.

 EKS: Control plane fee (~\$73/month) plus EC2. Higher cost but lower operational burden.

Example Impact for Your App:

 With KOps, you'd script your cluster setup (similar to your manual setup but automated), but you still manage control plane EC2 instances. EKS frees you from this, letting you focus on deploying nginx-demo and its LoadBalancer Service, with AWS ensuring the ELB and control plane are reliable.

Commands to Set Up EKS and Map Your App

To illustrate EKS convenience, here's how you'd set up an EKS cluster and deploy your nginx-demo Deployment and LoadBalancer Service (same YAMLs as before).

1. Create EKS Cluster (simplified; requires AWS CLI and eksctl):

```
eksctl create cluster --name my-eks-cluster --region us-east-1 --
nodegroup-name workers --nodes 2 --node-type t3.medium
```

- What it does: Creates an EKS cluster with a managed control plane and 2 EC2 worker nodes (like your setup). Configures AWS VPC CNI and ELB integration.
- Output: Cluster ready in ~10-15 minutes.

2. Verify Cluster:

```
bash
kubectl get nodes
```

- Output: Lists 2 worker nodes (e.g., t3.medium instances).
- 3. Apply Deployment and Service (use same nginx-deployment.yaml and nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml from previous answers):

```
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
kubectl apply -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
```

4. Check Service:

```
bash
kubectl get services -n default
```

 Output: Shows nginx-demo-service with an ELB EXTERNAL-IP, autoprovisioned by EKS.

5. Test App:

```
bash
curl http://<EXTERNAL-IP>
```

• Output: Nginx welcome page.

6. Clean Up:

```
kubectl delete -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
kubectl delete -f nginx-deployment.yaml
eksctl delete cluster --name my-eks-cluster
```

Lucid Analogy

- Manual Kubernetes: You build and maintain the entire restaurant (kitchen, staff, plumbing). If the manager's office (control plane) burns down, you rebuild it yourself.
- **KOps**: You hire a contractor (KOps) to build the restaurant with a blueprint. You still maintain the manager's office (EC2 control plane nodes).
- EKS: You rent a fully managed restaurant chain (control plane) from AWS. You just hire chefs (worker nodes) and serve food (your app). If the office has issues, AWS fixes it.

Why EKS is Convenient

- **Vs. Manual**: No control plane setup/maintenance (your single EC2 control plane is a risk). EKS ensures HA and simplifies operations for your nginx-demo app.
- Vs. KOps: Less overhead (no EC2 control plane management), tighter AWS integration (e.g., ELB for your LoadBalancer Service), but slightly less flexible and costlier.

If you're considering EKS or have specific constraints (e.g., cost, custom CNI), let me know for tailored advice!

We can make EKS Cluster in -

- (i) CLI
- (ii) Terraform
- (iii) Ansible.

So, how are they different from each other, if they are forming the EKS cluster, and which is more convenient, explain with examples.

To address your question about creating an Amazon Elastic Kubernetes Service (EKS) cluster using CLI, Terraform, and Ansible, I'll explain how each method works, their differences, and which is more convenient for your scenario (running a Kubernetes cluster on AWS EC2, managing a Deployment like nginx-demo with a LoadBalancer Service). I'll provide clear examples for each approach, focusing on how they form the EKS cluster, their pros and cons, and why one might be preferred in a production context. Since you're familiar with Kubernetes concepts (Deployments, Services, ReplicaSets), I'll keep the explanation lucid and tie it to your existing setup, avoiding unnecessary jargon.

Overview of EKS Cluster Creation

An EKS cluster consists of a managed **control plane** (API server, etcd, etc., handled by AWS) and **worker nodes** (EC2 instances or Fargate, where your Pods run). You create the cluster by defining the control plane and node groups, then deploy your apps (e.g., nginx-demo Deployment and LoadBalancer Service). The three methods—CLI, Terraform, and Ansible—achieve this but differ in approach, automation, and management style.

(i) CLI (Using eksctl and AWS CLI)

The CLI approach uses eksctl (a command-line tool specifically for EKS) and the AWS CLI to create and manage EKS clusters interactively or via scripts. It's a direct, manual method where you issue commands to provision the cluster.

How it works:

- eksct1 simplifies EKS cluster creation by abstracting complex AWS API calls into high-level commands.
- You specify the cluster name, region, node count, and instance types, and
 eksctl creates the control plane, VPC, and worker nodes.
- AWS CLI can be used for finer control (e.g., IAM roles), but eksct1 handles most tasks.

• Process:

- 1. Install eksctl and AWS CLI, configure AWS credentials.
- 2. Run a command to create the cluster and node group.
- 3. Deploy your app (e.g., nginx-demo) using kubectl.

Example Commands:

```
bash
# Install eksctl and AWS CLI (if not already installed)
curl --silent --location
"https://github.com/weaveworks/eksctl/releases/latest/download/eksc
tl $(uname -s)_amd64.tar.gz" | tar xz -C /tmp
sudo mv /tmp/eksctl /usr/local/bin
aws configure # Set AWS access key, secret key, region (e.g., us-
east-1)
# Create EKS cluster with 2 worker nodes
eksctl create cluster \
  --name my-eks-cluster \
  --region us-east-1 \
  --nodegroup-name workers \
  --nodes 2 \
  --node-type t3.medium \
  --managed
```

```
# Verify cluster
kubectl get nodes
```

- Output: Cluster creation takes ~10-15 minutes. kubectl get nodes shows 2
 worker nodes (e.g., t3.medium EC2 instances).
- Deploy your nginx-demo (from previous YAMLs):

```
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
kubectl apply -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
kubectl get services -n default # Check EXTERNAL-IP for ELB
```

Pros:

- **Simple and Quick**: Single command creates everything (VPC, control plane, nodes).
- No Extra Tools: Only needs eksctl and AWS CLI, no coding required.
- Good for Testing: Ideal for quick setups or learning, like testing your nginxdemo app.

Cons:

- Manual: Commands are imperative (not declarative), so recreating or modifying the cluster requires re-running or adjusting commands.
- Limited Version Control: Hard to track infrastructure changes (no "source of truth" file).
- Error-Prone for Complex Setups: Scaling or customizing (e.g., multiple node groups, custom VPC) requires multiple commands, risking inconsistencies.
- Convenience: High for small teams or one-off clusters but less ideal for production due to lack of automation and reproducibility.

(ii) Terraform

Terraform is an **Infrastructure as Code (IaC)** tool that lets you define your EKS cluster in declarative configuration files (HCL format). You describe the desired state (control plane, node groups, VPC, etc.), and Terraform plans and applies changes to match it.

• How it works:

- You write Terraform files (.tf) specifying AWS resources (EKS cluster, node groups, IAM roles, etc.).
- Terraform communicates with AWS APIs to create/update resources.
- State is stored (e.g., in S3) to track infrastructure and enable updates.

• Process:

- 1. Write Terraform files for EKS cluster and node group.
- 2. Initialize and apply Terraform to create the cluster.
- 3. Use kubectl to deploy apps.

Example Terraform Files:

Create a directory (eks-terraform) and add these files:

main.tf:

```
hcl
provider "aws" {
 region = "us-east-1"
}
module "eks" {
  source = "terraform-aws-modules/eks/aws"
  version = "~> 19.0"
  cluster_name = "my-eks-cluster"
  cluster_version = "1.28"
  vpc_id = "<your-vpc-id>" # Replace with your VPC ID
  subnet_ids = ["<subnet-1>", "<subnet-2>"] # Replace with your
subnet IDs
  eks_managed_node_groups = {
    workers = {
     min_size = 2
     max_size = 2
     desired_size = 2
     instance_types = ["t3.medium"]
    }
  }
}
```

```
output "cluster_endpoint" {
  value = module.eks.cluster_endpoint
}
```

Apply:

```
# Install Terraform (if not installed)
curl -fsSL
https://releases.hashicorp.com/terraform/1.5.7/terraform_1.5.7_linu
x_amd64.zip -o terraform.zip
unzip terraform.zip && sudo mv terraform /usr/local/bin/
# Initialize and apply
cd eks-terraform
terraform init
terraform apply -auto-approve
```

- Output: Creates cluster (~15-20 minutes). Shows cluster_endpoint for kubectl.
- Configure kubectl:

```
aws eks update-kubeconfig --name my-eks-cluster --region us-east-kubectl get nodes # Shows 2 nodes
```

• Deploy nginx-demo:

```
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
kubectl apply -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
```

- Pros:
 - **Declarative**: Infrastructure is defined in code, versionable in Git, enabling reproducibility.

- State Management: Tracks changes (e.g., in S3), supports updates without manual intervention.
- Modular: Use community modules (e.g., terraform-aws-modules/eks) for best practices.
- Scalable: Easily extend for complex setups (e.g., multiple node groups, custom VPC).

Cons:

- Learning Curve: Requires learning HCL and Terraform workflows.
- **Setup Time**: Writing/validating Terraform files takes more upfront effort than CLI.
- Dependency Management: Must specify VPC/subnets, IAM roles, etc., correctly.
- Convenience: Ideal for production due to reproducibility and version control, but requires IaC expertise.

(iii) Ansible

Ansible is an automation tool that uses declarative playbooks (YAML) to configure and manage infrastructure, including creating EKS clusters by calling AWS APIs or running eksctl commands.

• How it works:

- You write Ansible playbooks to automate EKS cluster creation (e.g., via AWS CLI/eksctl or AWS SDK).
- Ansible runs tasks on your local machine or a control node to provision AWS resources.
- Less common for EKS creation than Terraform but useful for teams already using Ansible for other tasks.

• Process:

- 1. Write playbooks to create the EKS cluster and node group.
- 2. Run Ansible to execute the playbook.
- 3. Deploy apps with kubect1.

• Example Ansible Playbook:

Create eks-playbook.yml:

```
yaml
- name: Create EKS Cluster
 hosts: localhost
 tasks:
    - name: Create EKS cluster with eksctl
      command: >
        eksctl create cluster
        --name my-eks-cluster
        --region us-east-1
        --nodegroup-name workers
        --nodes 2
        --node-type t3.medium
        --managed
      environment:
        AWS_ACCESS_KEY_ID: "{{ lookup('env', 'AWS_ACCESS_KEY_ID')
}}"
        AWS_SECRET_ACCESS_KEY: "{{ lookup('env',
'AWS_SECRET_ACCESS_KEY') }}"
```

Apply:

```
# Install Ansible (if not installed)
sudo apt-get install ansible # Or equivalent for your OS

# Run playbook
ansible-playbook eks-playbook.yml
```

• Output: Runs eksctl to create the cluster (~15 minutes). Then:

```
aws eks update-kubeconfig --name my-eks-cluster --region us-east-kubectl get nodes
kubectl apply -f nginx-deployment.yaml
kubectl apply -f nginx-loadbalancer-service.yaml
```

• Pros:

- Familiar for Ansible Users: Integrates with existing Ansible workflows (e.g., for app deployment, node configuration).
- Flexible: Can mix EKS creation with other tasks (e.g., install monitoring tools).
- Declarative: Playbooks are versionable, like Terraform.

Cons:

- Less Native for AWS: Ansible isn't optimized for AWS infrastructure compared to Terraform. Often wraps eksctl or AWS CLI, adding complexity.
- **Maintenance**: Playbooks need updating for AWS API changes, less community support for EKS than Terraform.
- Complexity: Requires Ansible setup (control node, inventory), less streamlined than eksctl.
- Convenience: Less convenient for EKS unless you're heavily invested in Ansible for other tasks.

Differences Between CLI, Terraform, and Ansible

Aspect	CLI (eksctl)	Terraform	Ansible
Approach	Imperative commands	Declarative IaC (HCL files)	Declarative automation (YAML playbooks)
Ease of Use	Simplest; single command	Requires HCL knowledge, more setup	Requires Ansible knowledge, less AWS- native
Reproducibility	Manual, no state tracking	State file (S3), versionable	Playbooks versionable, no native state
AWS Integration	Native via eksct1, AWS CLI	Strong via AWS provider/modules	Wraps CLI or SDK, less direct
Scalability	Hard to manage complex setups	Scales well for complex infrastructure	Scales but less optimized for AWS
Community Support	Good for basic clusters	Excellent (Terraform AWS EKS module)	Limited for EKS creation

Aspect	CLI (eksctl)	Terraform	Ansible
Use Case	Quick tests, small	Production, multi-	Ansible-heavy teams,
	teams	environment	mixed automation

Which is More Convenient?

Terraform is the most convenient for production EKS clusters, especially for your scenario (managing nginx-demo with a LoadBalancer Service). Here's why:

Why Terraform:

- **Reproducibility**: Terraform files are a single source of truth, versionable in Git, ideal for production to ensure consistent cluster setups across environments (e.g., dev, prod).
- **State Management**: Tracks infrastructure state, making updates (e.g., adding node groups) safe and predictable.
- Community Support: The terraform-aws-modules/eks module is widely used,
 battle-tested, and simplifies EKS setup with best practices.
- **Scalability**: Easily handles complex setups (e.g., custom VPC, multiple node groups) for your nginx-demo app's growth.
- AWS Integration: Native AWS provider ensures seamless ELB provisioning for your LoadBalancer Service, IAM roles, and CloudWatch.

CLI (eksctl):

- Convenient for quick prototyping or learning (e.g., spinning up a test cluster for nginx-demo).
- Less suitable for production due to lack of state tracking and manual command repetition.
- Example: If you recreate your cluster, you must rerun commands or script them, risking errors.

Ansible:

 Convenient only if your team already uses Ansible for other tasks (e.g., configuring worker nodes, deploying apps).

- Less efficient for EKS creation, as it often wraps eksctl or AWS CLI, adding overhead without Terraform's infrastructure focus.
- Example: Managing your cluster and app deployment in one playbook is possible but less streamlined than Terraform.

For Your Setup:

- Your current manual Kubernetes setup (1 control plane, 2 workers) is like a custom-built cluster. EKS with Terraform would simplify control plane management (no single point of failure) and make your nginx-demo LoadBalancer Service easier to manage (auto-provisioned ELB).
- Terraform's declarative nature aligns with production needs for reliability and repeatability, especially if you scale or add features (e.g., Ingress for HTTPS).

Lucid Analogy

- **CLI (eksctl)**: Like ordering a pre-built house (EKS cluster) by calling a contractor. Quick, but you must call again for changes, and there's no blueprint to reuse.
- Terraform: Like designing a house with architectural plans (HCL files). You can rebuild or modify it exactly the same way, and the plans are saved for teams to collaborate.
- Ansible: Like hiring a general contractor to build the house by following a checklist (playbooks). Works but isn't specialized for house-building (AWS infrastructure) like Terraform.

Recommendation

Use **Terraform** for your EKS cluster in production to ensure a robust, reproducible setup for your nginx-demo app. Use **CLI (eksctl)** for quick tests or learning. Reserve **Ansible** for teams already using it extensively. If you need a full Terraform/Ansible setup or help with AWS specifics (e.g., VPC setup), let me know!