

INI CET Pathology

Sample Paper – 3

Duration: 14 Minutes

Maximum Marks: 15

Instructions

- This paper contains **15** Multiple Choice Questions (Single Best Response), modelled on the Pathology content of **INI CET** (Institutes of National Importance Combined Entrance Test) conducted by AI-IMS New Delhi.
- The **15-question** length matches the number of Pathology items you actually meet in the real 200-question paper.
- Each correct answer carries **+1 mark**. There is **negative marking of one-third (0.33) mark** for every incorrect answer; unattempted questions carry no penalty.
- Every question has **exactly one best answer**. Choose the single most appropriate option.
- Attempt this practice paper in one timed sitting of about **14 minutes**, the pace the real computer-based test demands.

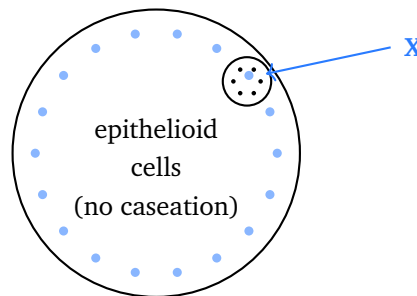
Cell Injury and Inflammation

- Q1.** Which type of necrosis is characteristically seen in infarcts of the brain and in abscesses, where the dead tissue is digested to a soft, liquid mass?
- (A) Liquefactive necrosis
(B) Coagulative necrosis
(C) Fibrinoid necrosis
(D) Fat necrosis
- Q2.** Deposition of calcium salts in dead or degenerated tissue while the serum calcium level remains normal is termed:
- (A) Metastatic calcification



- (B) Psammomatous calcification
- (C) Dystrophic calcification
- (D) Calciphylaxis

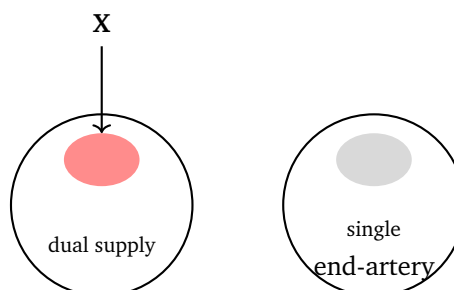
Q3. The schematic shows a granuloma made of epithelioid cells with a multinucleate giant cell (marked **X**) but with **no central caseation**. This non-caseating granuloma is most characteristic of:



- (A) Tuberculosis
- (B) Syphilitic gumma
- (C) Lepromatous leprosy
- (D) Sarcoidosis

Hemodynamic Disorders

Q4. In the schematic, organ **X** develops a red (haemorrhagic) infarct, whereas the organ on the right develops a pale (anaemic) infarct. Red infarcts characteristically occur in tissues that:



- (A) Are solid with a single end-arterial supply, such as the kidney
- (B) Are highly resistant to hypoxia
- (C) Are supplied by end arteries in dense, compact organs



(D) Have a dual or collateral blood supply, such as lung and intestine

Q5. A transudate producing generalised oedema, as in congestive heart failure and the nephrotic syndrome, results mainly from:

(A) Increased vascular permeability from acute inflammation

(B) Lymphatic obstruction alone

(C) Raised hydrostatic pressure and/or reduced plasma oncotic (colloid osmotic) pressure

(D) A protein-rich exudate laden with fibrin

Neoplasia

Q6. A malignant tumour arising from epithelium is called a carcinoma. A malignant tumour arising from mesenchymal (connective) tissue is called a:

(A) Sarcoma

(B) Adenoma

(C) Papilloma

(D) Teratoma

Q7. The Knudson “two-hit” hypothesis, requiring inactivation of both alleles of a tumour-suppressor gene before a tumour develops, was proposed to explain the inheritance of:

(A) Retinoblastoma (RB1)

(B) Chronic myeloid leukaemia

(C) Burkitt lymphoma

(D) Follicular lymphoma

Q8. Which serum tumour marker is most useful for monitoring epithelial (serous) carcinoma of the ovary?

(A) Prostate-specific antigen (PSA)

(B) CA-125



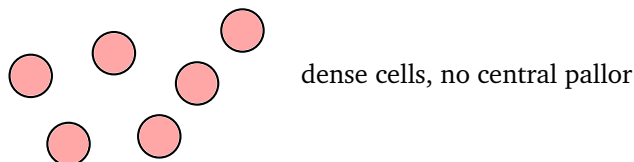
- (C) Carcinoembryonic antigen (CEA)
- (D) Beta-human chorionic gonadotropin (β -hCG)

Immunopathology

- Q9.** Serum sickness, post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis and the Arthus reaction are all mediated by which type of hypersensitivity?
- (A) Type I (immediate, IgE-mediated)
 - (B) Type II (antibody-mediated cytotoxic)
 - (C) Type IV (delayed, cell-mediated)
 - (D) Type III (immune-complex)
- Q10.** In primary amyloidosis linked to a plasma-cell dyscrasia, the amyloid fibril protein (AL type) is derived from:
- (A) Serum amyloid-associated (SAA) protein
 - (B) Immunoglobulin light chains
 - (C) Transthyretin
 - (D) Beta-2 microglobulin

Hematology

- Q11.** The peripheral smear shown has small, densely staining red cells that lack the normal central pale zone. Together with increased osmotic fragility and splenomegaly, this points to:



- (A) Iron deficiency anaemia
- (B) Hereditary spherocytosis
- (C) Megaloblastic anaemia
- (D) Aplastic anaemia

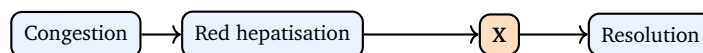


Q12. A large binucleate “owl-eye” cell with two mirror-image nuclei and prominent inclusion-like nucleoli (the Reed-Sternberg cell) is the diagnostic hallmark of:

- (A) Burkitt lymphoma
- (B) Chronic lymphocytic leukaemia
- (C) Hodgkin lymphoma
- (D) Multiple myeloma

Systemic Pathology

Q13. The flow diagram shows the four sequential stages of lobar pneumonia. Stage X, in which the lung is dry, firm and grey-brown with a fibrinosuppurative exudate and disintegrating red cells, is:



- (A) Congestion
- (B) Red hepatisation
- (C) Grey hepatisation
- (D) Resolution

Q14. Which feature favours a diagnosis of Crohn disease over ulcerative colitis?

- (A) Continuous mucosal disease beginning in the rectum
- (B) Transmural inflammation with skip lesions and non-caseating granulomas
- (C) Inflammation confined to mucosa and submucosa
- (D) Disease limited to the colon with no small-bowel involvement

Q15. Optically clear “Orphan-Annie-eye” nuclei, nuclear grooves and psammoma bodies are the diagnostic microscopic features of:

- (A) Papillary carcinoma of the thyroid



- (B) Follicular carcinoma of the thyroid
- (C) Medullary carcinoma of the thyroid
- (D) Anaplastic carcinoma of the thyroid



Detailed Solutions

Q1.

Solution

Concept – patterns of necrosis: The morphology of dead tissue points to the organ and mechanism.

Step 1 – match brain and abscess: Enzymatic digestion turns the dead tissue into a soft, liquid mass called **liquefactive necrosis**.

Step 2 – why here: The brain is rich in lipid and hydrolytic enzymes, and abscesses are full of neutrophil enzymes, so both liquefy.

Why the other options are wrong:

- B, coagulative: seen in ischaemic infarcts of solid organs like the kidney and heart.
- C, fibrinoid: seen in vessel walls in malignant hypertension and vasculitis.
- D, fat necrosis: seen in acute pancreatitis and in breast trauma.

Final Answer: Liquefactive necrosis ⇒ A

Answer: (A) [Go Back to Q1](#)

Q2.

Solution

Concept – pathological calcification: There are two types, sorted by the serum calcium level.

Step 1 – read the clue: Calcium is laid down in dead or damaged tissue while serum calcium is **normal**.

Step 2 – name it: Calcification in injured tissue with normal serum calcium is **dystrophic calcification**.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, metastatic calcification: occurs in normal tissue when serum calcium is *raised* (hypercalcaemia).
- B, psammomatous calcification: a laminated pattern (psammoma body), a subtype, not the general term asked.
- D, calciphylaxis: a specific vascular calcification syndrome in renal failure, not this definition.



Final Answer: Dystrophic calcification $\Rightarrow$

Answer: (C) [Go Back to Q2](#)

Q3.

Solution

Concept – caseating vs non-caseating granuloma: The presence or absence of central caseation separates the causes.

Step 1 – read the figure: Epithelioid cells and a giant cell form the granuloma, but there is **no central caseation**.

Step 2 – match the cause: A non-caseating granuloma is the classic finding of sarcoidosis.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, tuberculosis: gives a *caseating* granuloma.
- B, syphilitic gumma: shows central coagulative-type necrosis.
- C, lepromatous leprosy: sheets of foamy macrophages full of bacilli, not tight non-caseating granulomas.

Final Answer: Sarcoidosis $\Rightarrow$

Answer: (D) [Go Back to Q3](#)

Q4.

Solution

Concept – red vs white infarcts: The colour of an infarct depends on the tissue's blood supply.

Step 1 – identify X: Organ X bleeds into the dead area, giving a **red (haemorrhagic) infarct**.

Step 2 – which tissues: Red infarcts occur where a **dual or collateral blood supply** lets blood seep back in, as in the **lung and intestine**, and after venous occlusion.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A and C, single end-arterial supply in a compact organ: produce pale (white) infarcts, as in kidney, spleen and heart.
- B, resistance to hypoxia: does not determine infarct colour.



Final Answer: Dual or collateral blood supply (lung, intestine) $\Rightarrow$ **D**

Answer: (D) [Go Back to Q4](#)

Q5.

Solution

Concept – transudate vs exudate: A transudate is a low-protein fluid driven by pressure forces.

Step 1 – name the mechanism: Transudative oedema comes from **raised hydrostatic pressure and/or low plasma oncotic pressure**.

Step 2 – link to the examples: Heart failure raises hydrostatic pressure; the nephrotic syndrome loses albumin, lowering oncotic pressure.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, increased permeability: produces an *exudate* of inflammation, not a transudate.
- B, lymphatic obstruction: causes lymphoedema, a separate mechanism.
- D, protein-rich fibrin fluid: describes an exudate, the opposite of a transudate.

Final Answer: Raised hydrostatic and/or low oncotic pressure $\Rightarrow$ **C**

Answer: (C) [Go Back to Q5](#)

Q6.

Solution

Concept – tumour nomenclature: The name follows the tissue of origin and whether it is benign or malignant.

Step 1 – apply the rule: Malignant epithelial tumour = carcinoma; malignant mesenchymal tumour = **sarcoma**.

Step 2 – example: A malignant tumour of bone is an osteosarcoma; of fat, a liposarcoma.

Why the other options are wrong:

- B, adenoma: a *benign* glandular epithelial tumour.
- C, papilloma: a benign epithelial tumour with finger-like fronds.
- D, teratoma: a germ-cell tumour with tissues from more than one germ layer.



Final Answer: Sarcoma $\Rightarrow$

Answer: (A) [Go Back to Q6](#)

Q7.

Solution

Concept – Knudson two-hit hypothesis: Both copies of a tumour-suppressor gene must be lost for a tumour to form.

Step 1 – match the classic example: The hypothesis was framed for **retinoblastoma**, from loss of both RB1 alleles.

Step 2 – inherited vs sporadic: Familial cases inherit one defective allele (first hit) and need only one more somatic hit.

Why the other options are wrong:

- B, chronic myeloid leukaemia: driven by the BCR-ABL fusion (an oncogene), not two-hit loss.
- C, Burkitt lymphoma: driven by MYC translocation, an activated oncogene.
- D, follicular lymphoma: driven by BCL2 translocation, again an oncogene mechanism.

Final Answer: Retinoblastoma (RB1) $\Rightarrow$

Answer: (A) [Go Back to Q7](#)

Q8.

Solution

Concept – tumour markers: Each marker maps best to one tumour for monitoring.

Step 1 – match ovarian carcinoma: **CA-125** is the serum marker used to follow epithelial (serous) ovarian carcinoma.

Step 2 – use: Rising CA-125 after surgery suggests recurrence.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, PSA: prostate carcinoma.
- C, CEA: colorectal carcinoma.
- D, β -hCG: gestational trophoblastic disease and some germ cell tumours.

Final Answer: CA-125 $\Rightarrow$



Answer: (B) [Go Back to Q8](#)

Q9.

Solution

Concept – hypersensitivity types: Immune-complex deposition defines one whole class.

Step 1 – match the examples: Serum sickness, post-streptococcal glomerulonephritis and the Arthus reaction are all **Type III**, immune-complex reactions.

Step 2 – mechanism: Antigen-antibody complexes deposit in vessel walls and tissues, fixing complement and drawing in neutrophils.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, Type I: immediate, IgE-mediated allergy.
- B, Type II: antibody directed against fixed cell or tissue antigens.
- C, Type IV: delayed, T-cell mediated (e.g. contact dermatitis).

Final Answer: Type III (immune-complex) ⇒ **D**

Answer: (D) [Go Back to Q9](#)

Q10.

Solution

Concept – chemical types of amyloid: The two main fibril proteins are AL and AA.

Step 1 – identify AL: In a plasma-cell dyscrasia the **AL** fibril is made of **immunoglobulin light chains**.

Step 2 – contrast with AA: The AA fibril, in chronic inflammation, is derived from serum amyloid-associated (SAA) protein.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, SAA protein: the source of AA amyloid, not AL.
- C, transthyretin: gives senile and hereditary (ATTR) amyloid.
- D, beta-2 microglobulin: gives dialysis-associated amyloid.

Final Answer: Immunoglobulin light chains ⇒ **B**

Answer: (B) [Go Back to Q10](#)



Q11.

Solution

Concept – red-cell shape on the smear: Spherical cells that have lost their central pallor are spherocytes.

Step 1 – read the smear: Small, dense cells with **no central pale zone** are spherocytes.

Step 2 – put it together: Spherocytes plus increased osmotic fragility and splenomegaly indicate **hereditary spherocytosis**, from a red-cell membrane (spectrin/ankyrin) defect.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, iron deficiency: small cells but with a *widened* central pallor (hypochromia).
- C, megaloblastic anaemia: large oval cells with hypersegmented neutrophils.
- D, aplastic anaemia: pancytopenia with normal-looking red cells, not spherocytes.

Final Answer: Hereditary spherocytosis $\Rightarrow$ **B**

Answer: (B) [Go Back to Q11](#)

Q12.

Solution

Concept – the diagnostic cell of Hodgkin lymphoma: One cell defines the disease.

Step 1 – identify the cell: The binucleate “owl-eye” Reed-Sternberg cell is the hallmark of **Hodgkin lymphoma**.

Step 2 – immunophenotype: Classical Reed-Sternberg cells are CD15 and CD30 positive.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, Burkitt lymphoma: a “starry-sky” pattern of tingible-body macrophages, no Reed-Sternberg cells.
- B, chronic lymphocytic leukaemia: small mature lymphocytes and smudge cells.
- D, multiple myeloma: sheets of plasma cells, not Reed-Sternberg cells.

Final Answer: Hodgkin lymphoma $\Rightarrow$ **C**



Answer: (C) [Go Back to Q12](#)

Q13.

Solution

Concept – stages of lobar pneumonia: The lung passes through four stages in order.

Step 1 – order the stages: Congestion → red hepatisation → **grey hepatisation** → resolution.

Step 2 – identify X: The dry, firm, grey-brown lung with fibrinosuppurative exudate and breaking-down red cells is **grey hepatisation**.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, congestion: heavy, boggy, red lung with vascular engorgement (stage 1).
- B, red hepatisation: red, firm, liver-like lung packed with red cells and fibrin (stage 2).
- D, resolution: enzymatic clearing of the exudate and return towards normal (stage 4).

Final Answer: Grey hepatisation ⇒ **C**

Answer: (C) [Go Back to Q13](#)

Q14.

Solution

Concept – Crohn disease vs ulcerative colitis: The two inflammatory bowel diseases differ in depth and distribution.

Step 1 – name the Crohn features: **Transmural inflammation, skip lesions and non-caseating granulomas** favour Crohn disease.

Step 2 – consequences: Full-thickness disease leads to fistulae, strictures and cobblestone mucosa anywhere from mouth to anus.

Why the other options are wrong:

- A, continuous disease from the rectum: this is ulcerative colitis.
- C, mucosa/submucosa only: shallow inflammation typical of ulcerative colitis.
- D, colon only: ulcerative colitis is confined to the colon, whereas Crohn often involves the small bowel.



Final Answer: Transmural inflammation with skip lesions and granulomas $\Rightarrow$ **B**

Answer: (B) [Go Back to Q14](#)

Q15.

Solution

Concept – thyroid carcinoma morphology: Nuclear features, not architecture, define papillary carcinoma.

Step 1 – read the clues: Clear “Orphan-Annie-eye” nuclei, nuclear grooves and psammoma bodies point to **papillary carcinoma of the thyroid**.

Step 2 – behaviour: It is the commonest thyroid cancer and spreads mainly by lymphatics, with a good prognosis.

Why the other options are wrong:

- B, follicular carcinoma: diagnosed by capsular/vascular invasion, spreads by blood, lacks these nuclei.
- C, medullary carcinoma: C-cell tumour with amyloid stroma and raised calcitonin.
- D, anaplastic carcinoma: highly pleomorphic, undifferentiated cells in elderly patients.

Final Answer: Papillary carcinoma of the thyroid $\Rightarrow$ **A**

Answer: (A) [Go Back to Q15](#)



Answer Key

Q	Ans	Q	Ans	Q	Ans	Q	Ans	Q	Ans
1	A	2	C	3	D	4	D	5	C
6	A	7	A	8	B	9	D	10	B
11	B	12	C	13	C	14	B	15	A

