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Chapter 3

Building an application stack with Terraform

In the last chapter we installed Terraform and got a crash course in the basics of creating, managing, and destroying infrastructure. We learned about Terraform configuration files and the basics of Terraform syntax.

In this chapter we’re going to build a more complex infrastructure: a multi-tier web application. We’re going to use this exercise to learn more about Terraform configuration syntax and structure.

Our application stack

We’re going to build a two-tier web application stack. We’re going to build this stack in Amazon Web Services (AWS) in an Amazon VPC environment. We’ll create that VPC and the supporting infrastructure as well as the stack itself. The stack will be made up of two components:

- An Amazon Elastic Load Balancer (ELB).
- Two EC2 instances.
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The ELB will be load balancing between our two EC2 instances.

![Diagram of web application stack](image)

**Figure 3.1: Our web application stack**

Before we build the stack, we’re going to learn about a new concept: parameterizing your configuration.

⚠️ **WARNING** If you’re following along with this and subsequent chapters, note that we will be creating infrastructure in AWS that will cost small amounts of money to run. We recommend monitoring the infrastructure you’re launching in your AWS console and destroying or terminating infrastructure when it is no longer needed.
Parameterizing our configuration

In the previous chapter we created some configuration in our `~/terraform/base/base.tf` configuration file.

Listing 3.1: Our original configuration

```hcl
provider "aws" {
  access_key = "abc123"
  secret_key = "abc123"
  region     = "us-east-1"
}

resource "aws_instance" "base" {
  ami       = "ami-0d729a60"
  instance_type = "t2.micro"
}

resource "aws_eip" "base" {
  instance = "${aws_instance.base.id}"
  vpc      = true
}
```

You can see we’ve hard-coded several attributes in this configuration: the AWS credentials, the AMI, the instance type, and whether our Elastic IP is in a VPC. If we were to expand upon this configuration, we’d end up repeating a number of these values. This is not very DRY. DRY is an abbreviation for “Don’t Repeat Yourself,” a software principle that recommends reducing the repetition of information. It’s also not very practical or efficient if we have to change these values in multiple places.

⚠️ Tip A little later, in the Using AWS shared credentials section, we’ll talk...
more about AWS credentials and how to better protect them.

Variables

In order to address this we’re going to parameterize our configuration using variables. Variables allow us to centralize and manage values in our configuration. Let’s use the configuration from Chapter 2 to learn more about variables.

We start by creating a file, called variables.tf, to hold our variables. We create the file in the ~/terraform/base directory.

```
Listing 3.2: Creating the variables.tf file

$ cd ~/terraform/base
$ touch variables.tf
```

💡 TIP The file can be called anything. We’ve just named it variables.tf for convenience and identification. Remember all files that end in .tf will be loaded by Terraform.

Let’s create a few variables in this file now. Variables can come in a number of types:

- Strings — String syntax. Can also be Boolean’s: true or false.
- Maps — An associative array or hash-style syntax.
- Lists — An array syntax.
Let’s take a look at some string variables first.

### Listing 3.3: Our first variables

```hcl
variable "access_key" {
  description = "The AWS access key."
}

variable "secret_key" {
  description = "The AWS secret key."
}

variable "region" {
  description = "The AWS region."
  default    = "us-east-1"
}
```

Terraform variables are created with a `variable` block. They have a name and an optional type, default, and description.

Our first two variables are the `access_key` and `secret_key` we need for our `aws` provider. We’ve only set a `description` for these variables. The value of these variables is currently undefined. The third variable is the `region`. This variable has a default value set with the `default` attribute.

You can also specify a variable type, either `string`, `map`, or `list`.

### Listing 3.4: Variable type specified

```hcl
variable "region" {
  type = "string"
  description = "The AWS region."
  default    = "us-east-1"
}
```
If you omit the `type` attribute then Terraform assumes your variable is a string, unless the `default` is in the format of another variable type. Here Terraform would assume the first variable is a string but that the second is a list.

```
Listing 3.5: Variable type specified

variable "region" {
  description = "The AWS region."
  default = "us-east-1"
}

variable "region_list" {
  description = "AWS availability zones."
  default = ["us-east-1a", "us-east-1b"]
}
```

You can supply an optional description of the variable using the `description` attribute.

```
Listing 3.6: Variable descriptions

variable "region" {
  description = "The AWS region."
  default = "us-east-1"
}
```

> **TIP** We recommend you always add variable descriptions. You never know who’ll be using your code, and it’ll make their (and your) life a lot easier if every variable has a clear description. Comments are fun too.
Let’s update our `provider` with the new variables we’ve just created.

### Listing 3.7: Adding our new variables

```hcl
provider "aws" {
  access_key = "${var.access_key}"
  secret_key = "${var.secret_key}"
  region = "${var.region}"
}
```

We’ve specified Terraform’s interpolation syntax: `${ }`. Inside that syntax we’ve specified our three variables. Each variable is identified as a variable by the `var.` prefix. Currently only one of these variables has a value, the default of `us-east-1` we’ve set for the `var.region` variable. Soon we’ll see how to populate values for the other variables.

- **TIP** Since Terraform 0.8 there is a command called `terraform console`. The console is a Terraform REPL that allows you to work with interpolations and other logic. It’s a good way to explore working with Terraform syntax. You can read about it in the `console command documentation`.

---

### Maps

Most of our variable examples have, thus far, been strings. We can also specify two other types of variables: maps and lists. Let’s look at maps first.

Maps are associative arrays and ideal for situations where you want to use one value to look up another value. For example, one of our potential configuration attributes is the EC2 instance's AMI. AMIs are region specific, so if we change
region we will need to look up a new AMI. Terraform’s maps are ideal for this task.

Let’s define a map in our variables.tf file.

```
Listing 3.8: A map variable

variable "ami" {
  type = "map"
  default = {
    us-east-1 = "ami-0d729a60"
    us-west-1 = "ami-7c4b331c"
  }
  description = "The AMIs to use."
}
```

We can see our new variable is called `ami`. We’ve specified a `type` of `map` and default values for two keys: the `us-east-1` and `us-west-1` regions.

**NOTE** We don’t need to specify the variable `type` if the variable’s `default` is in the form of a map. In that case Terraform will automatically assume you’ve defined a map.

So how do we use this map variable? Let’s update `base.tf` with the `ami` variable.
Listing 3.9: Using map variables in base.tf

```terraform
provider "aws" {
  access_key = "${var.access_key}"
  secret_key = "${var.secret_key}"
  region    = "${var.region}" 
}

resource "aws_instance" "base" {
  ami      = "${lookup(var.ami, var.region)}"
  instance_type = "t2.micro"
}

resource "aws_eip" "base" {
  instance = "${aws_instance.base.id}"
  vpc      = true
}
```

You can see we’ve specified an interpolated value for the `ami` attribute. Inside that interpolation we’ve added something new: a function. Terraform has a set of built-in functions to make it easier to work with variables and values.

**NOTE** You can find a full list of functions in the Terraform documentation.

In this case we’re using a function called `lookup`, which performs a key lookup on a specific map like so:

```
${lookup(map, key)}
```

In our earlier example, we’re using another variable we defined, `var.region`, to perform a lookup of the `var.ami` variable. So if our `var.region` variable was set...
to `us-west-1`, then our `ami` attribute would receive a value of `ami-7c4b331c`.

You can also look up maps explicitly—for example, `var.ami["us-west-1"]` will get the value of the `us-west-1` key from the `ami` map variable. Or you can even nest interpolations to look up a variable, like so:

$$\{\text{var.ami[\text{var.region}]}\}$$

You’ll see that the second variable is not wrapped in `{$ }` but specified bare. The interpolation syntax recognizes it is a variable and interpolates it too.

### Lists

The last type of variable available in Terraform is the list. Let’s assume we have a list of security groups we’d like to add to our instances. Our list would be constructed like so:

```hcl
Listing 3.10: Constructing a list

    variable "security_group_ids" {
      type     = "list"
      description = "List of security group IDs."
      default = ["sg-4f713c35", "sg-4f713c35", "sg-4f713c35"]
    }
```

A list is wrapped in `[ ]` when it is defined and when it is used in your configuration. We can drop the `type` if the `default` is a list. We can specify a list directly as the value of a variety of attributes, for example:
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Listing 3.11: Using a list

```terraform
resource "aws_instance" "base" {
    ... 
    vpc_security_group_ids = ["${var.security_group_ids}"
}
```

**NOTE** You’ll need to create some security groups if you want to test this and use the resulting IDs in your list.

Lists are zero-indexed. We can retrieve a single element of a list using the syntax: 

```
${var.variable[element]}
```

Like so:

Listing 3.12: Retrieving a list element

```terraform
resource "aws_instance" "base" {
    ... 
    vpc_security_group_ids = "${var.security_group_ids[1]}"
}
```

**NOTE** You can also use the `element` function to retrieve a value from a
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This will populate the `vpc_security_group_ids` attribute with the second element in our `var.security_group_ids` variable.

**Variable defaults**

Variables with and without defaults behave differently. A defined, but empty, variable is a required value for an execution plan.

```hcl
Listing 3.13: An empty variable
variable "access_key" {
  description = "The AWS access key."
}
```

If you run a Terraform execution plan then it will prompt you for the value of `access_key` (and any other empty variables).

Let’s try that now.

```bash
Listing 3.14: Empty and default variables
$ terraform plan
var.access_key
  Enter a value: abc123

var.secret_key
  Enter a value: abc123

  ...
```

*Version: v1.4.7 (ad2b141)*
We can see that Terraform has prompted us to provide values for two variables: `var.access_key` and `var.secret_key`. Again, the `var` prefix indicates this is a variable, and the suffix is the variable name. Setting the variables for the plan will not persist them. If you re-run `terraform plan`, you'll again be prompted to set values for these values.

So how does Terraform populate and persist variables?

**Populating variables**

Of course, inputting the variable values every time you plan or apply Terraform configuration is not practical. To address this, Terraform has a variety of methods by which you can populate variables. Those ways, in order of descending resolution, are:

1. Loading variables from command line flags.
2. Loading variables from a file.
3. Loading variables from environment variables.
4. Variable defaults.

**Loading variables from command line flags**

The first method allows you to pass in variable values when you run `terraform` commands.

```
Listing 3.15: Command line variables

$ terraform plan -var 'access_key=abc123' -var 'secret_key=abc123'
```

We can also populate maps via the `-var` command line flag:
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Listing 3.16: Setting a map with var

```
$ terraform plan -var 'ami={ us-east-1 = "ami-0d729a60", us-west-1 = "ami-7c4b331c" }'
```

And lists via the command line:

Listing 3.17: Populating a list via command line flag

```
$ terraform plan -var 'security_group_ids=["sg-4f713c35", "sg-4f713c35", "sg-4f713c35"]'
```

You can pass these variables on both the plan and apply commands. Obviously, like the input prompt, this does not persist the values of variables. Next time you run Terraform, you’ll again need to specify these variables values.

**Loading variables from a file**

Our next method, populating variable values via files, does allow persistence. When Terraform runs it will look for a file called `terraform.tfvars`. We can populate this file with variable values that will be loaded when Terraform runs.

Let’s create that file now.

Listing 3.18: Creating a variable assignment file

```
$ touch terraform.tfvars
```
We can then populate this file with variables—here a string, map, and list respectively.

```terraform
Listing 3.19: Adding variable assignments

access_key = "abc123"
secret_key = "abc123"
ami = {
    us-east-1 = "ami-0d729a60"
    us-west-1 = "ami-7c4b331c"
}
security_group_ids = [
    "sg-4f713c35",
    "sg-4f713c35",
    "sg-4f713c35"
]
```

When Terraform runs it will automatically load the `terraform.tfvars` file and assign any variable values in it. The file can contain Terraform configuration syntax or JSON, just like normal Terraform configuration files.

Any variable for which you define a value needs to exist. In our case, the variables `access_key`, `secret_key`, and `security_group_ids` need to be defined with `variable` blocks in our `variables.tf` file. If they do not exist you’ll get an error like so:

```terraform
Listing 3.20: Variable doesn't exist error

module root: 1 error(s) occurred:

* provider config 'aws': unknown variable referenced: 'access_key'. define it with 'variable' blocks
```

You can also name the `terraform.tfvars` file something else—for example, we
could have a variable file named `base.tfvars`. If you do specify a new file name, you will need to tell Terraform where the file is with the `-var-file` command line flag.

```
Listing 3.21: Running Terraform with a custom variable file

$ terraform plan -var-file base.tfvars
```

💡 **TIP** You can use more than one `-var-file` flag to specify more than one file. If you specify more than one file, the files are evaluated from first to last, in the order specified on the command line. If a variable value is specified multiple times, the last value defined is used.

---

**Loading variables from environment variables**

Terraform will also parse any environment variables that are prefixed with `TF_VAR`. For example, if Terraform finds an environment variable named:

```
TF_VAR_access_code=abc123
```

it will use the value of the environment variable as the string value of the `access_code` variable.

We can populate a map via an environment variable:

```
TF_VAR_ami='{us-east-1 = "ami-0d729a60", us-west-1 = "ami-7c4b331c"}'
```

and a list.

```
TF_VAR_roles='["sg-4f713c35", "sg-4f713c35", "sg-4f713c35"]'
```
TIP Variable files and environment variables are a good way of protecting passwords and secrets. This avoids storing them in our configuration files, where they might end up in version control. A better way is obviously some sort of secrets store. Since Terraform 0.8 there is now support for integration with Vault for secrets management.

Variable defaults

Lastly, you can specify variable defaults for your variables.

```
Listing 3.22: Variable defaults

variable "region" {
  description = "The AWS region."
  default = "us-east-1"
}
```

Variable defaults are specified with the default attribute. If nothing in the above list of variable population methods resolves the variable then Terraform will use the default.

TIP Terraform also has an “override” file construct. When Terraform loads configuration files it appends them. With an override the files are instead merged. This allows you to override resources and variables.

Our new variables are useful syntax. Let’s start our build using some of this new
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Starting our stack

Now that we’ve learned how to parameterize our configuration, let’s get started with building a new application stack. Inside our `~/terraform` directory let’s create a new directory called `web` to hold our stack configuration, and let’s initialize it as a Git repository.

```
Listing 3.23: Creating the web directory

$ cd ~/terraform
$ mkdir web
$ cd web
$ git init
```

Let’s add our `.gitignore` file too. We’ll exclude any state files to ensure we don’t commit any potentially sensitive variable values.

```
Listing 3.24: Adding the state file and backup to .gitignore

$ echo "terraform.tfstate*" >> .gitignore
$ git add .gitignore
$ git commit -m "Adding .gitignore file"
```

It’s important to note that this is a new configuration. Terraform configurations in individual directories are isolated. Our new configuration in the `web` directory will, by default, not be able to refer to, or indeed know about, any of the configuration in the `base` directory. We’ll see how to deal with this in Chapter 5, when we talk more about state.
Let's create a new file to hold our stack configuration, a file to define our variables, and a file to populate our variables.

```
Listing 3.25: Creating the stack files

$ touch web.tf variables.tf terraform.tfvars
```

Let's begin by populating our `variables.tf` file.
Note that we’ve used variables similar to our example in Chapter 2. We’ve also added a few new variables, including the name of a key pair we’re going to use for our instances, and a map that will specify the AMI we wish to use.

TIP You should have created a key pair when you set up AWS.

Let’s populate some of these variables by adding definitions to our terraform.tfvars file.

Version: v1.4.7 (ad2b141)
You can see we’ve provided values for our AWS credentials, the region, and a map of AMIs for the `us-east-1` and `us-west-1` regions.

### Using AWS shared credentials

We mentioned earlier that we don’t have to specify our credentials in the `terraform.tfvars` file. Indeed, it’s often a very poor security model to specify these credentials in a file that could easily be accidentally distributed or added to version control. Instead of specifying the credentials in your configuration, you should configure the AWS client tools. These provide a shared credential configuration that Terraform can consume, removing the need to specify credentials.

To install the AWS client tools on Linux, we’d use Python `pip`:

```bash
$ sudo pip install awscli
```

On OS X we can use `pip` or `brew` to install the AWS CLI:
On Windows, we’d use the MSI installer from AWS, or if you’ve used the Chocolatey package manager, we’d install via the choco binary:

Listing 3.30: Installing awscli via choco

C:\> choco install awscli

We then run the aws binary with the configure option.

Listing 3.31: Running aws configure

$ aws configure
AWS Access Key ID [None]: abc123
AWS Secret Access Key [None]: abc123
Default region name [None]: us-east-1
Default output format [None]:

You would replace each abc123 with your AWS credentials and specify your preferred default region. This will create a file in ~/.aws/credentials with your credentials that will look like:

---

Version: v1.4.7 (ad2b141)
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listing 3.32: The aws/credentials file</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[default]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aws_access_key_id = abc123</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aws_secret_access_key = abc123</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

And a file called ~/.aws/config, with our default region:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Listing 3.33: The aws/config file</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[default]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>region = us-east-1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TIP** Due to a bug with Terraform, you will still need to specify `region = us-east-1` (or your region) in your Terraform configurations. This is because Terraform does not seem to read the `config` file in some circumstances.

Now we can remove the `var.access_key` and `var.secret_key` variables from our `variables.tf` and `terraform.tfvars` files if we wish.

For the rest of the book we’ll assume you have configured shared credentials, and we’ll remove references to the access and secret keys!

For the other variables in our `variables.tf` file, we’re going to rely on their defaults.

**TIP** We could also use the `AWS_ACCESS_KEY_ID` and `AWS_SECRET_ACCESS_KEY`
environment variables to specify our credentials. Terraform also automatically consumes these variables. If you're on OS X, you should also look at envchain, which uses the OS X Keychain to help manage environment variables.

**First resources**

Now that we’ve got the inputs for our stack defined, let’s start to create our resources and their configuration in the `web.tf` file.
Listing 3.34: Our web.tf file

```hcl
provider "aws" {
  region = "${var.region}"
}

module "vpc" {
  source = "./vpc"
  name   = "web"
  cidr   = "10.0.0.0/16"
  public_subnet = "10.0.1.0/24"
}

resource "aws_instance" "web" {
  ami             = "${lookup(var.ami, var.region)}"
  instance_type   = "${var.instance_type}"
  key_name        = "${var.key_name}"
  subnet_id       = "${module.vpc.public_subnet_id}"
  associate_public_ip_address = true
  user_data       = "${file("files/web_bootstrap.sh")}"
}

  vpc_security_group_ids = [
    "${aws_security_group.web_host_sg.id}",
  ]

  count = 2
}

resource "aws_elb" "web" {
  name = "web-elb"
  subnets = ["${module.vpc.public_subnet_id}" ]
  security_groups = ["${aws_security_group.web_inbound_sg.id}" ]
  listener {
    instance_port = 80
    ...
  }
  instances = ["${aws_instance.web.*.id}" ]
}

resource "aws_security_group" "web_inbound_sg" {

```

Version: v1.4.7 (ad2b141)

TIP  You’ll find code you can download and use for this example on GitHub.

You can see we’ve first added the `aws provider` to allow us to provision our resources from AWS. We’ve omitted the access and secret access keys from our provider because we’ve assumed we’re using our AWS shared configuration to provide them. The only option we have specified for the provider is the `region`.

As we discussed in Chapter 2, you can define multiple providers, both for different services and for different configurations of service. A common Terraform pattern is to define multiple providers aliased for specific attributes—for example, being able to create resources in different AWS regions. Here’s an example:

```
Listing 3.35: Multiple providers

provider "aws" {
    region = "${var.region}"
}

provider "aws" {
    alias = "west"
    region = "us-west-2"
}

resource "aws_instance" "web" {
    provider = "aws.west"
    ...}
```

We’ve defined an `aws provider` that uses our `var.region` variable to define the AWS region to which we’ll connect. We’ve then defined a second `aws provider` with an `alias` attribute of `west` and the `region` hard-coded to `us-west-2`.
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We can now refer to this specific provider by using the `provider` attribute. The `provider` is a special type of attribute called a meta-parameter. Meta-parameters are attributes you can add to any resources in Terraform. Terraform has a number of meta-parameters available, and we’ll see others later in the book.

💡 **TIP** The `depends_on` attribute we mentioned in the last chapter is also a meta-parameter.

We’re going to stick with our single `aws` provider for now and use a single AWS region.

You can also see that we’ve added some new configuration syntax and structures to our `web.tf` file. Let’s look at each of these now, starting with the module structure.

**Modules**

Modules are defined with the `module` block. Modules are a way of constructing reusable bundles of resources. They allow you to organize collections of Terraform code that you can share across configurations.

Often you have a configuration construct such as infrastructure like an AWS VPC, an application stack, or other collection of resources that you need to repeat multiple times in your configurations. Rather than cutting and pasting and repeating all the resources required to configure that infrastructure, you can bundle them into a module. You can then reuse that module in your configurations.

You can configure inputs and outputs for modules: an API interface to your modules. This allows you to customize them for specific requirements, while your code remains as DRY and reusable as possible.
Hashicorp makes available a collection of verified and community modules in the Terraform Module Registry. These include modules for a large number of purposes and are a good point to start if you need a module. You can learn more about the Terraform Module Registry in the documentation.

Defining a module

To Terraform, every directory containing configuration is automatically a module. Using modules just means referencing that configuration explicitly. References to modules are created with the `module` block.

```
Listing 3.36: The vpc module

module "vpc" {
  source = "./vpc"
  name   = "web"
  cidr   = "10.0.0.0/16"
  public_subnet = "10.0.1.0/24"
}
```

As you can see, modules look just like resources only without a type. Each module requires a name. The module name must be unique in the configuration.

Modules only have one required attribute: the module’s `source`. The `source` tells Terraform where to find the module’s source code. You can store modules locally in your filesystem or remotely in repositories such as GitHub. In our case the `vpc` module is located in a directory called `vpc` inside our `~/terraform/web` directory.

You can specify a module multiple times in a configuration by giving it a new name but specifying the same source. For example:
Listing 3.37: Multiple vpc modules

```hcl
module "vpca" {
    source = "./vpc"
    ...
}

module "vpcb" {
    source = "./vpc"
    ...
}
```

Here Terraform would create two VPCs, one from `vpca` and the other from `vpcb`. We would configure each differently.

Let’s create the `vpc` directory first and initialize it as a Git repository, because ultimately we want to store our module on GitHub.

Listing 3.38: Creating the vpc module directory

```bash
$ pwd
~/terraform/web
$ mkdir vpc
$ cd vpc
$ git init
```

Inside our `source` attribute we specify the `vpc` directory relative to the `~/terraform/web` directory. Remember Terraform uses the current directory it's in when executed as its root directory. To ensure Terraform finds our module we need to specify the `vpc` directory relative to the current directory.
This path manipulation in Terraform is often tricky. To help with this, Terraform provides a built-in variable called `path`. You can read about how to use the `path` variable in the interpolation path variable documentation.

Instead of storing them locally, you can also specify remote locations for your modules. For example:

```hcl
module "vpc" {
  source = "github.com/turnbullpress/tf_vpc"
  ...
}
```

This will load our module from a GitHub repository:

https://github.com/turnbullpress/tf_vpc

This allows us to reference module configurations without needing to store them in directories underneath or adjacent to our configuration.

This also allows us to create versioning for modules. Terraform can refer to a specific repository branch or tag as the source of a module. For example,

```hcl
module "vpc" {
  source = "git::https://github.com/turnbullpress/tf_vpc.git?ref=production"
}
```

The `git::` prefix tells Terraform that the `source` is a Git repository. The `ref=`
suffix can be a branch name, a tag, or a commit. Here we’re downloading the production branch of the module in the tf_vpc repository.

Or if you want to get a module specifically from the Terraform Registry then you can use syntax like so:

```
Listing 3.41: Referencing a registry module

module "vpc" {
  source = "terraform-aws-modules/vpc/aws"
}
```

The source path format for Terraform Registry modules looks like this:

namespace/name/provider

The namespace is like an organization or source of the module. The name is the module’s name and the provider is the specific provider it uses. The module’s homepage will contain full documentation on how to use it, including any required inputs and any outputs.

**NOTE** Modules with a blue tick on the Terraform Registry are verified and from a Hashicorp partner. These modules should be more resilient and tested than others. You can also publish your own modules on the Registry.

Terraform Registry modules can also be versioned and you can use a specific version of a module like so:
Listing 3.42: Referencing a registry module's version

```hcl
module "vpc" {
  source = "terraform-aws-modules/vpc/aws"
  version = "1.3.0"
}
```

💡 TIP

You can find a full list of the potential sources and how to configure them in the module source documentation.

Module structure

Inside our vpc directory our module is identical to any other Terraform configuration. It will have variables, variable definitions, and resources.

Variables

Let’s start with creating a file to hold the module’s variables. We’ll use a file called interface.tf.

💡 TIP The explicit file name makes it clear that this is the module’s API, the interface to the module.
We populate this file with the variables we’ll use to configure the VPC that the module is going to build.

You can see that we’ve defined a number of variables. Some of the variables will be required: `name`, `cidr`, and `public_subnet`. These variables currently have no defaults, so we must specify a value for each of them. We’ve specified the values in the `module` block in our `web.tf` file. This represents the incoming API for the
The vpc module's default variables

```hcl
module "vpc" {
  source = ".:/vpc"
  name   = "web"
  cidr   = "10.0.0.0/16"
  public_subnet = "10.0.1.0/24"
}
```

If we do not specify a required variable, then Terraform will fail with an error:

```
Error loading Terraform: module root: module vpc: required variable cidr not set
```

**NOTE** So what's `module root`? Well, remember that modules are just folders containing files. Terraform considers every folder of configuration files a module. Terraform has created an implicit module, called the **root** module, from the stack configuration contained in the `terraform/web` directory.

We also have several variables with defaults that we can override when configuring our module.
Listing 3.46: Overriding vpc module's default variables

```terraform
module "vpc" {
    source = "./vpc"
    ...
    enable_dns_hostnames = false
}
```

This will override the default value of the `enable_dns_hostnames` variable and set it to `false`.

**Module resources**

Now let’s add the resources to configure our VPC. We’ll create a configuration file called `main.tf` to hold the resources and then populate it.
Listing 3.47: The vpc module resources

```hcl
resource "aws_vpc" "tfb" {
  cidr_block = "${var.cidr}"
  enable_dns_hostnames = "${var.enable_dns_hostnames}"
  enable_dns_support = "${var.enable_dns_support}"
  tags {
    Name = "${var.name}"
  }
}

resource "aws_internet_gateway" "tfb" {
  vpc_id = "${aws_vpc.tfb.id}"
  tags {
    Name = "${var.name}-igw"
  }
}

resource "aws_route" "internet_access" {
  route_table_id = "${aws_vpc.tfb.main_route_table_id}"
  destination_cidr_block = "0.0.0.0/0"
  gateway_id = "${aws_internet_gateway.tfb.id}"
}

resource "aws_subnet" "public" {
  vpc_id = "${aws_vpc.tfb.id}"
  cidr_block = "${var.public_subnet}"
  tags {
    Name = "${var.name}-public"
  }
}
```

💡 TIP Our VPC module is very simple. It does not expose anywhere near the complexity of a complete VPC configuration. For a more fully featured module take a look at the Terraform Community VPC module.
You can see we’ve added a number of new resources but what you can’t see is an `aws` provider definition. This is because we don’t need one. The module will, by default, inherit the provider configuration from the `web.tf` file and use that to connect to AWS.

**Module provider inheritance**

However if you have multiple providers specified in the `web.tf` file, as we saw earlier using the `alias` attribute, then you must explicitly tell the module which provider to use!

💡 **TIP** This change occurred in Terraform 0.11 and later.

So if our `web.tf` file has defined two providers:

```terraform
Listing 3.48: Multiple aliased providers

provider "aws" {
  alias = "use1"
  region = "us-east-1"
}

provider "aws" {
  alias = "uws2"
  region = "us-west-2"
}
```

One aliased `use1` and one aliased `uws2` then you must explicitly tell the module...
which provider to use. We do this using the `providers` meta-parameter.

```
Listing 3.49: The vpc module’s default variables

module "vpc" {
  source = "./vpc"
  name   = "web"
  cidr   = "10.0.0.0/16"
  public_subnet = "10.0.1.0/24"
  providers = {
    "aws" = "aws.use1"
  }
}
```

Here we’ve specified a new attribute for our module: `providers`. The `providers` attribute contains a list of each of the providers our module uses and the alias name of the specific provider to use. So in this case for our `aws` provider the `vpc` module will use the `aws.use1` definition of the provider.

💡 **TIP** You can read more about module provider inheritance in the [modules documentation](#).

---

**Our module resources**

So back to our module’s resources. You can see that we’ve used a series of new AWS resource types: the VPC itself, gateways, routes, and subnets. Let’s look at the `aws_vpc resource` in more detail.
Listing 3.50: The `aws_vpc` resource

```hcl
resource "aws_vpc" "tfb" {
  cidr_block = "${var.cidr}"
  enable_dns_hostnames = "${var.enable_dns_hostnames}"
  enable_dns_support = "${var.enable_dns_support}"
  tags {
    Name = "${var.name}"
  }
}
```

We’ve called our VPC resource `aws_vpc.tfb`.1 Inside the resource, we’ve passed some of our variables in—for example, the `var.cidr` variable—to be interpolated and to configure the resource. We need to ensure each of these variables is defined and that they’re either populated in the `module` block or that a default exists in the module for them.

In the `main.tf` file we also configure a series of other resources using a mix of variables and resource references as the values of our attributes—for example, in the `aws_subnet` resource:

Listing 3.51: The `aws_subnet` resource

```hcl
resource "aws_subnet" "public" {
  vpc_id = "${aws_vpc.tfb.id}"
  cidr_block = "${var.public_subnet}"
  tags {
    Name = "${var.name}-public"
  }
}
```

Our resource is named `aws_subnet.public` and references attributes from earlier

---

1tfb for The Terraform Book
configured resources. For example, the `vpc_id` attribute is populated from the ID of the `aws_vpc.tf` resource we created earlier in the module.

```
${aws_vpc.tf.id}
```

Another interesting attribute is the `Name` tag we’ve created. Here we’ve used the interpolated `var.name` variable inside a string.

```
${var.name}-public
```

This will create a value that combines the value of the `var.name` variable with the string `-public`.

The combination of these resources will create an Amazon VPC with access to the Internet, internal routing, and a single public subnet, specified in **CIDR notation**.

**Outputs**

Lastly, we need to specify outputs from our module. This is essentially the API response from using the module. They can contain useful data like the IDs of resources created or other configuration that we might want to use outside of the module to configure other resources. To add these outputs we use a new construct called an `output`.

The `output construct` can be used in any Terraform configuration, not just in modules. It is a way to highlight specific information from the attributes of resources we’re creating. This allows us to selectively return critical information to the user or to another application rather than returning all the possible attributes of all resources and having to filter the information down.

Let’s add some outputs to the end of our `interface.tf` file.
Here one of our outputs is the VPC ID. We’ve called the output `vpc_id`. The output will return the `aws_vpc.tfb.id` attribute value from the `aws_vpc.tfb` resource we created inside the module.

You can see that, like a variable, an `output` is configured as a block with a name. Each `output` has a value, usually an interpolated attribute from a resource being configured.

**TIP** Since Terraform 0.8, you can also add a `description` attribute to your outputs, much like you can for your variables.

Outputs can also be marked as containing sensitive material by setting the `sensitive` attribute.
Listing 3.53: The vpc module outputs

```terraform
output "public_subnet_id" {
  value = "${aws_subnet.public.id}"
  sensitive = true
}
```

When outputs are displayed—for instance, at the end of the application of a plan—sensitive outputs are redacted, with `<sensitive>` displayed instead of their value.

NOTE This is purely a visual change. The outputs are not encrypted or protected.

We’ll see how to use these outputs inside our stack configuration shortly.

NOTE We recommend using a naming convention for Terraform files inside modules. This isn’t required but it makes code organization and comprehension easier. We use `interface.tf` for variables and outputs and `main.tf` for resources.

With that our module is complete. Now let’s see it at work.

**Using our module**

Back in our `web.tf` configuration file we’ve already defined our `module` block.
Inside the `module` block we’ve passed in all of our required variables and when Terraform runs it will:

1. Load the module code.
2. Pass in the variables.
3. Create all the resources in the module.
4. Return the outputs.

Let’s see how we can use those outputs in our stack’s configuration.

We have the `aws_elb.web` or AWS Elastic Load Balancer resource. To configure it we need to provide at least one piece of information from our `vpc` module: the subnet ID of the subnet to which our load balancer is connected.
We’ve specified a module output for the value of the *subnets* attribute:

`["${module.vpc.public_subnet_id}"]`

This variable is an output from our *vpc* module. Module outputs are prefixed with *module*, the module name—here *vpc*—and then the name of the output. You can access any output you’ve defined in the module.

It’s important to remember that a module’s resources are isolated. You only see the data you define. You must specify outputs for any attribute values you want to expose from them.

Like resources, modules automatically create dependencies and relationships. For example, by using the *module.vpc.public_subnet_id* output from the *vpc* module we’ve created a dependency relationship between the *aws_elb.web* resource and the *vpc* module.

🔗 **TIP** Since Terraform 0.8, you can also specify the *depends_on* meta-parameter to explicitly create a dependency on a module. You can reference a module via
name, for example `module.vpc`.

We can use this combination of variables and outputs as a simple API for our modules. It allows us to define standard configuration in the form of modules and then use the outputs of those modules to ensure standardization of our resources.

💡 **TIP** The fine folks at Segment.io have released an excellent tool called `terraform-docs`. The `terraform-docs` tool reads modules and produces Markdown or JSON documentation for the module based on its variables and outputs.

## Getting our module

Before you can use a module in your configuration, you need to load it or get it. You do that from the `~/terraform/web` directory, via the `terraform get` command.

### Listing 3.56: The Terraform get command

```bash
$ pwd
~/terraform/web
$ terraform get
Get: file:///Users/james/terraform/web/vpc
```

This gets the module code and stores it in the `.terraform/modules` directory inside the `~/terraform/web` directory.

If you change your module, or the module you’re using has been updated, you’ll need to run the get command again, with the `-update` flag set.
Listing 3.57: Updating a module

$ terraform get -update

If you run the terraform get command without the -update flag, Terraform will not update the module.

Moving our module to a repository

Currently our vpc module is located in our local filesystem. That's cumbersome if we want to reuse it. Let's instead move it to a GitHub repository.

You'll need a GitHub account to do this. You can join GitHub on their site. There's also some useful sign-up documentation available.

After we've created our GitHub account, we can create a new GitHub repository. We're calling ours turnbullpress/tf_vpc.

NOTE You'd use your own GitHub username and repository name.
Let's add a README.md file to our ~/terraform/web/vpc directory to tell folks how to use our module.
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Listing 3.58: The README.md file

```
# AWS VPC module for Terraform

A lightweight VPC module for Terraform.

## Usage

module "vpc" {
    source = "github.com/turnbullpress/tf_vpc"
    name   = "vpc_name"
    cidr   = "10.0.0.0/16"
    public_subnet = "10.0.1.0/24"
}

See `interface.tf` for additional configurable variables.

## License

MIT
```

Let’s create a `.gitignore` file to ensure we don’t accidentally commit any state or variables values we don’t want in our module repository.

Listing 3.59: Creating a `.gitignore` file

```
$ echo ".terraform/" >> .gitignore
$ echo "terraform.tfvars" >> .gitignore
$ git add .gitignore
```

We can then commit and push our `vpc` module.
Here we’ve added all the vpc module files and committed them. We’ve also tagged that commit as v0.0.1. We add the newly created remote repository and push up our code and tag.

Now we can update our module configuration in web.tf to reflect the new location of the vpc module.

```terraform
module "vpc" {
    source = "github.com/turnbullpress/tf_vpc.git?ref=v0.0.1"
    name = "web"
    cidr = "10.0.0.0/16"
    public_subnet = "10.0.1.0/24"
}
```

We’ll need to get our module again since we’ve changed its source.
Any time we want to use the vpc module, we can now just reference the module on GitHub. This also means we can manage multiple versions of the module—for example, we could create v0.0.2 of the module, and then use the ref parameter to refer to that.

This allows us to test a new version of a module without changing the old one.

Counts and counting

Let’s go back to our web.tf file and look at our remaining resources. We know we want to create two EC2 instances in our stack. We know we can only specify a resource named aws_instances.web once. It doesn’t make sense to duplicate the resource with a new name, especially if its configuration is otherwise identical.

In a traditional programming language this is when you’d break out a for loop. Terraform has a solution for this: counts. A count is another meta-parameter and can be added to any resource.

💡 TIP Terraform has a number of meta-parameters available.

You add a count to a resource to have Terraform iterate and create the number of resources equal to the value of the count. Let’s look at how count works with
our `aws_instances.web` resource.

Listing 3.63: The `aws_instances` count

```terraform
resource "aws_instance" "web" {
  ami            = "${lookup(var.ami, var.region)}"
  instance_type = "${var.instance_type}"
  key_name       = "${var.key_name}"
  subnet_id      = "${module.vpc.public_subnet_id}"
  associate_public_ip_address = true
  user_data      = "${file("files/web_bootstrap.sh")}"
  vpc_security_group_ids = [
    "${aws_security_group.web_host_sg.id}"
  ]
  count          = 2
}
```

We've added the `count` meta-parameter and specified a value of 2. When Terraform creates the `aws_instances.web` resource it will iterate and create two of these resources. It'll create each resource with the index of the count suffixed to the resource name, like so:

- `aws_instance.web.0`
- `aws_instance.web.1`

We can now refer to these resources and their attributes using these names. For example, to access the `id` of one of these instances we'd use:

`aws_instance.web.0.id`

**Sets of counted resources using splat**

Sometimes we want to refer to the set of resources created via a `count`. To do this Terraform has a splat syntax: `*`. This allows us to refer to all of these resources in
a variable. Let’s see how that works in the `aws_elb.web` resource.

```
Listing 3.64: The aws_elb resource

resource "aws_elb" "web" {
  name = "web-elb"
  subnets = ["${module.vpc.public_subnet_id}"]
  security_groups = ["${aws_security_group.web_inbound_sg.id}"]

  listener {
    instance_port = 80
    instance_protocol = "http"
    lb_port = 80
    lb_protocol = "http"
  }

  instances = ["${aws_instance.web.*.id}"]
}
```

The `instances` attribute in our `aws_elb.web` resource needs to contain a list of the IDs of all the EC2 instances that are connected to our load balancer. To provide this we make use of the splat syntax like so:

`["${aws_instance.web.*.id}"]`

The value assigned to the attribute is a list interpolated from the IDs of all our EC2 instances.

**Setting values with count indexes**

We can also use the `count` to allow us to specify different values for an attribute for each iteration of a resource. We do this by referring to the index of a count in a variable.

Let’s take a look at how this works. We start by declaring a list variable with a value for each iteration.
We’ve defined a new list variable called `instance_ips` that contains two IP addresses in our VPC subnet. We’re going to match the index of the count with the relevant element of the list.

You can see we’ve updated our `aws_instance.web` resource to add the `private_ip` attribute. The value of the attribute uses the list element lookup we saw earlier in this chapter.

For the element lookup we specify the name of the variable we just defined: `var.instance_ips` and the index of the count using `count.index`. The `count.index` is a special function on the `count` meta-parameter to return the index.

When each `aws_instance.web` resource is created, the matching list element will
be retrieved with the index from the `count.index`. The `var.instance_ips` will return each value, and the instance will get the correct IP address, hence:

- `aws_instance.web.0` will get the IP address `10.0.1.20`.
- `aws_instance.web.1` will get the IP address `10.0.1.21`.

This makes it easier to customize individual resources in a collection.

You’ll notice we also changed the value of the `count` meta-parameter. Instead of hard-coding a number, we used the length of the `var.instance_ips` list as the value of the `count`. We know the `var.instance_ips` list needs to have an IP address for each instance otherwise instance creation will fail. So we know that we can only have as many instances as the number of elements in this list. The `length function` allows us to count the element in this list and return an integer, in our case `2`. We can use this to populate the `count` attribute. This means we can increment the number of instances created by just adding new private IP addresses, rather than having to change and track the instance count in two places.

```
Listing 3.67: Using the length function

    resource "aws_instance" "web" {
      ...
      count = "${length(var.instance_ips)}"
    }
```

We can also use the `count.index` in other places. For example, to add a unique name to our EC2 instances we could do the following:
Listing 3.68: Naming using the count.index

```hcl
resource "aws_instance" "web" {
  . . .
  tags {
    Name = "web-${format("%03d", count.index)}"
  }
  count = "${length(var.instance_ips)}"
}
```

This will populate the `Name` tag of each instance with a name based on the `count.index`. We've also used a new function called `format`. The `format` function formats strings according to a specified format. Here we’re turning the `count.index` of 0 or 1 into a three-digit number.

The `format` function is essentially a `sprintf` and is a wrapper around Go’s `fmt library syntax`. So `%03d` is constructed from 0, indicating that you want to pad the number to the specified width with leading zeros. Then 3 indicates the width that you want, and `d` specifies a base 10 integer. The flags together will pad single digits with a leading 0 but ignore numbers larger than three digits in length.

This will produce `Name` tags `web-000` and `web-001` respectively. Having a `web-000` is a bit odd though. It comes from `count`’s zero index. Alternately we can use some math in our interpolated string like so:

Listing 3.69: Interpolated math

```hcl
tags {
  Name = "web-${format("%03d", count.index + 1)}"
}
```
This would add one to every `count.index` value producing the tags `web-001` and `web-002` respectively. We can do other math: subtract, multiple, divide, etc., on any integer or float variables.

We can also iterate through list elements with `count.index`. Let's create a list variable with some tags we'd like to add to our instances.

```
Listing 3.70: AWS owner tags in variables.tf
```

```terraform
variable "owner_tag" {
  default = ["team1", "team2"]
}
```

We'd like to distribute our instances between these two tag values in `web.tf`.

```
Listing 3.71: Splitting up the count instances
```

```terraform
resource "aws_instance" "web" {
  . . .
  tags {
    Owner = "${var.owner_tag[count.index]}"
  }
  count  = "${length(var.instance_ips)}"
}
```

This returns the element matching the `count.index` from the specified list variable. When we create the resources, one instance will be tagged `team1` and the second `team2`.

If we specify more instances than the number of elements in our list, then Terraform will fail with an error like:
Listing 3.72: Count exhausted failure

* index 2 out of range for list var.owner_tag (max 2) in:

${var.owner_tag[count.index]}

Wrapping counts with the element function

We can, however, cause Terraform to wrap the list using the `element` function. The `element` function pulls an element from a list using the given index and wraps when it reaches the end of the list.

Let's update our code to do that.

Listing 3.73: Wrapping the count instances list

```hcl
resource "aws_instance" "web" {

  tags {
    Owner = "${element(var.owner_tag, count.index)}"
  }
  count = "${length(var.instance_ips)}"
}
```

Now, if our `var.instance_ips` variable had 12 elements, then our `count` will create 12 instances. Terraform would select each element then wrap to the start of the list and select again. This way we'd end up with six instances tagged with `team1` and six instances tagged with `team2`. 
Conditionals

The `count` meta-parameter also allows us to explore Terraform’s conditional logic. Terraform has a ternary operation conditional form.

A ternary operation looks like this:

```
Listing 3.74: A ternary operation

condition ? true : false
```

We specify a condition, followed by a `?`, and then the result to return if the condition is true or false, separated by `:`.

Let’s see how we might use a conditional to set the `count` meta-parameter as an alternative to the methods we’ve seen thus far.
Listing 3.75: Using ternary with count

```hcl
variable "environment" {
  default = "development"
}

resource "aws_instance" "web" {
  ami                 = "${lookup(var.ami, var.region)}"
  . . .
  count               = "${var.environment == "production" ? 4 : 2}"}
```

Here we’ve set a variable called `environment` with a default of `development`. In our resource we’ve configured our `count` attribute with a conditional. If the `var.environment` variable equals `production` then launch 4 instances, if it is the default of `development`, or any other value, then only launch 2 instances.

The condition can be any interpolation: a variable, a function, or even chaining another conditional. The true or false values can also return any interpolation or valid value. The true and false values must return the same type though.

The condition supports a bunch of operators. We’ve already seen equality, `==`, and Terraform supports the opposite operator `!=` for inequality. It also supports numeric comparisons like greater or less, `>`, and `<`, and the related `>=` and `<=`. It also supports Boolean logic like: `&&`, `||` and unary `!`.

We don’t have to use conditionals with just `count` though. They work on any resource or module attribute, for example:
Listing 3.76: A conditional attribute

```terraform
module "vpc" {
  ...  
  cidr = "${var.region} != "us-east-1" ? "172.16.0.0/12" : "172.18.0.0/12""
  ...  
}
```

Here we're setting the value of the `cidr` attribute using a ternary conditional. If the `var.region` variable is not equal to `us-east-1` then use the CIDR of `172.16.0.0/12`. If it is equal then use `172.18.0.0/12`.

⚠️ **TIP** You can read more about conditionals in their documentation.

### Locals

Terraform also has the concept of local value configuration. Local values assign a name to an expression, essentially allowing you to create repeatable function-like values.

⚠️ **NOTE** Local values have been available since Terraform version 0.10.3.

We define local values in `locals` blocks.
Here we’ve created a local value from the application of the `length` function to our `var.instance_ips` variable. This assigns to the resulting count of IPs in that variable to a local value of `instance_ip_count`. We can then use this local value in our resources without needing to repeat the function, for example:

Local expressions can refer to or use previously defined locals too but can’t be self-referential. For example, you can’t use a local within the expression that defines that local.

💡 TIP A local is only available in the context of the module it is defined in. It will not work cross-module.
You can specify one or many `locals` blocks in a module. We’d recommend grouping them together for maintainability. If you use more than one `locals` block in a module then the names of the locals defined must be unique across the module.

Now let’s look at provisioning some application configuration on our EC2 instances.

### Provisioning our stack

Provisioning is the process of adding configuration, packages, applications, and services to the infrastructure we’re creating. It usually involves making more granular changes to our infrastructure than we do with Terraform—for example, installing Apache on an EC2 instance. For complex provisioning we’re likely to hand off the task to a dedicated tool like Puppet, Chef, or Ansible. For our stack, however, we’re going to do some simple provisioning using **EC2 user data**. With user data, you can specify some commands or actions that should be run when the EC2 instance is launched.

**TIP** We’ll learn more about provisioning and integration with configuration management tools in Chapter 4.

To make use of user data in Terraform we add the `user_data` attribute to our `aws_instance.web` resources in the `web.tf` file.
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Listing 3.79: Adding user data to our instances

```terraform
resource "aws_instance" "web" {
    ...
    user_data = "${file("files/web_bootstrap.sh")]"
    ...
    count = "${length(var.instance_ips)}"
}
```

We can see that the value of our `user_data` attribute is:

`${file("files/web_bootstrap.sh")}`

This uses a new function, `file`, to load the contents of a file as the value of an attribute. In this case we're loading a shell script called `web_bootstrap.sh` from a directory called `files`. The location of the `files` directory is relative to the current directory.

Let's create that directory and file now.

Listing 3.80: Creating the files directory

```
$ pwd
~/terraform/web
$ mkdir files
$ cd files
$ touch web_bootstrap.sh
```

Let's add some commands to the `web_bootstrap.sh` script.
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Listing 3.81: The web_bootstrap.sh script

```bash
#!/bin/bash
sudo apt-get update
sudo apt-get install -y nginx
sudo service nginx start
```

Now when our instances launch Nginx will automatically be installed and started. We'll see the results of this when we apply our configuration.

**TIP** It might take some time after the instance is launched to complete the installation process. Be patient! You can SSH into the instances to check the progress if required.

We’re going to focus on more complex provisioning in Chapter 4. For now let’s finish building our stack.

**Finishing up our stack**

At the bottom of our configuration file there’s some security group configuration, providing security groups for some of the resources in our `web.tf` file. We’re not going to show you this here because security group configuration is long and complex, but you can see it in the book’s source code.

Finally, let’s add some outputs to our stack. We’ll create a new file in the `~/terraform/web` directory called `outputs.tf` and populate it.
We’ve specified three outputs. These outputs will be displayed at the end of our `terraform apply` run. We’ve specified the DNS name of our Elastic Load Balancer resource and a list of the public IP addresses of our EC2 instances. We’ve used the splat syntax of `*` to return the `public_ip` values of all of the EC2 instances we’re going to create.

We’ve also specified an output that returns one of the outputs of the `vpc` module: `public_subnet_id`. Outputs allow us to bubble up attributes from all of our configurations, including modules.

Now let’s tidy up a few loose ends by better managing our configuration.

**Committing our configuration**

Now is a good time to commit our configuration to Git. This will allow us to go back to a known good state if we need to, and to potentially share our configuration with others.
NOTE We’re going to assume you know the basics of how Git works, and that you’ll be regularly committing. This is just a reminder that it’s a good idea to store your configuration in version control.

Listing 3.83: Committing our configuration

```bash
$ pwd
terraform/web
$ git add .
$ git commit -a "First draft of our web stack"
```

This will commit our current Terraform configuration to our Git repository. We could then push our configuration upstream to a shared repository for others to use.

Validating and formatting

Don’t forget the `terraform validate` and `terraform fmt` commands we introduced in Chapter 2. The `validate` command checks the syntax, validates your Terraform configuration files, and returns any errors. The `fmt` command neatly formats your configuration files. These are both very useful, especially as your configurations get more complex.

Now let’s see what happens when we plan the stack.
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Initializing Terraform

Before we go any further we need to initialize this Terraform configuration and download our provider. We do this using the `terraform init` command.

```
Listing 3.84: Initialiazing the web configuration
$ terraform init
```

This will get our `aws` provider and update our local configuration.

Planning our stack

Now that our stack’s configuration and initialization is complete we can build it. But before we do, it’s always a good idea to run `terraform plan` to ensure the configuration is going to do what we expect.
Listing 3.85: Planning our web configuration

$ terraform plan
Refreshing Terraform state in-memory prior to plan...
The refreshed state will be used to calculate this plan, but
will not be persisted to local or remote state storage.

+ aws_elb.web
  availability_zones.#:                "<computed>"
  connection_draining:         "false"
  connection_draining_timeout: "300"
  cross_zone_load_balancing:     "true"
  dns_name:                      "<computed>"
  health_check.#:                "<computed>"

+ module.vpc.aws_internet_gateway.tfb
  tags.%:        "1"
  tags.Name:     "web-igw"
  vpc_id:        "vpc-3c35d65a"

Plan: 9 to add, 0 to change, 0 to destroy.

We’ve included a sample of the terraform plan output. It shows us each resource that will be created, the values of the attributes that we know about now, and which of those will be computed when we apply the configuration. We can see that nine total resources will be created.

Now we’re comfortable Terraform is going to do the right thing!
Applying our stack

Let’s apply our execution plan and build our stack. To do this we run the `terraform apply` command.

**NOTE** In this command and future `terraform apply` commands we’re going to skip the interactive prompt and assume you’ve typed `yes` to save some space in the output.
### Listing 3.86: Applying our web stack

```bash
$ terraform apply
module.vpc.aws_vpc.tfb: Creating...
cidr_block: "" => "10.0.0.0/16"
default_network_acl_id: "" => "<computed>"
default_route_table_id: "" => "<computed>"
.
subnets.#: "" => "1"
subnets.248256935: "" => "subnet-8f0afcb3"
zone_id: "" => "<computed>"
aws_elb.web: Creation complete

Apply complete! Resources: 9 added, 0 changed, 0 destroyed.
.
State path: terraform.tfstate

Outputs:

addresses = [54.167.183.26, 54.167.186.170]
elb_address = web-elb-1083111107.us-east-1.elb.amazonaws.com
public_subnet_id = subnet-ae6bacf5
```

It might take a couple minutes to create all of our configuration and finish. We should see that nine resources have been created. We can also see our outputs are the last items returned. We see the IP addresses of both our EC2 instances and the DNS name of our Elastic Load Balancer. We also see the ID of the `public` subnet we created with the `vpc` module.

If we want to see these outputs again, rather than applying the configuration again,
we can run the `terraform output` command.

```bash
$ terraform output
addresses = [
    54.167.183.26,
    54.167.186.170
]
elb_address = web-elb-1083111107.us-east-1.elb.amazonaws.com
public_subnet_id = subnet-ae6bacf5
```

гад TIP Remember if you want to see the full list of all our resources and their attributes you can run the `terraform show` command.

We can also make use of this data in other tools by outputting it in a machine-readable JSON format. To do this we can use the `terraform output` command with the `-json` flag.
We can consume this data in another service. For example, we could pass it to a provisioning tool such as Chef, Puppet, or Ansible.

### Graphing our stack

Lastly, let’s look at our stack’s graph to see how the resources are interrelated. To output the graph we use the `terraform graph` command, pipe the result to a `.dot` file, and then convert it to an SVG file.
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Listing 3.89: Graphing the web stack

```bash
$ terraform graph > web.dot
$ dot web.dot -Tsvg -o web.svg
```

We can then display the `web.svg` file.

![Graph of the web application stack](image)

**Figure 3.3:** The graph of our web application stack

We can see two instances of the `aws` provider, one for our root configuration and the other for the `vpc` module. You can also see the relationships between the various resources we’ve just created.

### Seeing the results

Finally, we can actually see the results of our Terraform plan being executed by viewing the URL of the Elastic Load Balancer we just created. We can take the DNS name of the `aws_elb.web` resource from the outputs, in our case:
We can browse to that URL and, if everything works, see the default Nginx index page.

💡 **TIP** Remember, it might take a few minutes to complete the post-launch installation using our `user_data` script.

![web-elb-1083111107.us-east-1.elb.amazonaws.com](image)

**Welcome to nginx!**

If you see this page, the nginx web server is successfully installed and working. Further configuration is required.

For online documentation and support please refer to nginx.org. Commercial support is available at nginx.com.

Thank you for using nginx.

Figure 3.4: Our stack in action

Voilà—we’ve created a simple, easily repeatable infrastructure stack!

💡 **TIP** In addition to building a stack from your configuration, you can do the reverse and import existing infrastructure. You can read more about the import process in the Terraform documentation.
Destroying the web stack resources

If you’re done with your web stack you can then destroy it (and stop spending any money on AWS resources) with the `terraform destroy` command.

Listing 3.90: Destroy our web stack

$ terraform destroy
Do you really want to destroy?
  Terraform will delete all your managed infrastructure.
  There is no undo. Only 'yes' will be accepted to confirm.

  Enter a value: yes

  module.vpc.aws_vpc.tfb: Refreshing state... (ID: vpc-a22c10c5)
  . . .

  module.vpc.aws_vpc.tfb: Destruction complete

Destroy complete! Resources: 9 destroyed.

Now our web stack has been destroyed.

Summary

In this chapter we’ve put our burgeoning Terraform knowledge into action to build a simple web application with a load balancer. We’ve been introduced to the concept of parameterizing our configuration, allowing us to be more flexible in how we build our configuration. We’ve explored the types of variables available to us and how to use them.

We were introduced to modules, Terraform’s approach to reusable infrastructure.
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We’ve learned how to build and use modules in our configuration. We’ve also learned about some of Terraform’s meta-parameters. Finally, we learned about outputs and how to make use of them.

In the next chapter we’ll learn more about how to provision software with Terraform, including how to connect it to existing provisioners like Puppet and Chef.
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Thanks! I hope you enjoyed the book.