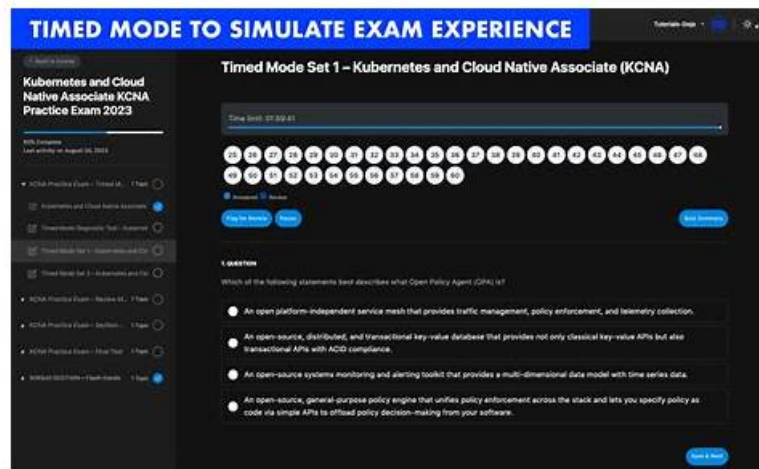


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Linux Foundation Kubernetes and Cloud Native Associate Sample Questions (Q53-Q58):

NEW QUESTION # 53

What is the default eviction timeout when the Ready condition of a node is Unknown or False?

- A. Thirty seconds.
- B. Thirty minutes.
- C. Five minutes.
- D. One minute.

Answer: C

Explanation:

The verified correct answer is D (Five minutes). In Kubernetes, node health is continuously monitored. When a node stops reporting status (heartbeats from the kubelet) or is otherwise considered unreachable, the Node controller updates the Node's Ready condition to Unknown (or it can become False). From that point, Kubernetes has to balance two risks: acting too quickly might cause unnecessary disruption (e.g., transient network hiccups), but acting too slowly prolongs outage for workloads that were running on the failed node.

The "default eviction timeout" refers to the control plane behavior that determines how long Kubernetes waits before evicting Pods from a node that appears unhealthy/unreachable. After this timeout elapses, Kubernetes begins eviction of Pods so controllers (like Deployments) can recreate them on healthy nodes, restoring the desired replica count and availability.

This is tightly connected to high availability and self-healing: Kubernetes does not "move" Pods from a dead node; it replaces them. The eviction timeout gives the cluster time to confirm the node is truly unavailable, avoiding flapping in unstable networks. Once eviction begins, replacement Pods can be scheduled elsewhere (assuming capacity exists), which is the normal recovery path for stateless workloads.

It's also worth noting that graceful operational handling can be influenced by PodDisruptionBudgets (for voluntary disruptions) and by workload design (replicas across nodes/zones). But the question is testing the default timer value, which is five minutes in this context.

Therefore, among the choices provided, the correct answer is D.

NEW QUESTION # 54

Which tool is used to streamline installing and managing Kubernetes applications?

- A. helm
- B. brew
- C. apt
- D. service

Answer: A

Explanation:

Helm is the Kubernetes package manager used to streamline installing and managing applications, so B is correct. Helm packages Kubernetes resources into charts, which contain templates, default values, and metadata. When you install a chart, Helm renders templates into concrete manifests and applies them to the cluster. Helm also tracks a "release," enabling upgrades, rollbacks, and consistent lifecycle operations across environments.

This is why Helm is widely used for complex applications that require multiple Kubernetes objects (Deployments/StatefulSets, Services, Ingresses, ConfigMaps, RBAC, CRDs). Rather than manually maintaining many YAML files per environment, teams can parameterize configuration with values and reuse the same chart across dev/stage/prod with different overrides.

Option A (apt) and option D (brew) are OS package managers (Debian/Ubuntu and macOS/Linuxbrew respectively), not Kubernetes application managers. Option C (service) is a Linux service manager command pattern and not relevant here.

In cloud-native delivery pipelines, Helm often integrates with GitOps and CI/CD: the pipeline builds an image, updates chart values (image tag/digest), and deploys via Helm or via GitOps controllers that render

/apply Helm charts. Helm also supports chart repositories and versioning, making it easier to standardize deployments and manage dependencies.

So, the verified tool for streamlined Kubernetes app install/management is Helm (B).

NEW QUESTION # 55

What is the order of 4C's in Cloud Native Security, starting with the layer that a user has the most control over?

- A. Cluster -> Container -> Code -> Cloud
- B. Container -> Cluster -> Code -> Cloud
- C. Cloud -> Container -> Cluster -> Code
- D. Code -> Container -> Cluster -> Cloud

Answer: D

Explanation:

The Cloud Native Security "4C's" model is commonly presented as Code, Container, Cluster, Cloud, ordered from the layer you control most directly to the one you control least-therefore D is correct. The idea is defense-in-depth across layers, recognizing that

responsibilities are shared between developers, platform teams, and cloud providers.

Code is where users have the most direct control: application logic, dependencies, secure coding practices, secrets handling patterns, and testing. This includes validating inputs, avoiding vulnerabilities, and scanning dependencies. Next is the Container layer: building secure images, minimizing image size/attack surface, using non-root users, setting file permissions, and scanning images for known CVEs. Container security is about ensuring the artifact you run is trustworthy and hardened.

Then comes the Cluster layer: Kubernetes configuration and runtime controls, including RBAC, admission policies (OPA/Gatekeeper), Pod Security standards, network policies, runtime security, audit logging, and node hardening practices. Cluster controls determine what can run and how workloads interact. Finally, the Cloud layer includes the infrastructure and provider controls-IAM, VPC/networking, KMS, managed control plane protections, and physical security-which users influence through configuration but do not fully own.

The model's value is prioritization: start with what you control most (code), then harden the container artifact, then enforce cluster policy and runtime protections, and finally ensure cloud controls are configured properly.

This layered approach aligns well with Kubernetes security guidance and modern shared-responsibility models.

NEW QUESTION # 56

You're running a web application in Kubernetes that experiences occasional spikes in traffic. You want to scale your application horizontally to handle these spikes automatically. What Kubernetes resource should you utilize to achieve this?

- A. HorizontalPodAutoscaler (HPA)
- B. Deployment
- C. DaemonSet
- D. Service
- E. StatefulSet

Answer: A

Explanation:

A HorizontalPodAutoscaler (HPA) is the primary resource in Kubernetes for automatically scaling Pods based on resource utilization (CPU, memory, etc.) or custom metrics. Deployments, StatefulSets, and DaemonSets define the deployment and management of Pods, while Services handle load balancing and access to the application.

NEW QUESTION # 57

Describe the different ways to manage persistent volumes in Kubernetes, including the concepts of static provisioning and dynamic provisioning. Provide examples for each approach.

- A. Static provisioning automatically generates PersistentVolumes (PVs) for each PersistentVolumeClaim (PVC) based on available resources. Dynamic provisioning manually defines PVCs but relies on Kubernetes to automatically select the appropriate StorageClass for the required storage type. This approach is not recommended for production environments but is useful for testing and prototyping.
- B. Static provisioning uses Kubernetes' built-in hostPath provisioner, which allocates persistent storage on the local node. In dynamic provisioning, administrators must create a StorageClass that links the PVC to a third-party cloud storage provider, such as AWS EBS. Static provisioning is best for development and testing environments where custom storage solutions are necessary, whereas dynamic provisioning is more suited for production applications where automated storage scaling is required.
- C. In static provisioning, the storage is pre-allocated, and PVs are manually bound to PVCs based on resource availability. In dynamic provisioning, Kubernetes allows automatic binding of PVs to PVCs without prior setup. This approach makes use of the default StorageClass or custom ones that support various storage backends such as NFS, Ceph, and cloud providers. Static provisioning requires more manual effort, while dynamic provisioning is easier to scale.
- D. Static provisioning requires configuring both PVs and PVCs in YAML files, with explicit definitions for access modes and storage capacity. In dynamic provisioning, Kubernetes automatically generates PVCs as needed by the workloads based on predefined StorageClass settings. This reduces the need for manual intervention and simplifies large-scale deployments. The dynamic provisioning approach leverages persistent volumes provided by third-party cloud storage platforms such as Azure and Google Cloud.
- E. In static provisioning, you manually create PersistentVolumes (PVs) before deploying your application. This gives you more control over storage allocation, but it can be more complex for large deployments. In dynamic provisioning, you use a StorageClass to define storage characteristics, and the cluster automatically provisions PVs as needed. Dynamic provisioning simplifies storage management and allows for more scalable deployments. The YAML examples in option A demonstrate both approaches. The first example defines a static provisioned PV with a hostPath volume. The second example defines a

dynamic provisioned StorageClass using the provisioner "kubernetes.io/gce-pd".

Answer: E

Explanation:

In static provisioning, you manually create PersistentVolumes (PVs) before deploying your application. This gives you more control over storage allocation, but it can be more complex for large deployments. In dynamic provisioning, you use a StorageClass to define storage characteristics, and the cluster automatically provisions PVs as needed. Dynamic provisioning simplifies storage management and allows for more scalable deployments. The YAML examples in option A demonstrate both approaches. The first example defines a static provisioned PV with a hostPath volume. The second example defines a dynamic provisioned StorageClass using the provisioner "kubernetes.io/gce-pd".

NEW QUESTION # 58

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