

GAT B Chemistry

Sample Paper – 5

Duration: 23 Minutes

Maximum Marks: 15

Instructions

- This paper contains **15** Multiple Choice Questions (Single Correct Answer), modelled on the Chemistry portion of **GAT B** entrance.
- Each correct answer carries **+1 marks**. There is a **deduction of 0.5 marks for each incorrect answer**.
- Only **one** option is correct. Choose carefully.
- Syllabus level: **NCERT Class 11 & 12 Chemistry — Physical, Organic, and Inorganic Chemistry**.
- Use of mobile phones, calculators, or electronic gadgets is strictly prohibited.

Q1. Which of the following carbohydrates is a **non-reducing sugar**?

- (A) Glucose
- (B) Sucrose
- (C) Maltose
- (D) Lactose

Q2. Which of the following correctly matches an RNA type with its **primary biological function**?

- (A) mRNA — brings amino acids to the ribosome during translation
- (B) tRNA — carries the genetic message from the nucleus to the ribosome
- (C) rRNA — forms the structural and catalytic core of the ribosome
- (D) snRNA — decodes the codon sequence on the ribosome



Q3. Which statement about **lipase** is CORRECT?

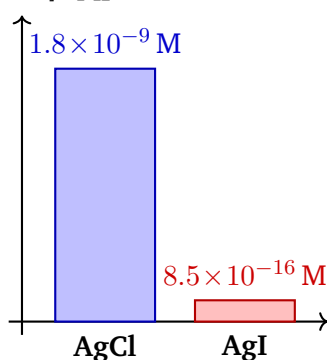
- (A) Lipase catalyses the hydrolysis of peptide bonds to yield amino acids
- (B) Lipase requires NAD^+ as an essential cofactor for its activity
- (C) Lipase acts on polysaccharides to release monosaccharide units
- (D) Lipase hydrolyses the ester linkages in triglycerides, releasing fatty acids and glycerol

Q4. The **buffer capacity** of a weak acid buffer is MAXIMUM when:

- (A) $\text{pH} = \text{p}K_a$ of the weak acid
- (B) $\text{pH} = \text{p}K_a + 1$
- (C) The solution is at pH 7 (neutral)
- (D) The weak acid is completely dissociated

Q5. A solution contains both Cl^- and I^- ions, each at 0.10 M. Silver nitrate solution is added dropwise. Given $K_{sp}(\text{AgCl}) = 1.8 \times 10^{-10}$ and $K_{sp}(\text{AgI}) = 8.5 \times 10^{-17}$, which ion precipitates **first**, and why?

Minimum $[\text{Ag}^+]$ required to initiate precipitation

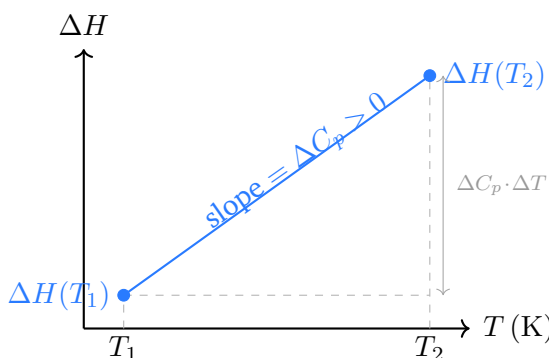


- (A) Cl^- , because AgCl has a higher K_{sp} and therefore forms first
- (B) I^- , because AgI has a much lower K_{sp} and needs far less Ag^+ to begin precipitating
- (C) Both ions precipitate simultaneously since their concentrations are equal



(D) Cl^- , because chloride ions are smaller and more reactive than iodide ions

Q6. According to **Kirchhoff's equation**, $\Delta H(T_2) = \Delta H(T_1) + \Delta C_p (T_2 - T_1)$. For a reaction in which $\Delta C_p > 0$, what does the graph of ΔH vs. T look like?



- (A) A horizontal line, because ΔH is independent of temperature
- (B) A curve that decreases as T increases
- (C) A straight line with a positive slope equal to ΔC_p
- (D) A straight line with a negative slope equal to $-\Delta C_p$

Q7. In the **Born–Haber cycle** for the formation of NaCl(s) from Na(s) and $\frac{1}{2}\text{Cl}_2(\text{g})$, which of the following steps is **endothermic**?

- (A) Electron affinity: $\text{Cl(g)} + \text{e}^- \longrightarrow \text{Cl}^-(\text{g})$
- (B) Lattice enthalpy: $\text{Na}^+(\text{g}) + \text{Cl}^-(\text{g}) \longrightarrow \text{NaCl(s)}$
- (C) Overall formation: $\text{Na(s)} + \frac{1}{2}\text{Cl}_2(\text{g}) \longrightarrow \text{NaCl(s)}$
- (D) Ionisation energy: $\text{Na(g)} \longrightarrow \text{Na}^+(\text{g}) + \text{e}^-$

Q8. The exceptionally **high stability constant** of the $[\text{Ca(EDTA)}]^{2-}$ complex is primarily attributed to:

- (A) The chelate effect — EDTA wraps around Ca^{2+} forming multiple five-membered chelate rings simultaneously, resulting in a large positive entropy gain



- (B) The high charge density of Ca^{2+} compared with other Group 2 ions
- (C) The strong π -donor ability of the amine nitrogen atoms in EDTA
- (D) The unusually low coordination number of Ca^{2+} in the resulting complex

Q9. Which of the following *d*-block metal ions is **diamagnetic** (contains *no* unpaired electrons)?

- (A) Cu^{2+} (d^9)
- (B) Zn^{2+} (d^{10})
- (C) Fe^{2+} (d^6 , high-spin, weak-field ligands)
- (D) Mn^{2+} (d^5 , high-spin, weak-field ligands)

Q10. When 2-bromobutane is treated with **KOH in ethanol** (hot, concentrated), which is the **major (Zaitsev) product**?

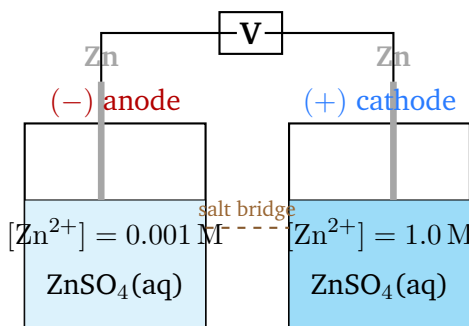
- (A) But-1-ene
- (B) 2-Bromobutane (no reaction occurs)
- (C) But-2-ene
- (D) Butane

Q11. Which set of conditions BEST promotes **nucleophilic aromatic substitution ($\text{S}_{\text{N}}\text{Ar}$)** on a benzene ring bearing a leaving group?

- (A) Presence of electron-*donating* groups (e.g., $-\text{NH}_2$) ortho/para to the leaving group, with a weak nucleophile
- (B) An unsubstituted benzene ring treated with a strong base alone
- (C) Presence of electron-*donating* groups *meta* to the leaving group, with a strong nucleophile
- (D) Presence of electron-*withdrawing* groups (e.g., $-\text{NO}_2$) ortho and/or para to the leaving group, with a strong nucleophile



- Q12.** A **concentration cell** is constructed with two zinc electrodes: one in 0.001 M ZnSO_4 (anode) and the other in 1.0 M ZnSO_4 (cathode) at 298 K. Using $E_{\text{cell}} = \frac{0.0592}{n} \log \frac{[\text{Zn}^{2+}]_{\text{cathode}}}{[\text{Zn}^{2+}]_{\text{anode}}}$, what is the EMF of the cell?



- (A) 0.0888 V
 (B) 0.0592 V
 (C) 0.1184 V
 (D) 0.0296 V
- Q13.** For a **zero-order reaction** $\text{A} \rightarrow \text{Products}$ with rate constant k , which of the following correctly states the **integrated rate law**?
- (A) $\ln[\text{A}] = \ln[\text{A}]_0 - kt$
 (B) $[\text{A}] = [\text{A}]_0 - kt$
 (C) $\frac{1}{[\text{A}]} = \frac{1}{[\text{A}]_0} + kt$
 (D) $[\text{A}] = [\text{A}]_0 e^{-kt}$
- Q14.** The **lanthanide contraction** refers to the steady decrease in atomic and ionic radii across the lanthanide series (La to Lu). Its **primary cause** is:
- (A) Increasing nuclear charge combined with very *effective* shielding by 4f-electrons
 (B) Poor shielding of nuclear charge by 3d-electrons as the series is crossed
 (C) Ineffective shielding of the steadily increasing nuclear charge by 4f-electrons, which have a diffuse, non-directional radial distribution



- (D) Decreasing nuclear charge accompanied by rising electron–electron repulsion within the 4f subshell

Q15. In the **vulcanisation** of natural rubber, sulfur forms covalent cross-links between adjacent polyisoprene chains. The MAIN consequence of these sulfur cross-links is:

- (A) Increased tensile strength, elasticity, and resistance to heat and chemicals compared with raw, unvulcanised rubber
- (B) Decreased melting point, making the rubber easier to mould at lower temperatures
- (C) Increased solubility of rubber in common organic solvents such as benzene
- (D) Conversion of the thermoset rubber network into a thermoplastic material



Detailed Solutions

Q1.

Solution

Concept — Reducing vs. Non-Reducing Sugars: A *reducing sugar* possesses a free anomeric carbon (free aldehyde or hemiacetal/hemiketal –OH) that can donate electrons to Fehling's or Benedict's reagent, reducing Cu^{2+} to Cu^+ . A *non-reducing sugar* has all its anomeric carbons locked in glycosidic bonds and therefore cannot open to the aldehyde form.

Step 1 — Examine sucrose: Sucrose is a disaccharide of glucose and fructose joined by an α -1,2-glycosidic bond that links the anomeric C-1 of glucose *and* the anomeric C-2 of fructose simultaneously. Neither unit retains a free anomeric –OH, so sucrose **cannot** form an open-chain aldehyde and does not reduce Fehling's reagent.

Step 2 — Verify the other options: Glucose (free aldehyde), maltose (α -1,4 bond leaves the C-1 of one glucose free), and lactose (β -1,4 bond leaves the C-1 of galactose free) all have a free anomeric centre and are therefore reducing sugars.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: Glucose is the classic reducing sugar (free aldehyde group at C-1).
- Option B: **Correct** — sucrose has no free anomeric carbon and is non-reducing.
- Option C: Maltose has a free anomeric –OH on one glucose unit; it is reducing.
- Option D: Lactose has a free anomeric –OH on its galactose residue; it is reducing.

Final Answer: Sucrose is non-reducing because both anomeric carbons are locked in the α -1,2-glycosidic bond. $\Rightarrow$ B

Answer: (B) [Go Back to Q 1](#)



Q2.

Solution

Concept — Types of RNA and Their Functions: The three major RNA types — mRNA, tRNA, and rRNA — each serve a distinct, non-interchangeable role in the central dogma (transcription → translation).

Step 1 — Assign correct functions:

- **mRNA (messenger RNA):** carries the nucleotide sequence (codons) copied from a gene to the ribosome, providing the template for protein synthesis.
- **tRNA (transfer RNA):** each tRNA molecule carries a specific amino acid and recognises a complementary mRNA codon via its anticodon loop.
- **rRNA (ribosomal RNA):** constitutes the bulk of ribosomal mass; the large subunit rRNA acts as a ribozyme (peptidyl transferase) catalysing peptide bond formation.
- **snRNA (small nuclear RNA):** components of the spliceosome, involved in removing introns from pre-mRNA; not in translation.

Step 2 — Match to the options: Option C correctly states that rRNA forms the structural and catalytic core of the ribosome.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: Bringing amino acids to the ribosome is the role of *tRNA*, not mRNA.
- Option B: Carrying the genetic message from nucleus to ribosome is the role of *mRNA*, not tRNA.
- Option C: **Correct** — rRNA forms the structural scaffold and catalytic centre of the ribosome.
- Option D: snRNA functions in pre-mRNA splicing, not codon decoding.

Final Answer: rRNA forms the structural and catalytic core of the ribosome. ⇒

C

Answer: (C) [Go Back to Q 2](#)



Q3.

Solution

Concept — Lipase Enzyme Specificity: Lipase is a serine hydrolase (EC 3.1.1.3) with strict substrate specificity for ester bonds in glycerolipids. It belongs to the class of *esterases* and does not require any cofactor for activity.

Step 1 — Substrate and products of lipase: Triglycerides are triesters of glycerol with three fatty acid chains. Lipase catalyses the sequential hydrolysis of these ester ($-\text{COO}-$) bonds at the oil–water interface:



Step 2 — Eliminate wrong options:

- Peptide bond hydrolysis $\rightarrow$ *proteases* (e.g., trypsin, pepsin, chymotrypsin).
- NAD^+ is a redox cofactor for *dehydrogenases*; lipase uses no redox cofactor.
- Polysaccharide hydrolysis $\rightarrow$ *glycosidases/amylases*.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: Peptide bond cleavage is carried out by proteases, not lipase.
- Option B: Lipase is cofactor-independent; NAD^+ is irrelevant to its mechanism.
- Option C: Monosaccharide release from polysaccharides is the job of amylase/glycosidase.
- Option D: **Correct** — lipase hydrolyses ester bonds in triglycerides, giving fatty acids and glycerol.

Final Answer: Lipase hydrolyses the ester linkages in triglycerides to give fatty acids and glycerol. $\Rightarrow$ D

Answer: (D) [Go Back to Q 3](#)



Q4.

Solution

Concept — Buffer Capacity: Buffer capacity β measures how many moles of strong acid or base a buffer can absorb per litre per unit pH change. For a weak acid HA / conjugate base A^- buffer of total concentration C :

$$\beta = 2.303 C \alpha(1 - \alpha)$$

where $\alpha = [A^-]/C$ is the degree of dissociation.

Step 1 — Maximise $\alpha(1 - \alpha)$: Differentiate with respect to α and set to zero:

$$\frac{d}{d\alpha} [\alpha(1 - \alpha)] = 1 - 2\alpha = 0 \implies \alpha = 0.5$$

Maximum $\beta = 2.303 C \times 0.5 \times 0.5 = 0.576 C$.

Step 2 — Relate $\alpha = 0.5$ to pH: When $\alpha = 0.5$, $[HA] = [A^-]$. Substituting into the Henderson–Hasselbalch equation:

$$\text{pH} = \text{p}K_a + \log \frac{[A^-]}{[HA]} = \text{p}K_a + \log 1 = \text{p}K_a$$

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: **Correct** — maximum buffer capacity occurs when $\text{pH} = \text{p}K_a$.
- Option B: At $\text{pH} = \text{p}K_a + 1$, $[A^-]/[HA] = 10$; $\alpha = 10/11 \approx 0.91$; buffer capacity is lower.
- Option C: $\text{pH} 7$ is not generally the maximum; it coincides with maximum capacity only if $\text{p}K_a = 7$.
- Option D: Complete dissociation ($\alpha = 1$) means no HA remains; $\beta = 0$.

Final Answer: Buffer capacity is maximum when $\text{pH} = \text{p}K_a \Rightarrow \boxed{\text{A}}$

Answer: (A) [Go Back to Q 4](#)



Q5.

Solution

Concept — Order of Precipitation: When two anions compete for the same precipitant cation, the one that is exceeded in its K_{sp} at the lowest concentration of precipitant will precipitate first. The minimum $[Ag^+]$ needed to just begin precipitating each ion is found from $K_{sp} = [Ag^+][X^-]$.

Step 1 — Threshold $[Ag^+]$ for each ion:

$$[Ag^+]_{\text{to ppt } Cl^-} = \frac{K_{sp}(AgCl)}{[Cl^-]} = \frac{1.8 \times 10^{-10}}{0.10} = 1.8 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}$$

$$[Ag^+]_{\text{to ppt } I^-} = \frac{K_{sp}(AgI)}{[I^-]} = \frac{8.5 \times 10^{-17}}{0.10} = 8.5 \times 10^{-16} \text{ M}$$

Step 2 — Compare the thresholds: $8.5 \times 10^{-16} \text{ M} \ll 1.8 \times 10^{-9} \text{ M}$. As Ag^+ is added dropwise, the K_{sp} of AgI is exceeded *first*, so I^- **precipitates first** as bright yellow AgI.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: A higher K_{sp} for AgCl means Cl^- needs *more* Ag^+ to precipitate — it precipitates *later*.
- Option B: **Correct** — I^- precipitates first because AgI's K_{sp} is $\approx 10^7$ times smaller than AgCl's.
- Option C: Equal concentrations do not imply simultaneous precipitation; K_{sp} values differ by seven orders of magnitude.
- Option D: Ion size is not the determining factor; solubility product thermodynamics governs precipitation order.

Final Answer: I^- precipitates first because AgI has a far lower K_{sp} . $\Rightarrow$ **B**

Answer: (B) [Go Back to Q 5](#)

Q6.

Solution

Concept — Kirchhoff's Equation: Kirchhoff's equation relates the enthalpy of a reaction at two temperatures by integrating the heat capacity difference over the temperature range:

$$\Delta H(T_2) = \Delta H(T_1) + \Delta C_p (T_2 - T_1)$$



where $\Delta C_p = \sum C_p(\text{products}) - \sum C_p(\text{reactants})$.

Step 1 — Identify the mathematical form: Rewrite as $\Delta H(T) = \Delta H(T_{\text{ref}}) + \Delta C_p \cdot T$ (absorbing the constant reference term). This is a **linear** equation in T with slope $= \Delta C_p$.

Step 2 — Determine slope sign for $\Delta C_p > 0$: If $\Delta C_p > 0$, the slope is **positive**: ΔH increases as temperature increases. The graph of ΔH vs. T is a **straight line with positive slope**.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: A horizontal line corresponds to $\Delta C_p = 0$, contradicting the premise.
- Option B: A decreasing curve requires $\Delta C_p < 0$, the opposite of given.
- Option C: **Correct** — positive slope $= \Delta C_p > 0$, straight line.
- Option D: Negative slope requires $\Delta C_p < 0$.

Final Answer: ΔH vs. T is a straight line with positive slope equal to ΔC_p . $\Rightarrow$ **C**

Answer: (C) [Go Back to Q 6](#)

Q7.

Solution

Concept — Born–Haber Cycle: The Born–Haber cycle decomposes the formation of an ionic solid into a series of hypothetical steps, each with a measurable enthalpy change. Sign convention: endothermic steps have $\Delta H > 0$; exothermic steps have $\Delta H < 0$.

Step 1 — List all steps and their signs for NaCl:

- Sublimation of $\text{Na(s)} \rightarrow \text{Na(g)}$: $\Delta H_{\text{sub}} = +108 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (endothermic)
- Bond dissociation of $\frac{1}{2}\text{Cl}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{Cl(g)}$: $\frac{1}{2}D = +121 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (endothermic)
- **Ionisation energy** of $\text{Na(g)} \rightarrow \text{Na}^+(\text{g}) + \text{e}^-$: $IE_1 = +496 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (endothermic)
- Electron affinity of $\text{Cl(g)} + \text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cl}^-(\text{g})$: $EA = -349 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (exothermic)
- Lattice enthalpy: $\text{Na}^+(\text{g}) + \text{Cl}^-(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{NaCl(s)}$: $\Delta H_L = -787 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (exothermic)
- Overall: $\text{Na(s)} + \frac{1}{2}\text{Cl}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{NaCl(s)}$: $\Delta H_f = -411 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$ (exothermic)

Step 2 — Identify the endothermic option among the choices: Of the four options given, only the ionisation energy of Na has a *positive* ΔH .



Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: Electron affinity of Cl is exothermic (-349 kJ mol^{-1}); not endothermic.
- Option B: Lattice enthalpy (ionic solid formation) is exothermic (-787 kJ mol^{-1}).
- Option C: Overall formation is exothermic ($\Delta H_f = -411 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$).
- Option D: **Correct** — ionisation energy of Na is endothermic ($+496 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$).

Final Answer: The ionisation energy of Na is the endothermic step in the Born–Haber cycle. $\Rightarrow$ D

Answer: (D) [Go Back to Q 7](#)

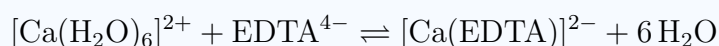
Q8.

Solution

Concept — Stability Constants and the Chelate Effect: The stability (formation) constant K_{stab} of a complex quantifies the equilibrium $\text{M} + \text{L} \rightleftharpoons [\text{ML}]$. When a polydentate (chelating) ligand replaces several monodentate ligands simultaneously, the resulting entropy increase drives an enormous stabilisation — the *chelate effect*.

Step 1 — EDTA as a hexadentate ligand: EDTA^{4-} possesses six donor atoms (two tertiary N and four carboxylate O). On binding Ca^{2+} , all six donors coordinate simultaneously, creating **five five-membered chelate rings** in one complex.

Step 2 — Thermodynamic origin of high K_{stab} : Replacing six water molecules (six separate particles) with one EDTA molecule (one particle) increases the number of free particles in solution:



This produces a large positive ΔS , making $\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$ very negative, and $K_{\text{stab}} \approx 10^{10.7}$ for Ca^{2+} .

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: **Correct** — the chelate effect (entropy-driven ring formation) explains the exceptionally high stability.
- Option B: Charge density of Ca^{2+} is moderate; it does not alone explain the 10^{10} magnitude.



- Option C: Carboxylate O atoms are σ -donors; π -donation requires d -orbitals unavailable in Ca^{2+} .
- Option D: Ca^{2+} in $[\text{Ca}(\text{EDTA})]^{2-}$ has coordination number 6, which is normal, not unusually low.

Final Answer: The chelate effect (entropy gain from multiple ring formation) accounts for the high stability of $[\text{Ca}(\text{EDTA})]^{2-}$. $\Rightarrow$ A

Answer: (A) [Go Back to Q 8](#)

Q9.

Solution

Concept — Diamagnetic vs. Paramagnetic d -Block Ions: Diamagnetic species have *all* electrons spin-paired (net magnetic moment $\mu = 0$). Paramagnetic species have one or more unpaired electrons ($\mu > 0$). The number of unpaired electrons is determined by the electron configuration and the crystal field splitting (high-spin vs. low-spin for d^4 – d^7).

Step 1 — Electron configurations:

- Cu^{2+} : $[\text{Ar}] 3d^9 \rightarrow 1$ unpaired electron $\rightarrow$ **paramagnetic**
- Zn^{2+} : $[\text{Ar}] 3d^{10} \rightarrow$ all 5 d -orbitals doubly occupied ($\uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow \uparrow\downarrow$) $\rightarrow 0$ unpaired electrons $\rightarrow$ **diamagnetic**
- Fe^{2+} : $[\text{Ar}] 3d^6$ (high-spin) $\rightarrow 4$ unpaired electrons $\rightarrow$ paramagnetic
- Mn^{2+} : $[\text{Ar}] 3d^5$ (high-spin) $\rightarrow 5$ unpaired electrons $\rightarrow$ paramagnetic (maximum)

Step 2 — Conclusion: Only Zn^{2+} has a completely filled d^{10} configuration with no unpaired electrons.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: Cu^{2+} (d^9) has one unpaired electron and is paramagnetic.
- Option B: **Correct** — Zn^{2+} (d^{10}) is diamagnetic.
- Option C: Fe^{2+} (d^6 , high-spin) has 4 unpaired electrons.
- Option D: Mn^{2+} (d^5 , high-spin) has the maximum 5 unpaired electrons.

Final Answer: Zn^{2+} (d^{10}) is diamagnetic with no unpaired electrons. $\Rightarrow$ B

Answer: (B) [Go Back to Q 9](#)



Q10.

Solution

Concept — E2 Elimination and Zaitsev's Rule: In E2 (bimolecular elimination), a strong base abstracts a β -hydrogen concertedly as the leaving group departs, forming a double bond. **Zaitsev's rule** states that the major product is the *more substituted* (more stable) alkene, because the transition state leading to it is lower in energy (more alkyl groups on the incipient double bond stabilise it by hyperconjugation).

Step 1 — Structure of 2-bromobutane and possible eliminations: 2-Bromobutane: $\text{CH}_3\text{-CH(Br)-CH}_2\text{-CH}_3$. The Br is on C2. Two sets of β -H are available:

- H on C1 $\rightarrow$ **but-1-ene** ($\text{CH}_2=\text{CHCH}_2\text{CH}_3$): monosubstituted (minor).
- H on C3 $\rightarrow$ **but-2-ene** ($\text{CH}_3\text{CH=CHCH}_3$): disubstituted (major, Zaitsev).

Step 2 — Reaction conditions: KOH in hot ethanol provides a strong, relatively unhindered base under thermal conditions, which strongly favours the Zaitsev (more substituted) alkene.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: But-1-ene is the minor (Hofmann) product; it requires a bulky base to predominate.
- Option B: KOH/ethanol at elevated temperature is a classic E2 condition; no-reaction is incorrect.
- Option C: **Correct** — but-2-ene is the Zaitsev (major, disubstituted) product.
- Option D: Butane would require reduction, not base-promoted elimination.

Final Answer: But-2-ene is the major product (Zaitsev rule). $\Rightarrow$ C

Answer: (C) [Go Back to Q 10](#)

Q11.

Solution

Concept — Nucleophilic Aromatic Substitution ($\text{S}_{\text{N}}\text{Ar}$): $\text{S}_{\text{N}}\text{Ar}$ proceeds via an *addition–elimination* mechanism through a carbanion intermediate called the **Meisenheimer complex**. The rate-determining step is nucleophilic addition to the ring. Substituents that stabilise the developing negative charge on the ring in this intermediate accelerate the reaction.



Step 1 — Effect of ring substituents on the Meisenheimer complex:

- **Electron-withdrawing groups (EWG)** (e.g., $-\text{NO}_2$, $-\text{CN}$, $-\text{CHO}$) at *ortho* or *para* positions delocalise the negative charge of the Meisenheimer complex by resonance $\Rightarrow$ stabilise intermediate $\Rightarrow$ **activate $\text{S}_\text{N}\text{Ar}$** .
- **Electron-donating groups (EDG)** at *ortho/para* *destabilise* the Meisenheimer complex (push electron density onto an already electron-rich ring) $\Rightarrow$ **deactivate $\text{S}_\text{N}\text{Ar}$** .

Step 2 — Additional requirements: A strong nucleophile (e.g., $-\text{OH}$, $-\text{NH}_2$, $-\text{OR}$) is needed to attack the ring and initiate the addition step. Unactivated benzene does not readily undergo $\text{S}_\text{N}\text{Ar}$.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: EDG *ortho/para* *destabilises* the intermediate; $\text{S}_\text{N}\text{Ar}$ is *inhibited*.
- Option B: Unsubstituted benzene lacks ring activation; $\text{S}_\text{N}\text{Ar}$ does not proceed.
- Option C: EDG *meta* does not stabilise the Meisenheimer complex at the ipso carbon.
- Option D: **Correct** — EWG *ortho/para* to the leaving group stabilise the Meisenheimer complex and promote $\text{S}_\text{N}\text{Ar}$.

Final Answer: EWG *ortho/para* to the leaving group promote $\text{S}_\text{N}\text{Ar}$ by stabilising the Meisenheimer intermediate. $\Rightarrow$ D

Answer: (D) [Go Back to Q 11](#)

Q12.

Solution

Concept — Concentration Cells: A concentration cell uses identical electrodes immersed in electrolyte solutions of different concentrations. There is no difference in standard reduction potentials; the EMF arises entirely from the Nernst equation applied to the concentration gradient:

$$E_{\text{cell}} = \frac{0.0592}{n} \log \frac{[\text{ion}]_{\text{cathode}}}{[\text{ion}]_{\text{anode}}}$$

Step 1 — Identify anode and cathode: Electrons flow from the more dilute (lower chemical potential) to the more concentrated side.



- **Anode** (oxidation): $\text{Zn(s)} \rightarrow \text{Zn}^{2+}(0.001 \text{ M}) + 2\text{e}^-$ (dilute side)
- **Cathode** (reduction): $\text{Zn}^{2+}(1.0 \text{ M}) + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Zn(s)}$ (concentrated side)

Step 2 — Calculate EMF: $n = 2$ for Zn^{2+}/Zn .

$$E = \frac{0.0592}{2} \log \frac{1.0}{0.001} = \frac{0.0592}{2} \log(10^3) = 0.0296 \times 3 = \mathbf{0.0888 \text{ V}}$$

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: **Correct** — 0.0888 V, from $(0.0592/2) \times 3$.
- Option B: 0.0592 V would require $n = 1$ (applicable to a Cu^+/Cu or Ag^+/Ag cell with the same ratio).
- Option C: 0.1184 V would require $\log \text{ratio} = 4$, i.e., a 10^4 -fold concentration difference.
- Option D: 0.0296 V would require $\log \text{ratio} = 1$, i.e., only a 10:1 concentration ratio.

Final Answer: $E_{\text{cell}} = 0.0888 \text{ V} \Rightarrow \boxed{\text{A}}$

Answer: (A) [Go Back to Q 12](#)

Q13.

Solution

Concept — Zero-Order Kinetics: For a zero-order reaction, the rate is *independent* of the reactant concentration: $\text{rate} = k \text{ (mol L}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}\text{)}$. This situation arises when a catalyst surface is saturated (e.g., enzyme at high substrate, or heterogeneous catalysis) or for some photochemical reactions.

Step 1 — Derive the integrated rate law:

$$\frac{d[A]}{dt} = -k \Rightarrow \int_{[A]_0}^{[A]} d[A] = -k \int_0^t dt \Rightarrow [A] - [A]_0 = -kt$$

$$\boxed{[A] = [A]_0 - kt}$$

A plot of $[A]$ vs. t is a straight line with slope $= -k$ and intercept $= [A]_0$.

Step 2 — Units of k : From $[A] = [A]_0 - kt$, the unit of k must equal $[\text{concentration}]/[\text{time}] = \text{mol L}^{-1} \text{ s}^{-1}$.

Why other options are wrong:



- Option A: $\ln[A] = \ln[A]_0 - kt$ is the *first-order* integrated law.
- Option B: **Correct** — $[A] = [A]_0 - kt$ is the zero-order integrated law.
- Option C: $1/[A] = 1/[A]_0 + kt$ is the *second-order* integrated law.
- Option D: $[A] = [A]_0 e^{-kt}$ is the exponential decay of a first-order reaction.

Final Answer: The zero-order integrated rate law is $[A] = [A]_0 - kt$. $\Rightarrow$ **B**

Answer: (B) [Go Back to Q 13](#)

Q14.

Solution

Concept — Lanthanide Contraction: Across the lanthanide series (La, $Z = 57$ to Lu, $Z = 71$), 14 electrons are progressively added to the *inner* 4f subshell while the nuclear charge increases by 14 units. The atomic and ionic radii decrease continuously — a phenomenon called **lanthanide contraction** (≈ 17 pm decrease in Ln^{3+} radius from La^{3+} to Lu^{3+}).

Step 1 — Why 4f-electrons shield poorly: The 4f-orbitals have a complex, multi-lobed angular shape with many angular nodes. They penetrate the core weakly and do not efficiently screen the nucleus from *other* 4f-electrons or from the outer $5s^2 5p^6 6s^2$ electrons. As each new electron enters 4f, the nuclear charge increases by $+e$ but the additional shielding is much less than $+e$, so the effective nuclear charge (Z_{eff}) felt by all electrons **increases** across the series, contracting the electron cloud.

Step 2 — Consequence: The 4d and 5d metals that follow the lanthanides (e.g., Zr/Hf, Nb/Ta, Mo/W) have nearly identical ionic radii to their lighter congeners, causing unusual chemical similarities between 4d and 5d pairs.

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: Nuclear charge *increases* (not decreases) across the series; shielding by 4f is *ineffective*, not effective.
- Option B: 3d-electrons are not involved in lanthanide contraction; the relevant subshell is 4f.
- Option C: **Correct** — poor shielding by 4f-electrons of the increasing nuclear charge causes contraction.
- Option D: Nuclear charge *increases* continuously from La to Lu; it does not decrease.

Final Answer: Lanthanide contraction is caused by ineffective shielding of increasing nuclear charge by 4f-electrons. $\Rightarrow$ **C**



Answer: (C) [Go Back to Q 14](#)

Q15.

Solution

Concept — Vulcanisation of Rubber: Natural rubber (cis-polyisoprene) is a linear polymer with a $C = C$ double bond in every repeat unit. In its raw state it is soft, sticky, and prone to deformation. Vulcanisation, discovered by Charles Goodyear (1839), introduces covalent **sulfur cross-links** between polymer chains by reacting sulfur with the double bonds at 140–180°C.

Step 1 — What cross-links do structurally: Polysulfide bridges ($-S_n-$, typically $n = 1-8$) covalently bond adjacent polyisoprene chains, creating a three-dimensional network. These bridges restrict chain slippage (flow) while still permitting some chain segment flexibility.

Step 2 — Property changes upon vulcanisation:

- **Tensile strength** $\uparrow$ (cross-links prevent irreversible deformation).
- **Elasticity** $\uparrow$ (network snaps back after stretching).
- **Resistance to heat** $\uparrow$ (cross-links maintain shape at elevated T).
- **Resistance to organic solvents** $\uparrow$ (cross-linked network cannot dissolve).
- Rubber becomes *thermoset* (cannot be re-melted or re-moulded).

Why other options are wrong:

- Option A: **Correct** — vulcanisation increases tensile strength, elasticity, and chemical/thermal resistance.
- Option B: Cross-linking *raises* resistance to heat and deformation; it does not lower the effective melting point.
- Option C: Cross-linking makes rubber *less* soluble in organic solvents by forming an insoluble network.
- Option D: Vulcanised rubber is *thermoset*; it cannot be re-melted and re-moulded like a thermoplastic.

Final Answer: Vulcanisation increases tensile strength, elasticity, and resistance to heat and chemicals. $\Rightarrow$ A

Answer: (A) [Go Back to Q 15](#)



Answer Key

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

