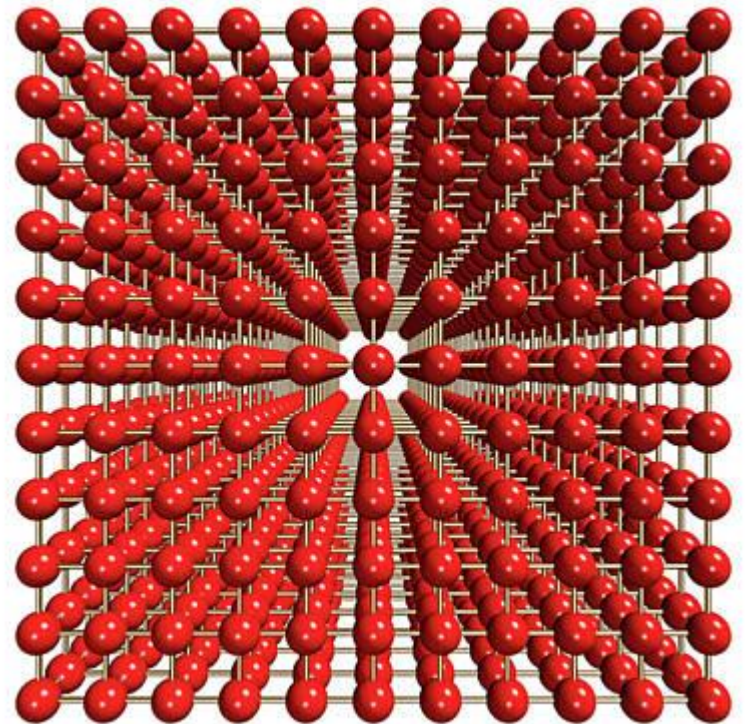


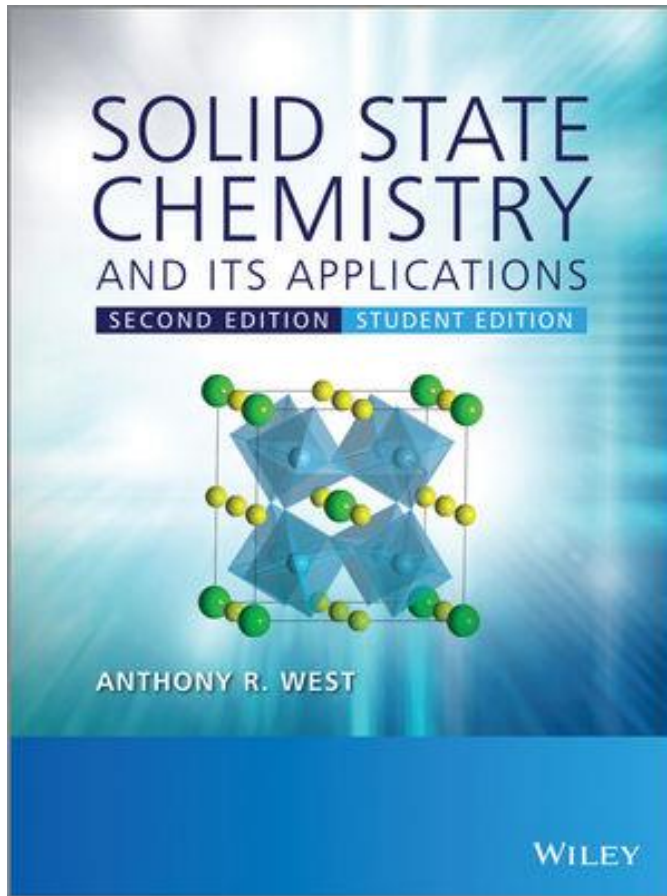
Lecture 1

Perfect and Imperfect Crystals



Objective of this course

- ✓ to have a broad understanding of structures of defect, how the defect structure looks like;
- ✓ their role in determining properties of materials.
- ✓ to be able to understand the structure of dislocation and their interaction

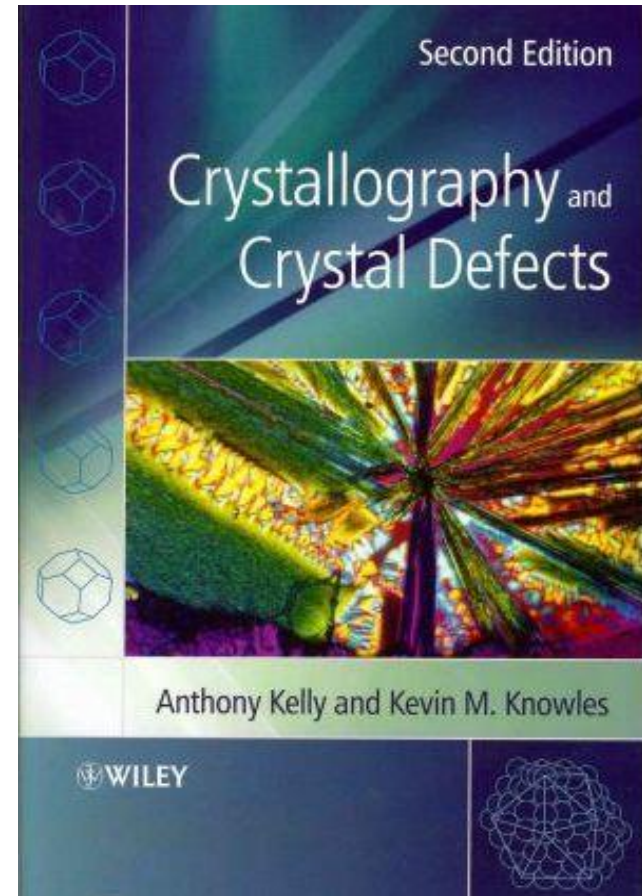


Solid State Chemistry and its Applications, 2nd Edition, Student Edition

Anthony R. West

2014

582 Pages

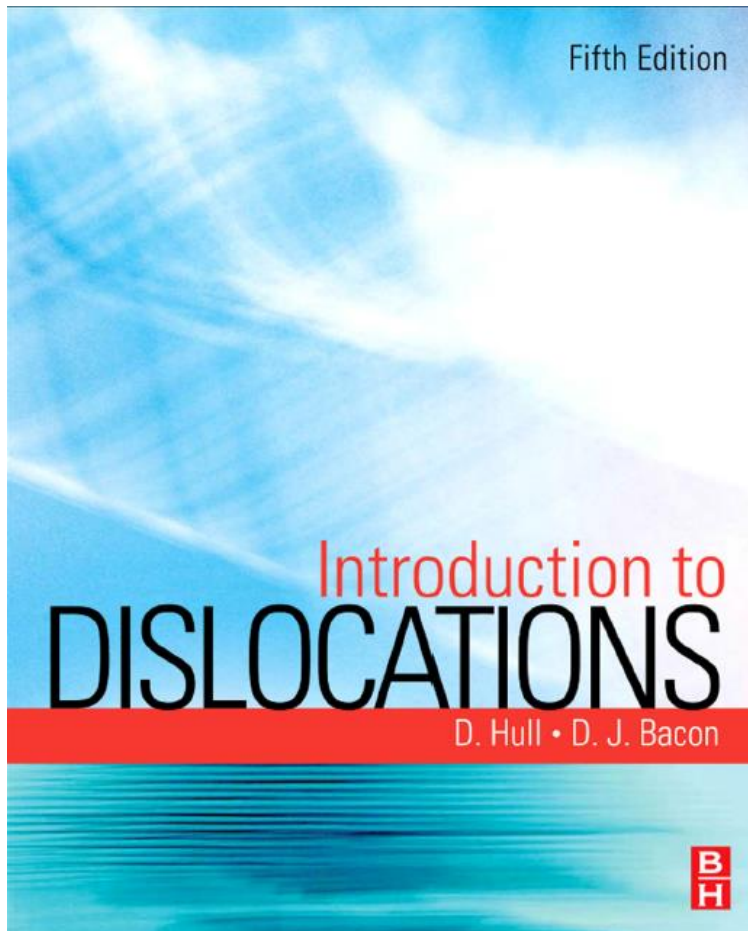


Crystallography and Crystal Defects, 2nd Edition

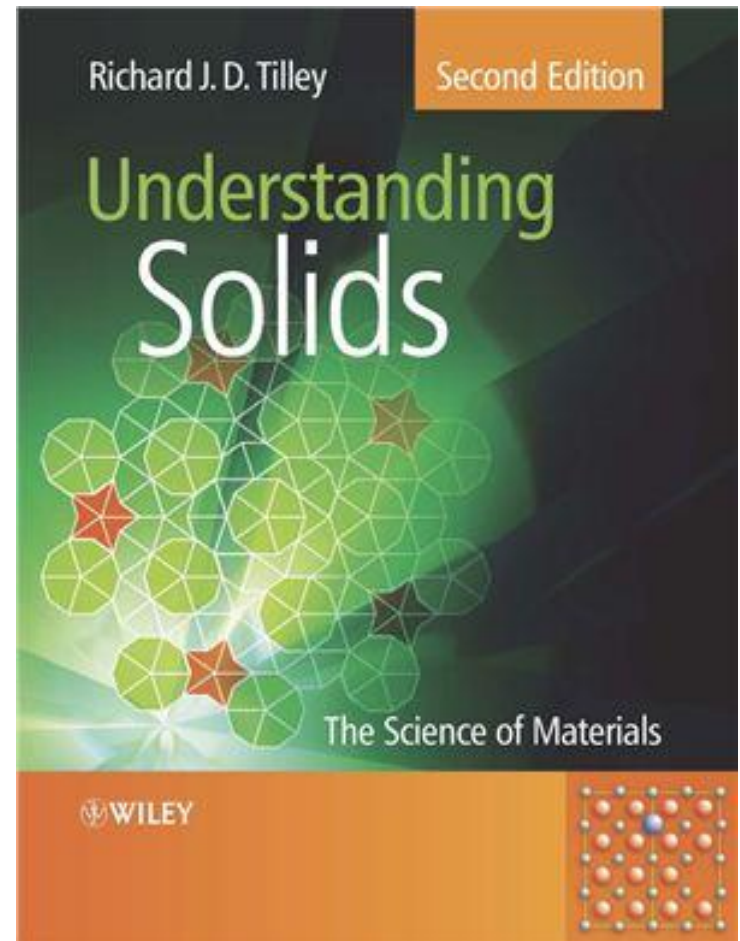
Anthony Kelly, Kevin M. Knowles

2012

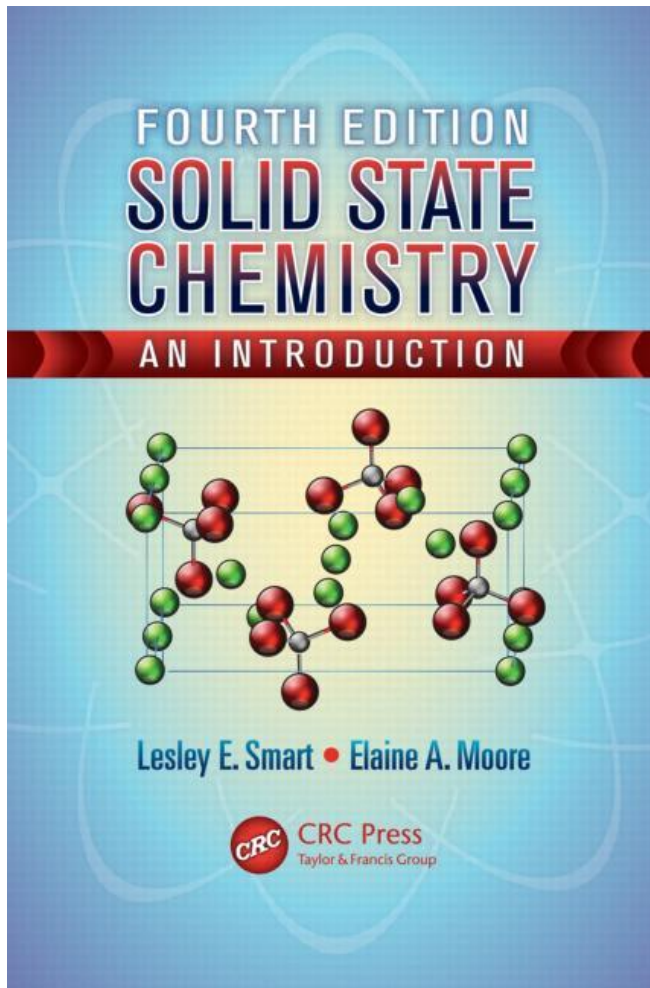
536 Pages



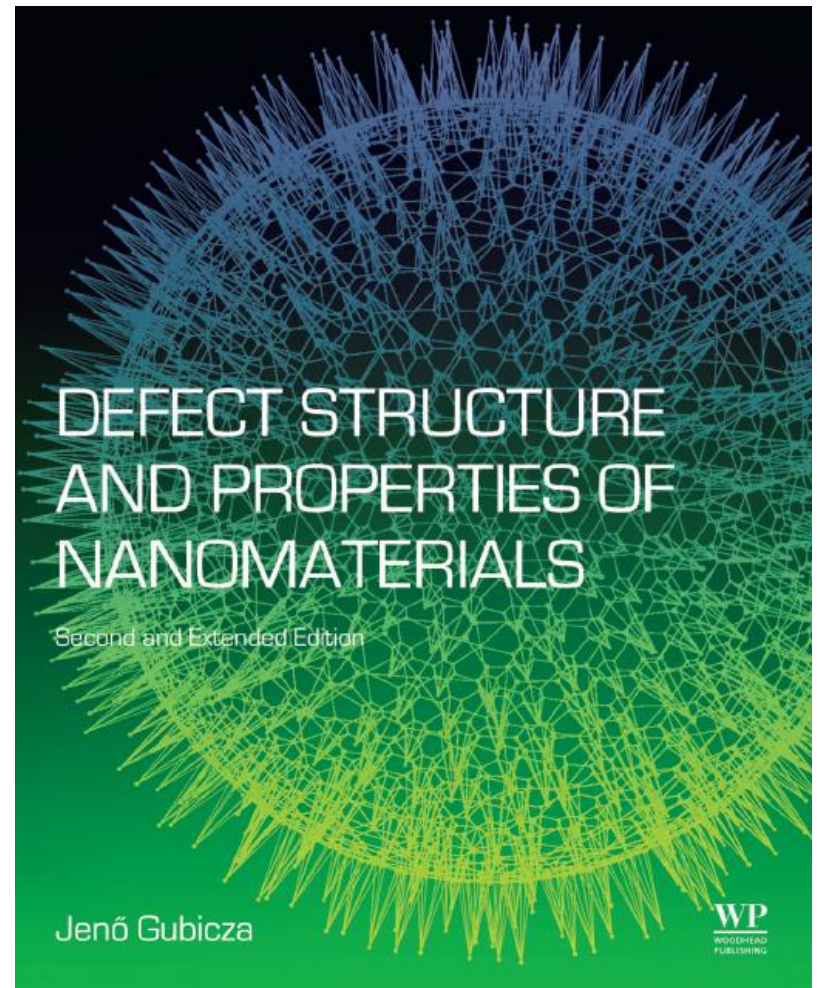
Introduction to Dislocations
Derek Hull
(2011, 260 pages)



Richard J. D. Tilley
Understanding Solids:
The Science of Materials
(2013, 584 Pages)



Elaine A. Moore, Lesley E. Smart
Solid State Chemistry: An Introduction
4th Edition
CRC Press, 2012, 494 Pages



**DEFECT STRUCTURE
AND PROPERTIES
OF NANOMATERIALS**
JENO GUBICZA
2017, 412 pages

**Crystals are like people:
it is the defects in them
which tend to make them
interesting!**

CHAPTER 11

STEM IMAGING OF CRYSTALS AND DEFECTS

C.J. HUMPHREYS

DEPARTMENT OF PHYSICS, ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY

*TEMPE, ARIZONA 85281 U.S.A.**

11.1 INTRODUCTION

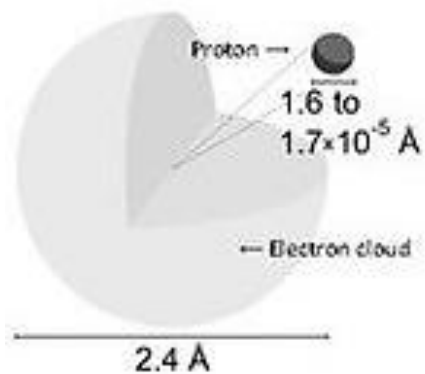
Crystals are like people: it is the defects in them which tend to make them interesting! This chapter describes the use of STEM imaging for the structural characterization of crystalline materials, perfect and imperfect. The object of the chapter is to describe basic principles as clearly as possible, using a minimum of mathematics.



**Sir Colin John Humphreys
(born 24 May 1941)
is a British physicist**

Humphreys C.J. (1979) Stem Imaging of Crystals and Defects. In: Hren J.J., Goldstein J.I., Joy D.C. (eds) Introduction to Analytical Electron Microscopy. Springer, Boston, MA

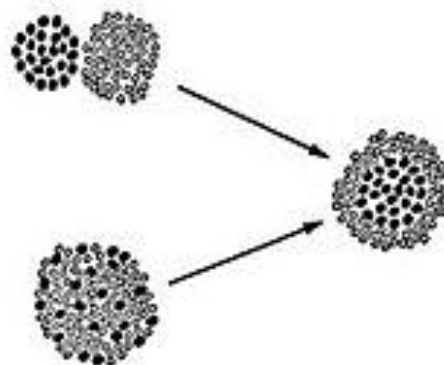
Atom
(Leucippus, 450BC)



Molecule
(Gassendi, 1649)



Cell-as-molecule
(Harrison, 1993)



Human-as-molecule
(Sales, 1789)



IUPAC Periodic Table of the Elements

1 H hydrogen 1.008 [1.0078, 1.0082]																	18 He helium 4.0026
3 Li lithium 6.94 [6.938, 6.997]	4 Be beryllium 9.0122																
11 Na sodium 22.990	12 Mg magnesium 24.305 [24.304, 24.307]																
19 K potassium 39.098	20 Ca calcium 40.078(4)	21 Sc scandium 44.956	22 Ti titanium 47.867	23 V vanadium 50.942	24 Cr chromium 51.996	25 Mn manganese 54.938	26 Fe iron 55.845(2)	27 Co cobalt 58.933	28 Ni nickel 58.693	29 Cu copper 63.546(3)	30 Zn zinc 65.38(2)	31 Ga gallium 69.723	32 Ge germanium 72.630(8)	33 As arsenic 74.922	34 Se selenium 78.971(8)	35 Br bromine 79.904 [79.901, 79.907]	36 Kr krypton 83.798(2)
37 Rb rubidium 85.468	38 Sr strontium 87.62	39 Y yttrium 88.906	40 Zr zirconium 91.224(2)	41 Nb niobium 92.906	42 Mo molybdenum 95.95	43 Tc technetium	44 Ru ruthenium 101.07(2)	45 Rh rhodium 102.91	46 Pd palladium 106.42	47 Ag silver 107.87	48 Cd cadmium 112.41	49 In indium 114.82	50 Sn tin 118.71	51 Sb antimony 121.76	52 Te tellurium 127.60(3)	53 I iodine 126.90	54 Xe xenon 131.29
55 Cs caesium 132.91	56 Ba barium 137.33	57-71 lanthanoids	72 Hf hafnium 178.49(2)	73 Ta tantalum 180.95	74 W tungsten 183.84	75 Re rhenium 186.21	76 Os osmium 190.23(3)	77 Ir iridium 192.22	78 Pt platinum 195.08	79 Au gold 196.97	80 Hg mercury 200.59	81 Tl thallium 204.38 [204.38, 204.39]	82 Pb lead 207.2	83 Bi bismuth 208.98	84 Po polonium	85 At astatine	86 Rn radon
87 Fr francium	88 Ra radium	89-103 actinoids	104 Rf rutherfordium	105 Db dubnium	106 Sg seaborgium	107 Bh bohrium	108 Hs hassium	109 Mt meitnerium	110 Ds darmstadtium	111 Rg roentgenium	112 Cn copernicium	113 Nh nihonium	114 Fl flerovium	115 Mc moscovium	116 Lv livermorium	117 Ts tennessine	118 Og oganesesson

Key:
atomic number
Symbol
name
conventional atomic weight
standard atomic weight



INTERNATIONAL UNION OF
PURE AND APPLIED CHEMISTRY

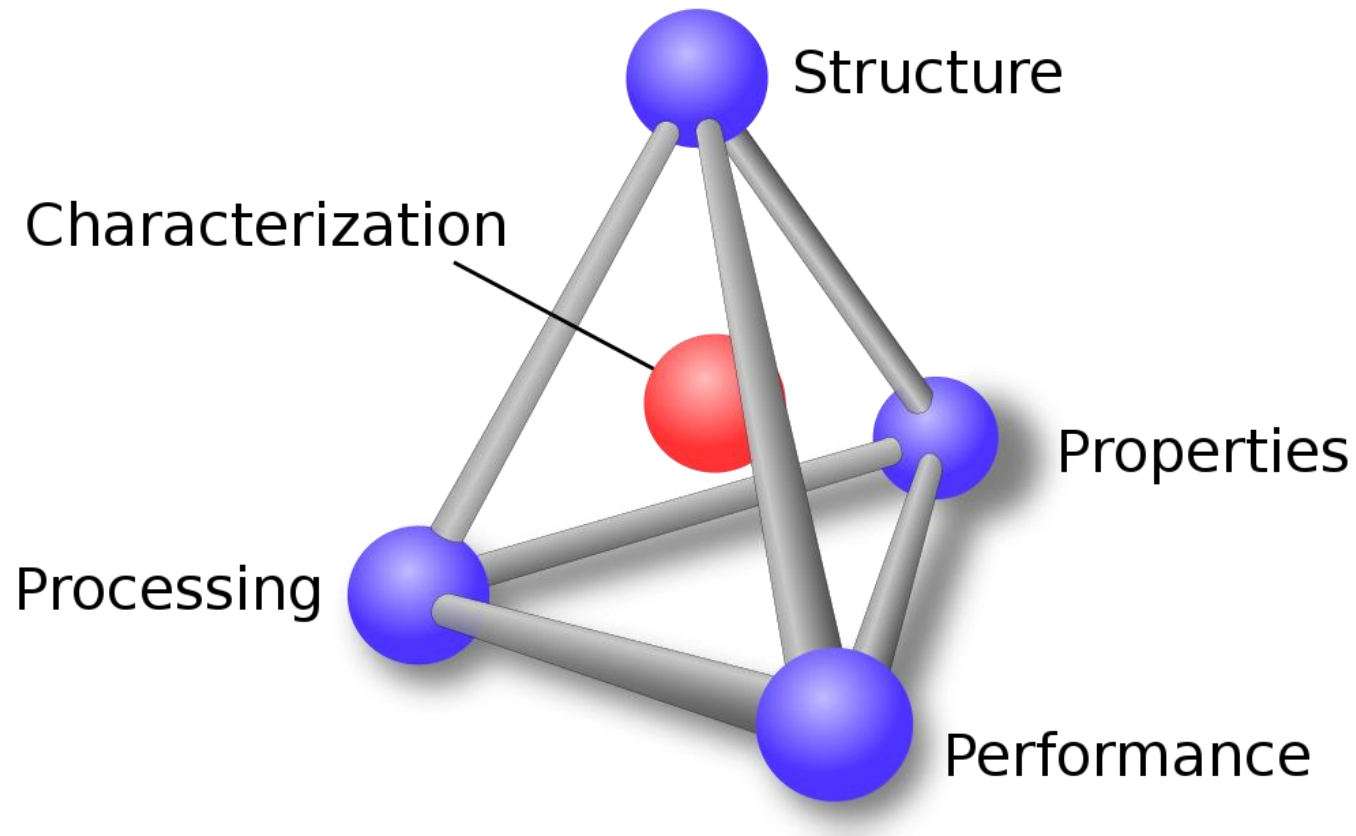
57 La lanthanum 138.91	58 Ce cerium 140.12	59 Pr praseodymium 140.91	60 Nd neodymium 144.24	61 Pm promethium	62 Sm samarium 150.36(2)	63 Eu europium 151.96	64 Gd gadolinium 157.25(3)	65 Tb terbium 158.93	66 Dy dysprosium 162.50	67 Ho holmium 164.93	68 Er erbium 167.26	69 Tm thulium 168.93	70 Yb ytterbium 173.05	71 Lu lutetium 174.97
89 Ac actinium 232.04	90 Th thorium 232.04	91 Pa protactinium 231.04	92 U uranium 238.03	93 Np neptunium	94 Pu plutonium	95 Am americium	96 Cm curium	97 Bk berkelium	98 Cf californium	99 Es einsteinium	100 Fm fermium	101 Md mendelevium	102 No nobelium	103 Lr lawrencium

For notes and updates to this table, see www.iupac.org. This version is dated 28 November 2016.
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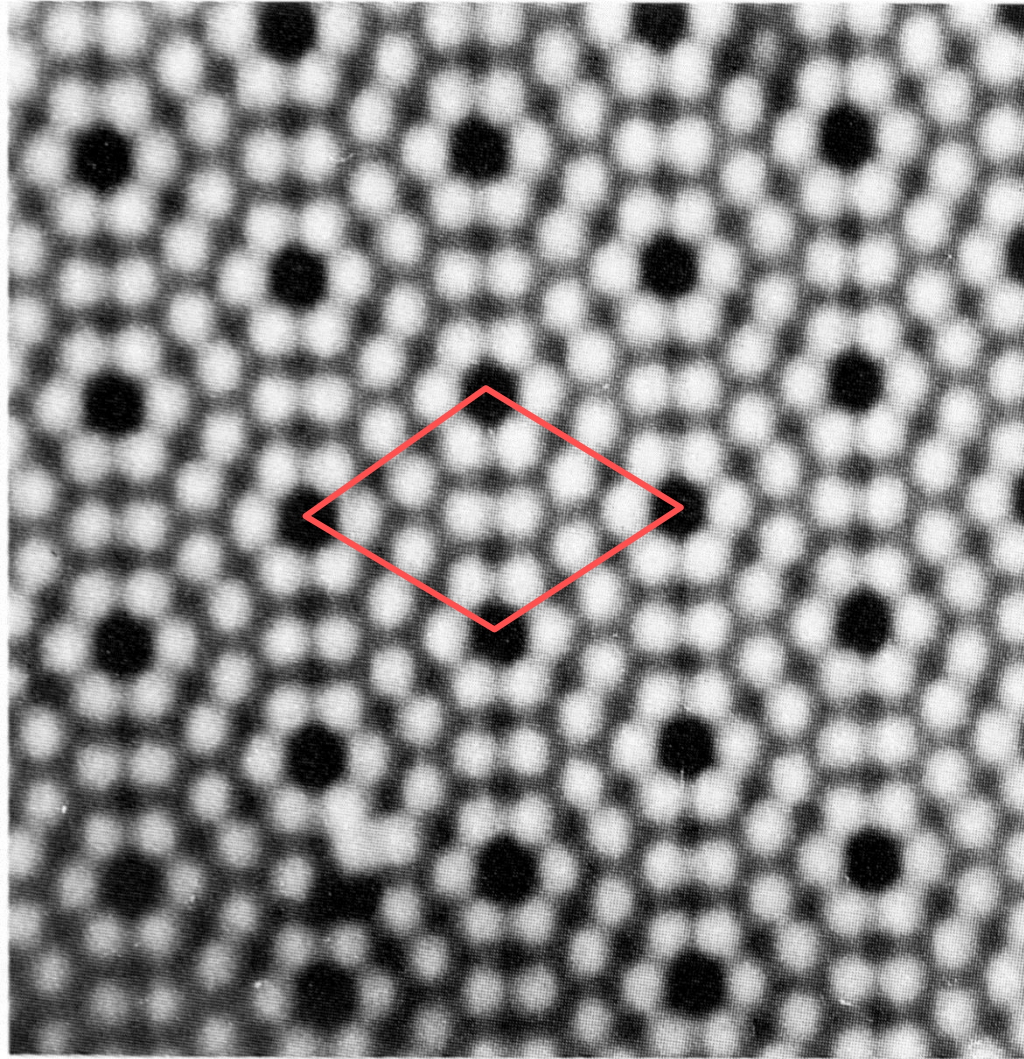
*The periodic table contains 118 elements. Only 90 of these elements occur naturally in the environment, and still fewer elements comprise the living world.
From bacteria to higher vertebrates and humans, nature has repeatedly selected for all life forms a basic group of only six elements.*

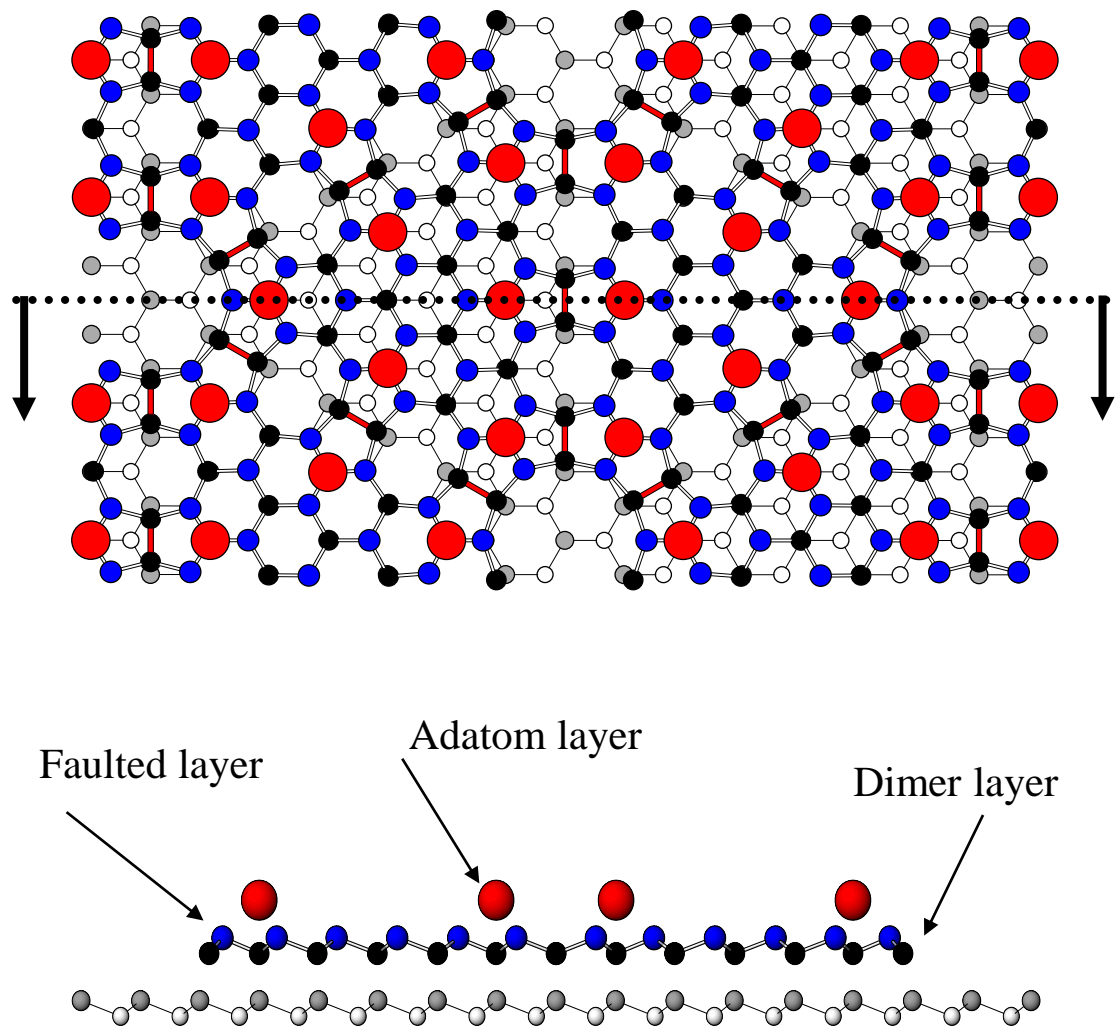
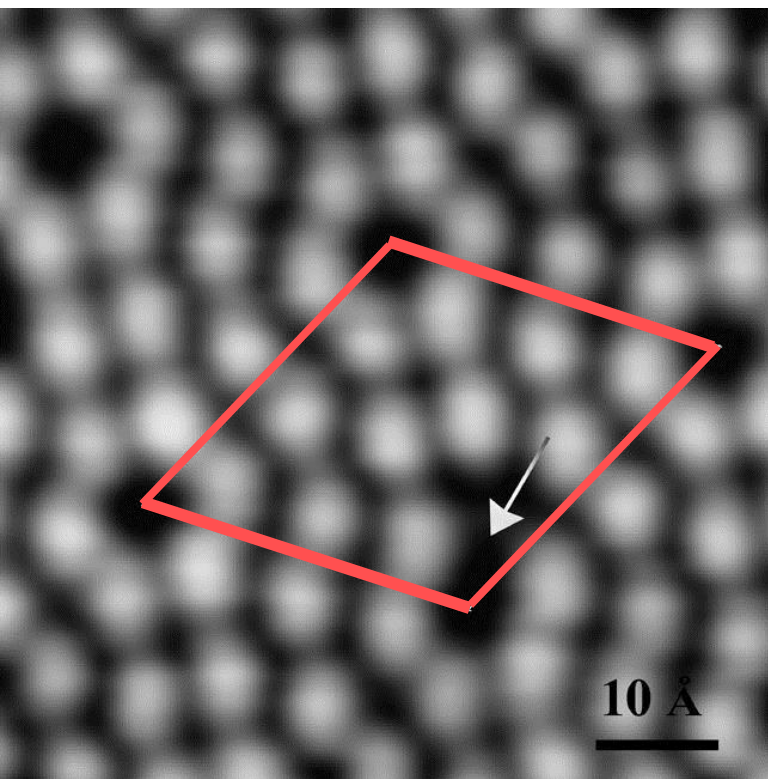
Crystal Defects and Microstructure in Materials Science

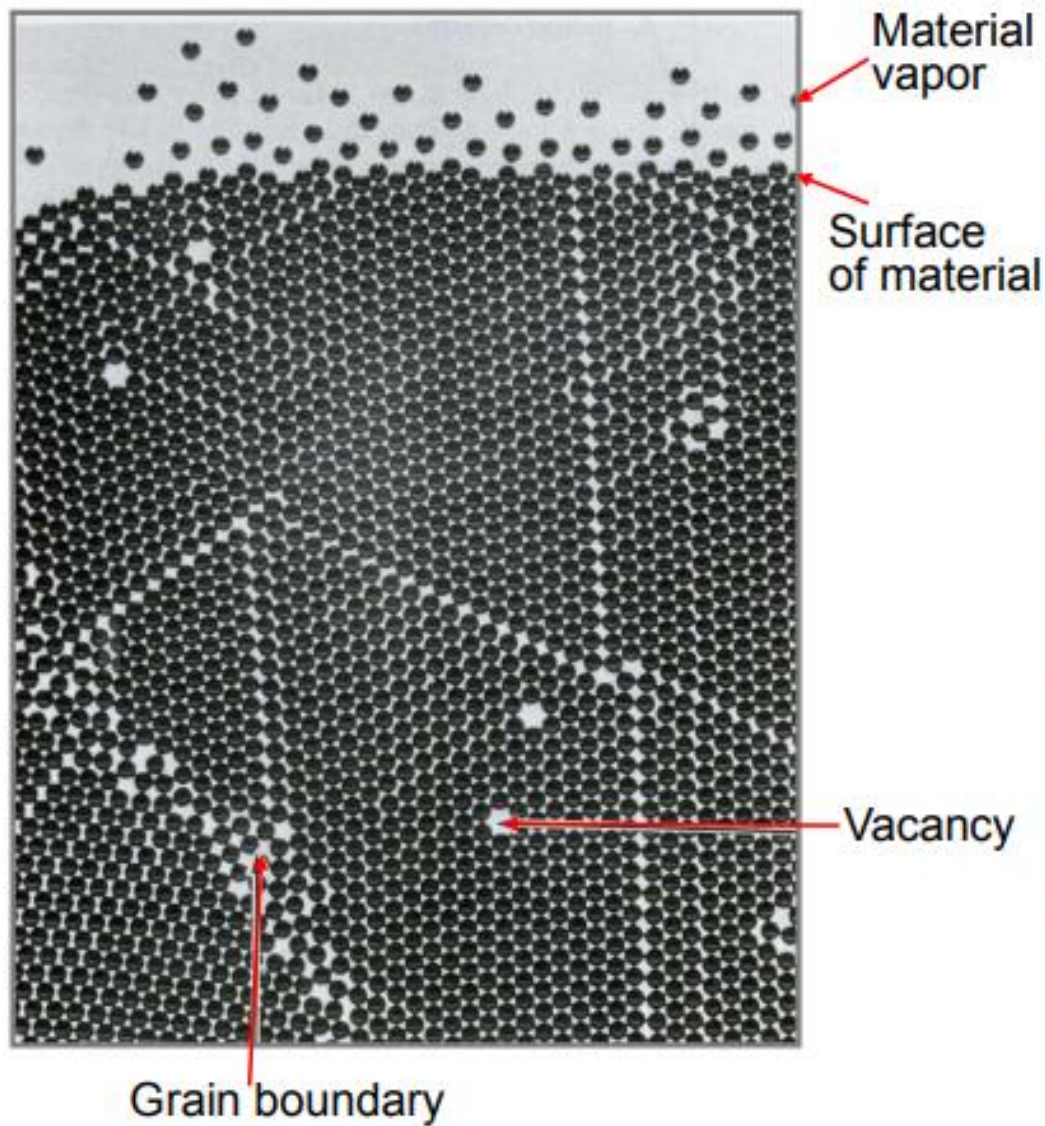
The materials paradigm represented in the form of a tetrahedron:



Perfect Structure







Ball bearings can be used to simulate how atoms are packed together in solids.

The photo shows a ball-bearing model set up to show what the grain boundaries look like in a polycrystalline material.

The model also shows up another type of defect-the vacancy-which is caused by a missing atom.

Real crystals contain large numbers of **defects** (typically **more than 10^4 per milligram**), ranging from variable amounts of impurities to missing or misplaced atoms or ions.

These defects occur for three main **reasons**:

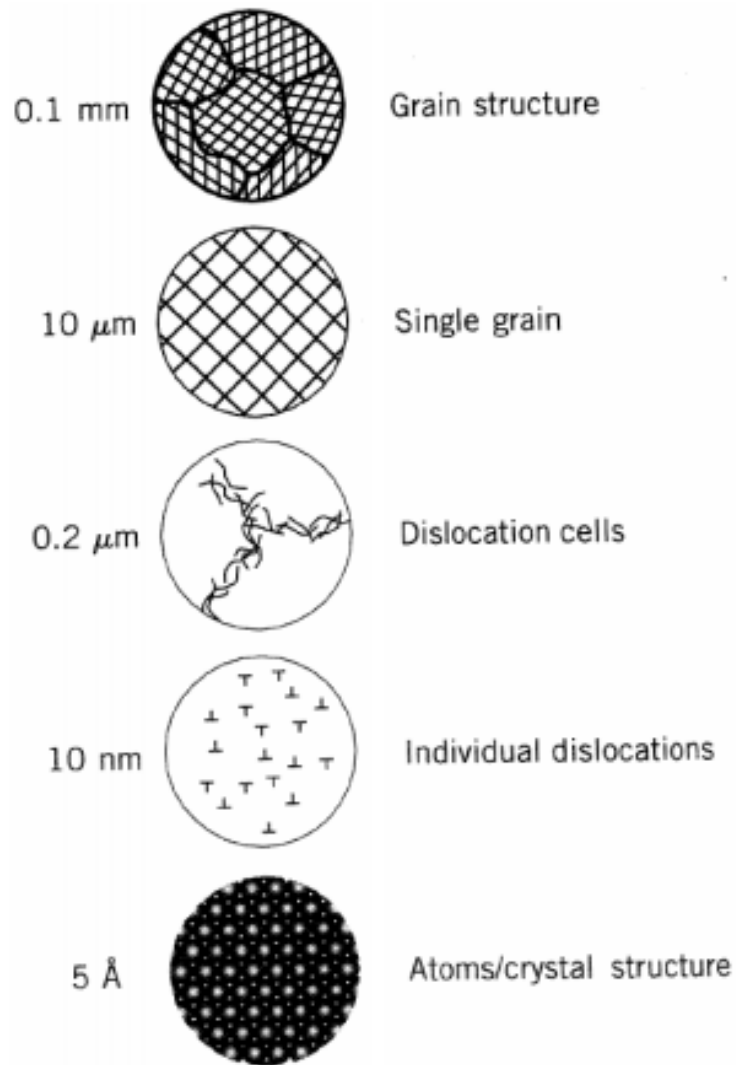
- ✓ It is impossible to obtain any substance in 100 % pure form. Some impurities are always present.
- ✓ Even if a substance were 100 % pure, forming a perfect crystal would require cooling the liquid phase infinitely slowly to allow all atoms, ions, or molecules to find their proper positions. Cooling at more realistic rates usually results in one or more components being trapped in the “wrong” place in a lattice or in areas where two lattices that grew separately intersect.
- ✓ Applying an external stress to a crystal, such as a hammer blow, can cause microscopic regions of the lattice to move with respect to the rest, thus resulting in imperfect alignment.

Crystal Defects and Microstructure in Materials Science

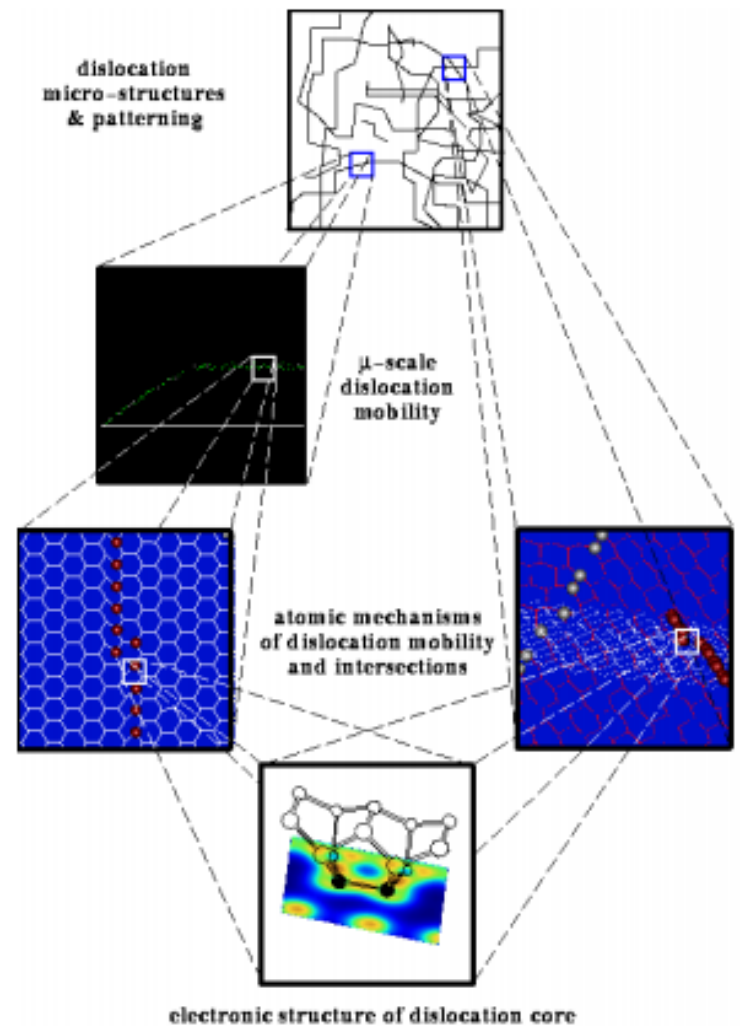
Defects have a profound impact on the various properties of materials:

- ✓ **mechanical** (plasticity, failure),
- ✓ **optical** (e.g., color centers),
- ✓ **thermal** and **electrical transport** (e.g., scattering of phonons and electrons),
- ✓ **electronic** (e.g., doping of semiconductors), etc.

Structural hierarchy, characteristic length- and time-scales



from Allen & Thomas, The Structure of Materials



modeling of dislocations in semiconductors
V. Bulatov, LLNL

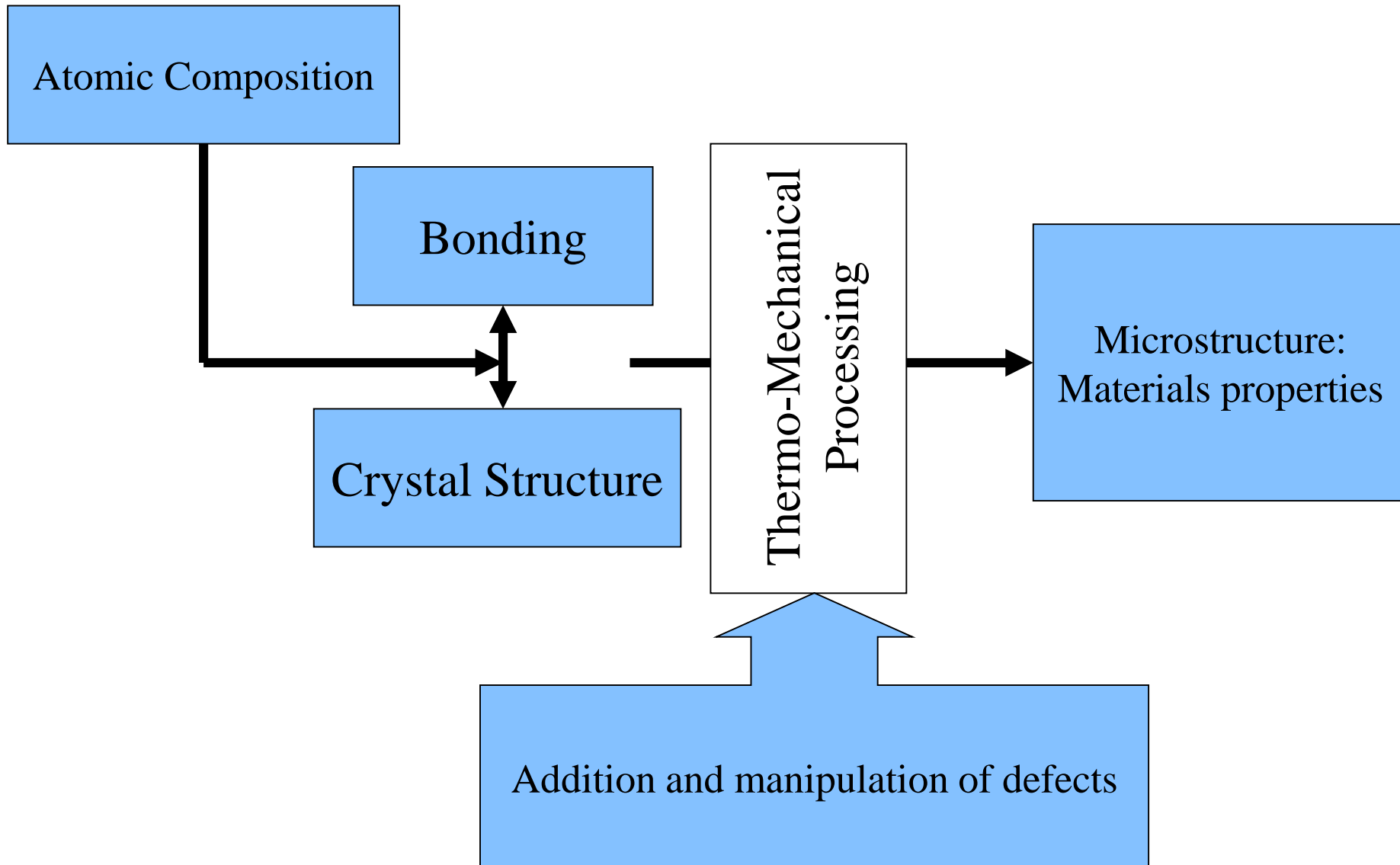
Crystal Defects → Material Properties

The effect of microstructure on material properties is defined by characteristics of individual defects:

- ✓ **Structural** - distortion of crystalline atomic arrangements
- ✓ **Electronic** - local modification of electronic structure
- ✓ **Chemical** - enhanced reactivity of defect sites
- ✓ **Scattering** - interaction with phonons, photons, electrons, positrons
- ✓ **Thermodynamic** - enthalpies and entropies of defects
- ✓ **Kinetic** - mobility of defects
- ✓ **Elastic** - defects can be softer or stiffer than perfect crystal ... etc.

and the **collective** behavior of the totality of crystal defects (microstructure).

Imperfections in Solids



Why defect are important?

There are a lot of properties that are controlled or affected by defects, for example:

- ✓ **Electric and thermal conductivity in metals** (strongly reduced by point defects).
- ✓ **Electronic conductivity in semi-conductors** (controlled by substitution defects).
- ✓ **Diffusion** (controlled by vacancies).
- ✓ **Ionic conductivity** (controlled by vacancies).
- ✓ **Plastic deformation in crystalline materials** (controlled by dislocation).
- ✓ **Colors** (affected by defects).
- ✓ **Mechanical strength** (strongly depended on defects).

Defects in crystalline solids are important because they modify properties.

For example:

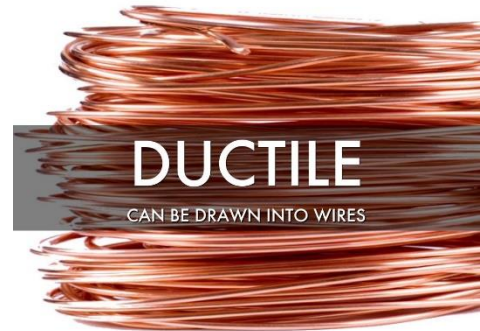
- ✓ just a trace of chromium impurity changes colourless aluminium oxide into ruby;
- ✓ metals are ductile when linear defects (dislocations) are free to move;
- ✓ crystals dissolve and react at increased rates at points where dislocations intersect external surfaces.



Al_2O_3

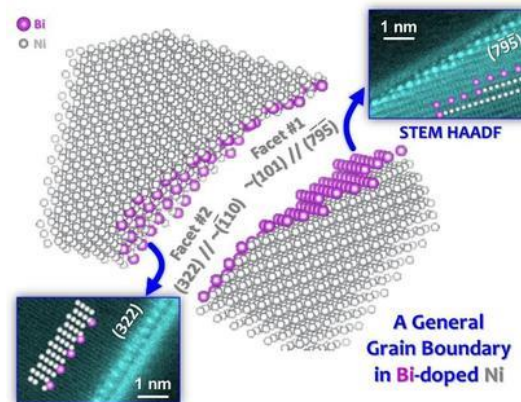


Ruby
 $\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3 + \text{Cr}^{3+}$



DUCTILE

CAN BE DRAWN INTO WIRES



Imperfections in Solids

Is it enough to know bonding and structure of materials to estimate their macro properties ?

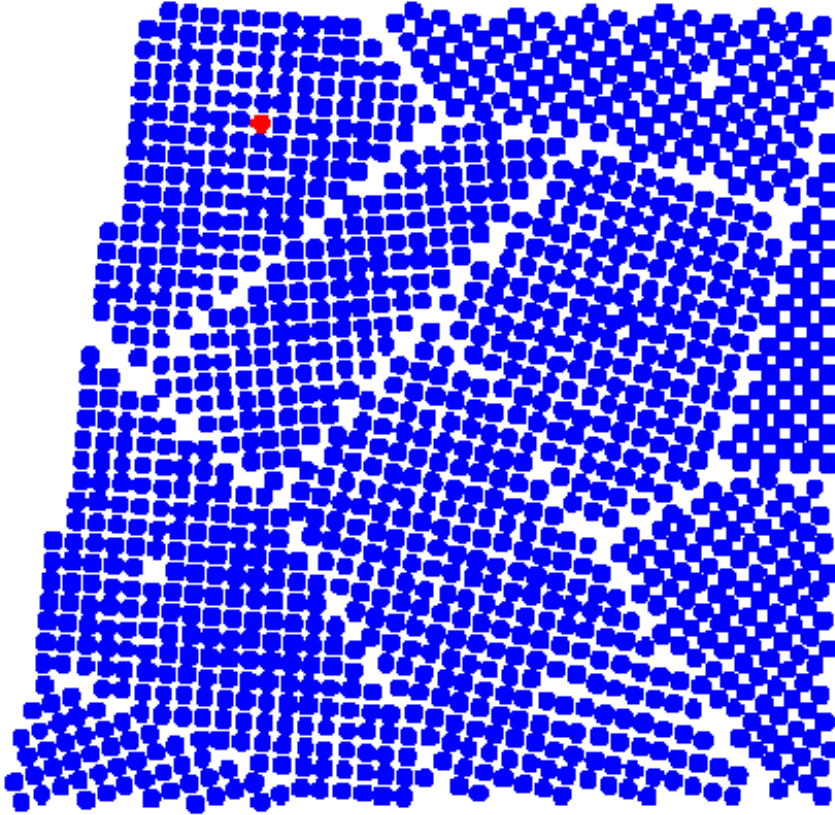
BONDING
+
STRUCTURE

+
DEFECTS

PROPERTIES

Defects do have a significant impact on the properties of materials

Imperfections in Solids



Schematic drawing of a poly-crystal with many defects by Helmut Föll, University of Kiel, Germany.

Defects around us:

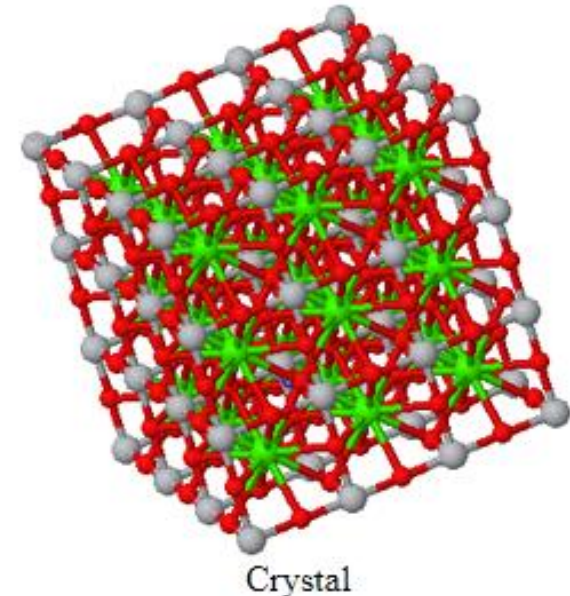
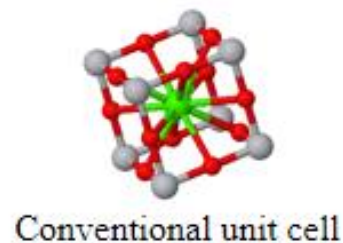
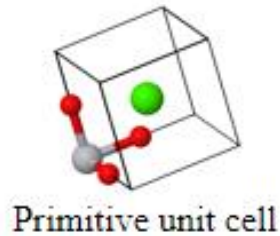
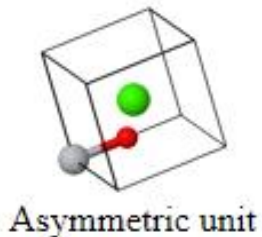
- A- Color/Price of Precious Stones
- B- Mechanical Properties of Metals
- C- Properties of Semiconductors
- D- Corrosion of Metals

Crystal structure

Crystal structure is a description of the ordered arrangement of atoms, ions or molecules in a crystalline material.

Ordered structures occur from the intrinsic nature of the constituent particles to form symmetric patterns that repeat along the principal directions of three-dimensional space in matter.

In a crystal, atoms are arranged in straight rows in a three-dimensional periodic pattern. A small part of the crystal that can be repeated to form the entire crystal is called a **unit cell**.



Devices such as **solid state transistors**, **lasers**, **solar cells**, and **light emitting diodes** are often made from **single crystals**.

Many materials, including most **metals** and **ceramics**, are **polycrystalline**. This means there are many little crystals packed together where the orientation between the crystals is random.



**monocrystalline
solar panel**



wiseGEEK

solid state transistors



**light emitting diodes
(LED)**

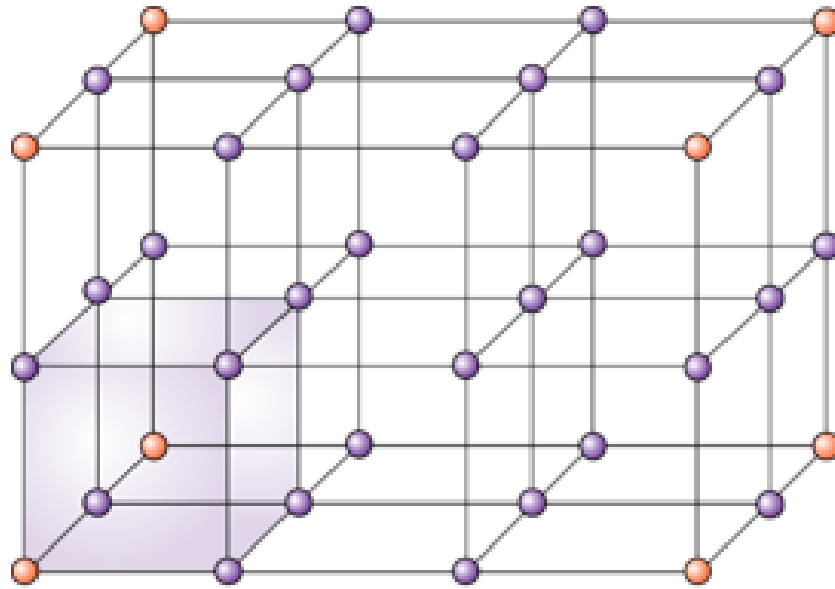


laser

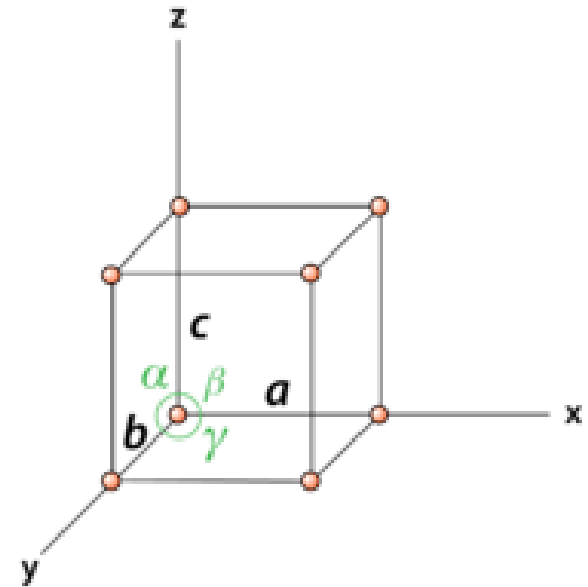
Unit cell

The **unit cell** is the smallest repeating unit having the full symmetry of the crystal structure.

The geometry of the unit cell is defined as a parallelepiped, providing six lattice parameters taken as the **lengths of the cell edges (a , b , c)** and the **angles between them (α , β , γ)**.

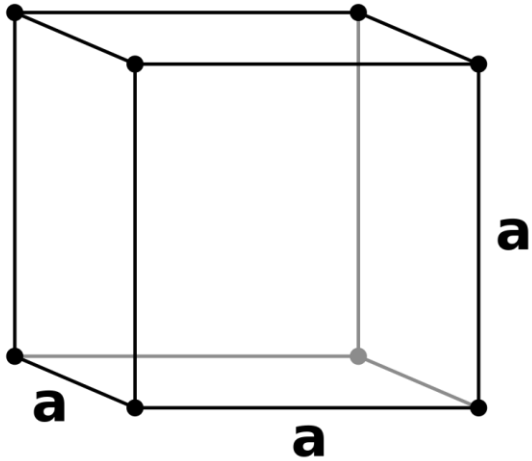


Crystal Lattice

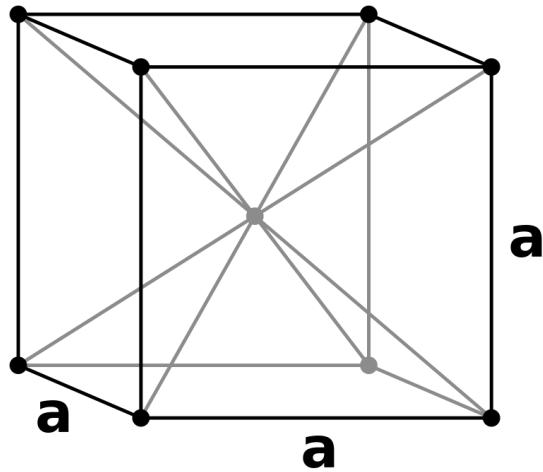


Unit Cell

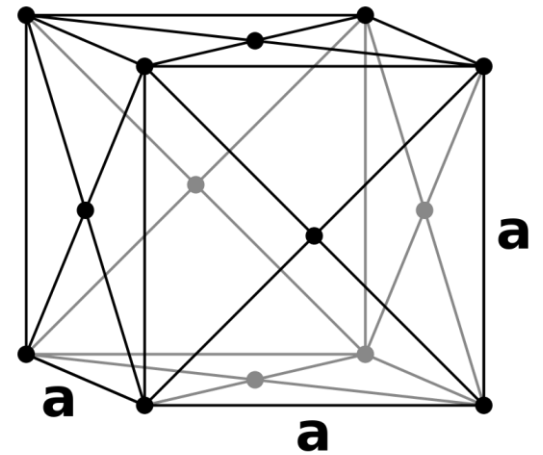
Unit cell



Simple cubic (P)

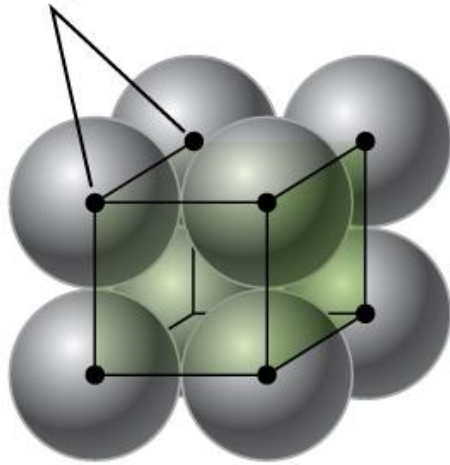


Body-centered cubic (I)



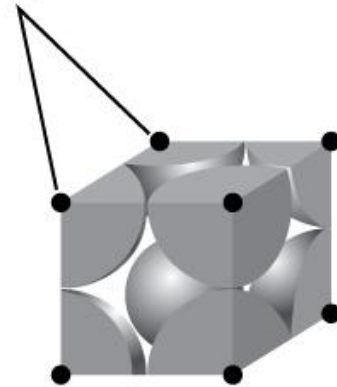
Face-centered cubic (F)

Lattice points

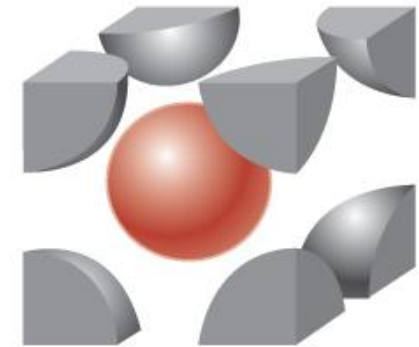
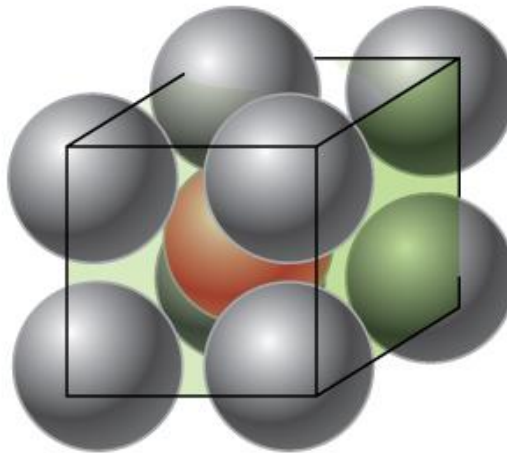
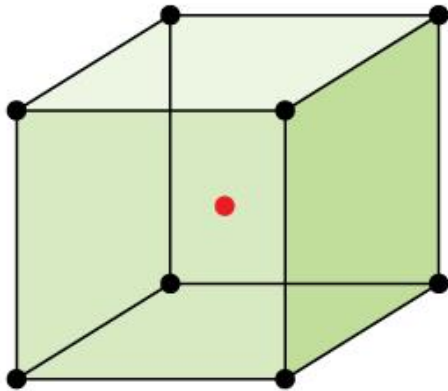


Simple cubic lattice cell

Lattice points

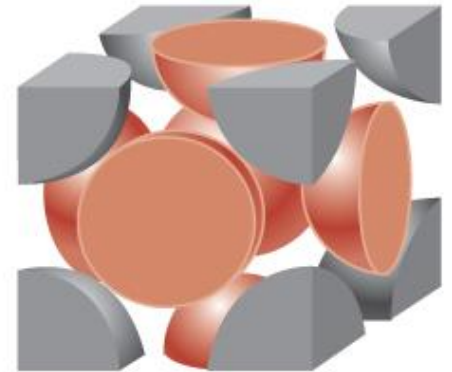
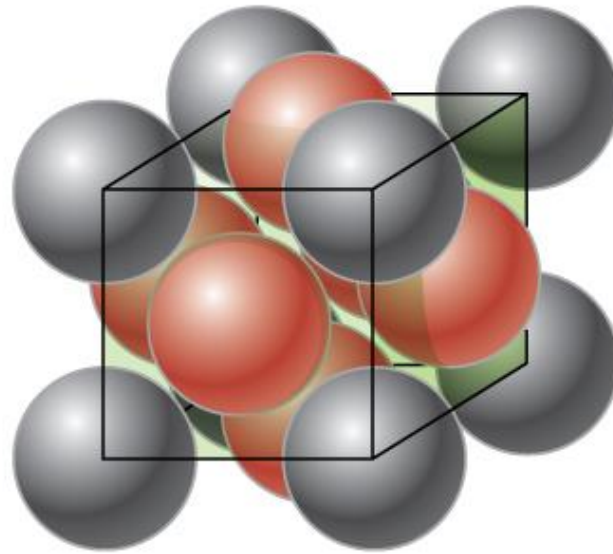
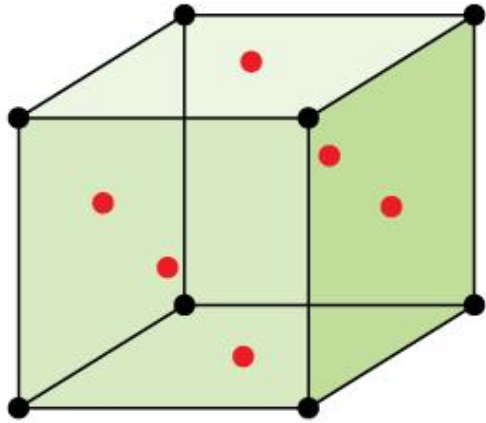


8 corners



Body-centered cubic structure

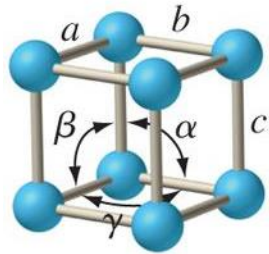
In a body-centered cubic structure, atoms in a specific layer do not touch each other. Each atom touches four atoms in the layer above it and four atoms in the layer below it.



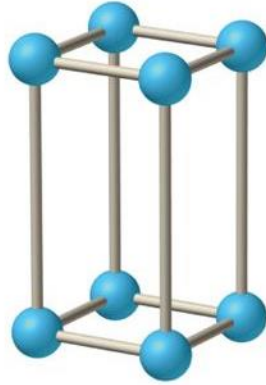
Face-centered cubic structure

A face-centered cubic (FCC) solid has atoms at the corners and, as the name implies, at the centers of the faces of its unit cells.

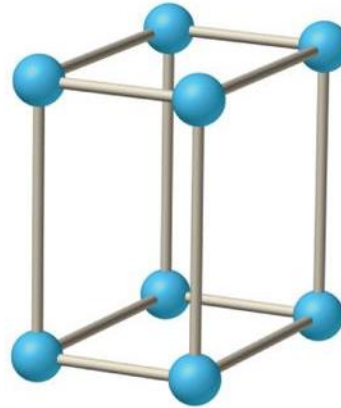
Lattice systems



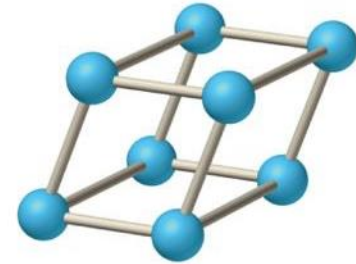
Simple cubic
 $a = b = c$
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$



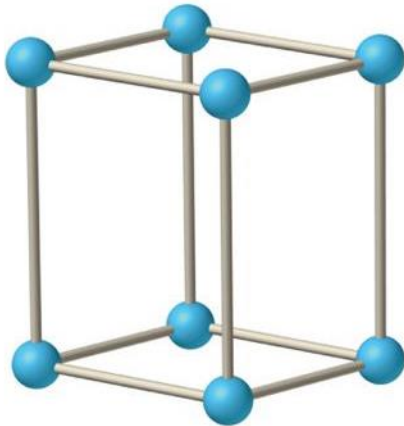
Tetragonal
 $a = b \neq c$
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$



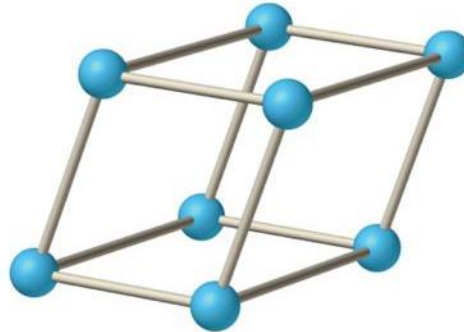
Orthorhombic
 $a \neq b \neq c$
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma = 90^\circ$



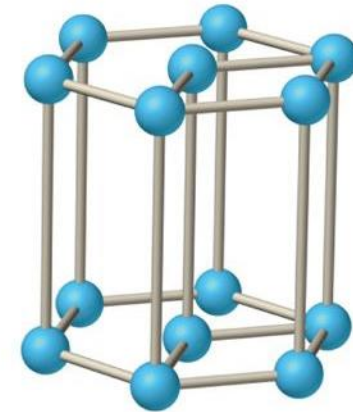
Rhombohedral
 $a = b = c$
 $\alpha = \beta = \gamma \neq 90^\circ$



Monoclinic
 $a \neq b \neq c$
 $\gamma \neq \alpha = \beta = 90^\circ$



Triclinic
 $a \neq b \neq c$
 $\alpha \neq \beta \neq \gamma \neq 90^\circ$



Hexagonal
 $a = b \neq c$
 $\alpha = \beta = 90^\circ, \gamma = 120^\circ$

14 Bravais lattices

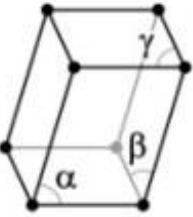
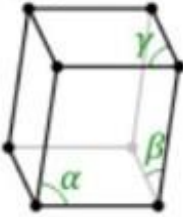
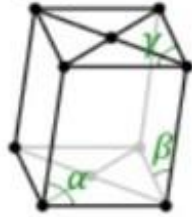
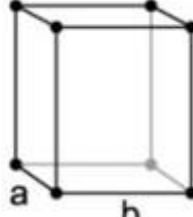
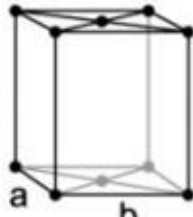
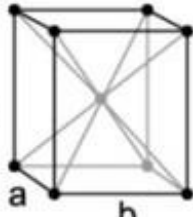
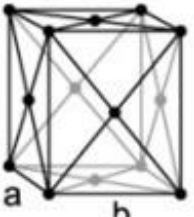
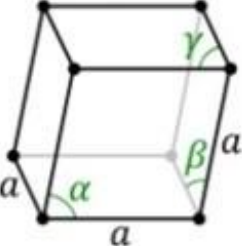


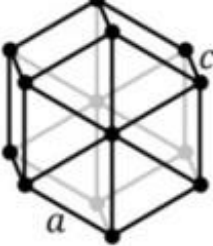
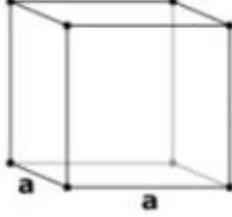
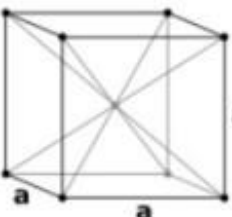
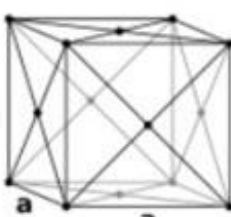
- ✓ There are 7 different kinds of crystal systems, and each kind of crystal system has 4 different kinds of centering (Primitive, Base-centered, Body-centered, Face-centered).
- ✓ However, not all of the combinations are unique; some of the combinations are equivalent while other combinations are not possible due to symmetry reasons.
- ✓ This reduces the number of unique lattices to the **14 Bravais lattices**.

Auguste Bravais (1811–1863) was a French physicist known for his work in crystallography, the conception of Bravais lattices.

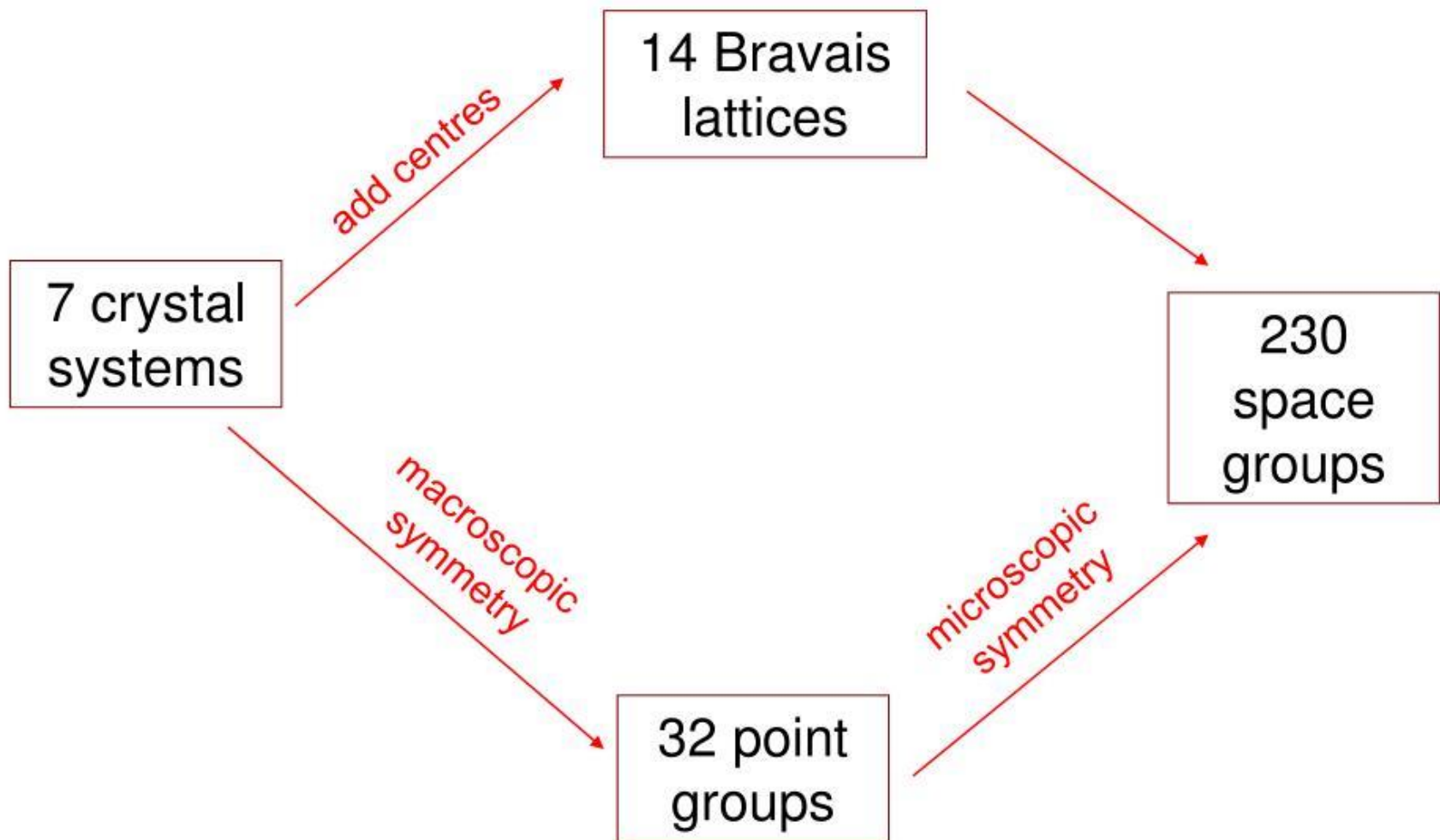


14 Bravais lattices

✓ The distribution of the 14 Bravais lattices into lattice systems and crystal families is given in the following table:

$\alpha, \beta, \gamma \neq 90^\circ$ 	$\alpha \neq 90^\circ$ $\beta, \gamma = 90^\circ$  Centered	$\alpha \neq 90^\circ$ $\beta, \gamma = 90^\circ$  Simple	$a \neq b \neq c$     Simple Base Centered Face Centered Body Centered			
Triclinic	Monoclinic		Orthorhombic			
$\alpha, \beta, \gamma \neq 90^\circ$ 	$a \neq c$  Simple	$a \neq c$  Body Centered	$a \neq c$ 	   Simple Body Centered Face Centered		
Rhombohedral	Tetragonal		Hexagonal	Cubic (or isometric)		

space groups locate atoms within a cell:
help solve unknown structure



Perfect and Imperfect Crystals

Perfect crystal :

all the atoms are on their correct lattice positions (only true at 0 K)

- ✓ can be obtained, hypothetically, only at absolute zero
- ✓ $S = 0$

$$S = k \ln W$$

In some crystals, the number of defects may be very small, 1%, as in, e.g., high-purity diamond or quartz.

Real Crystals = Imperfect Crystals

Imperfect crystal – at all real temperatures.

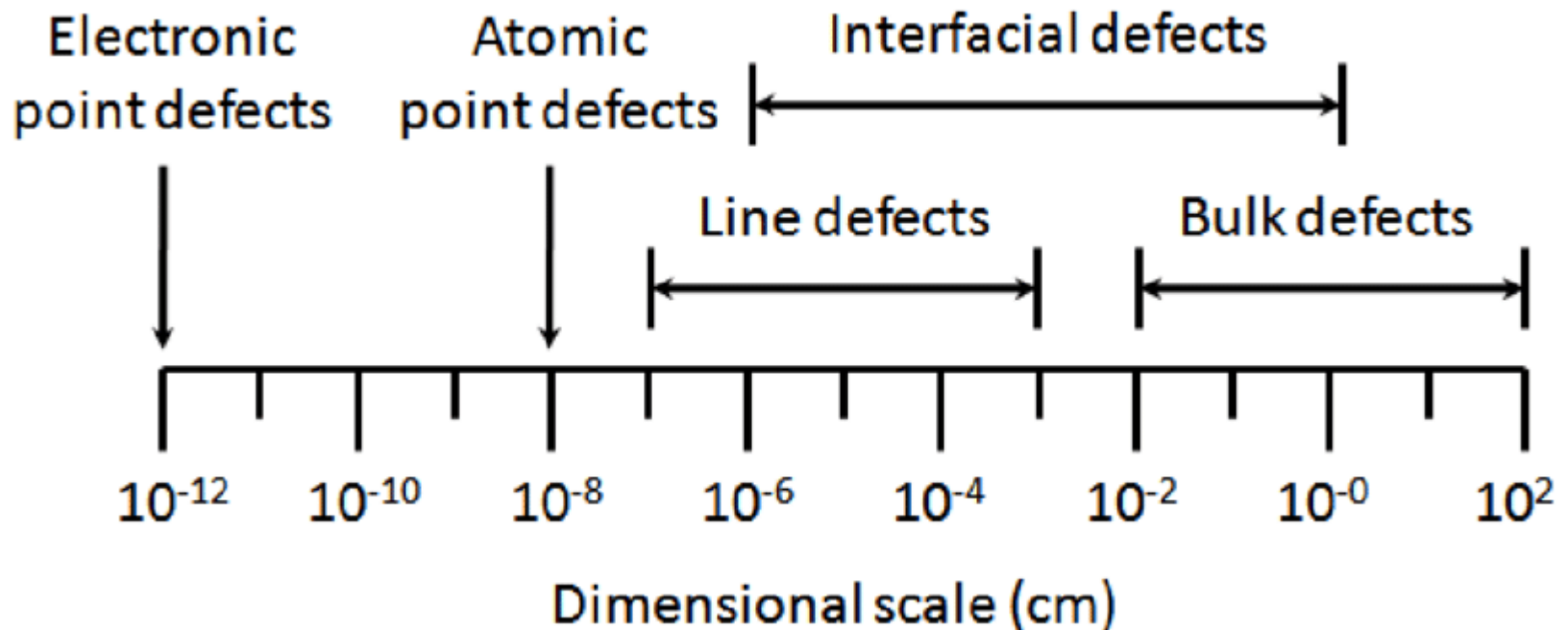
Real crystal: atoms vibrate

- ✓ There positions that are not occupied (vacancies)
- ✓ atoms displaced from ideal positions
- ✓ There are defects that modify the properties

Extended defects

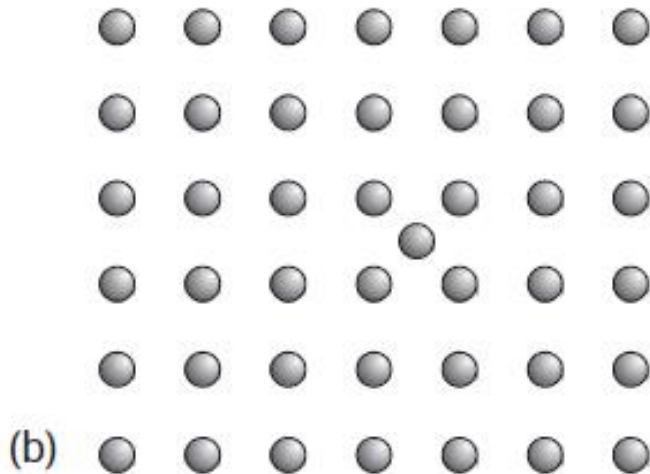
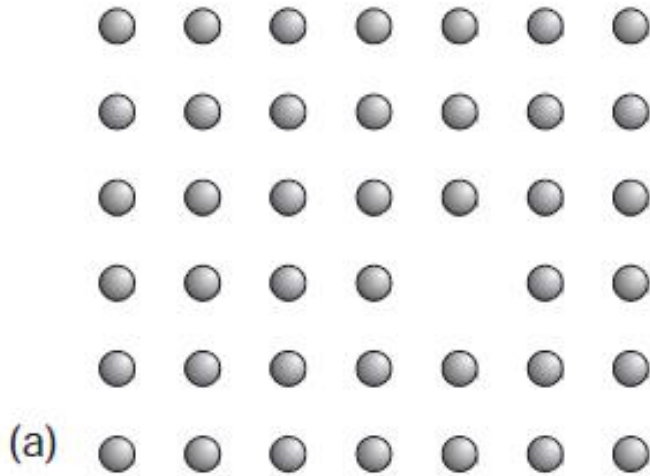
- Dislocations
- Grain boundaries
- Stacking faults
- Twinning

Various classes of imperfections over the size range



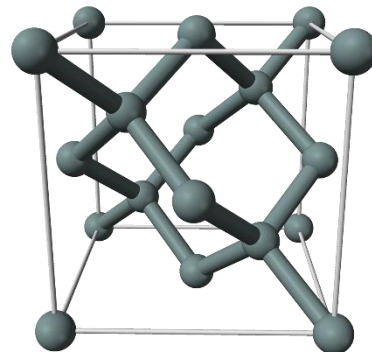
Defects in crystals of elements

- ✓ Crystals of solid elements such as silicon contain only one atom type.
- ✓ The simplest localized defect that we can imagine in a crystal is a mistake at a **single atom site**. These defects are called **point defects**.
- ✓ Two types of point defect can occur in a pure crystal: an atom can be absent from a normally occupied position, to create a **vacancy**, or an atom can occupy a position normally empty to form an **interstitial** (Fig.).
- ✓ Such vacancies and interstitials, which occur in even the purest of materials, are called **intrinsic defects**.

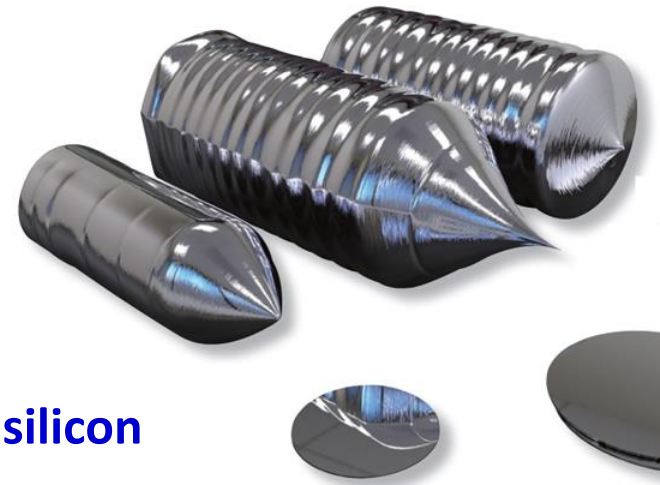


Point defects in pure crystals such as silicon:

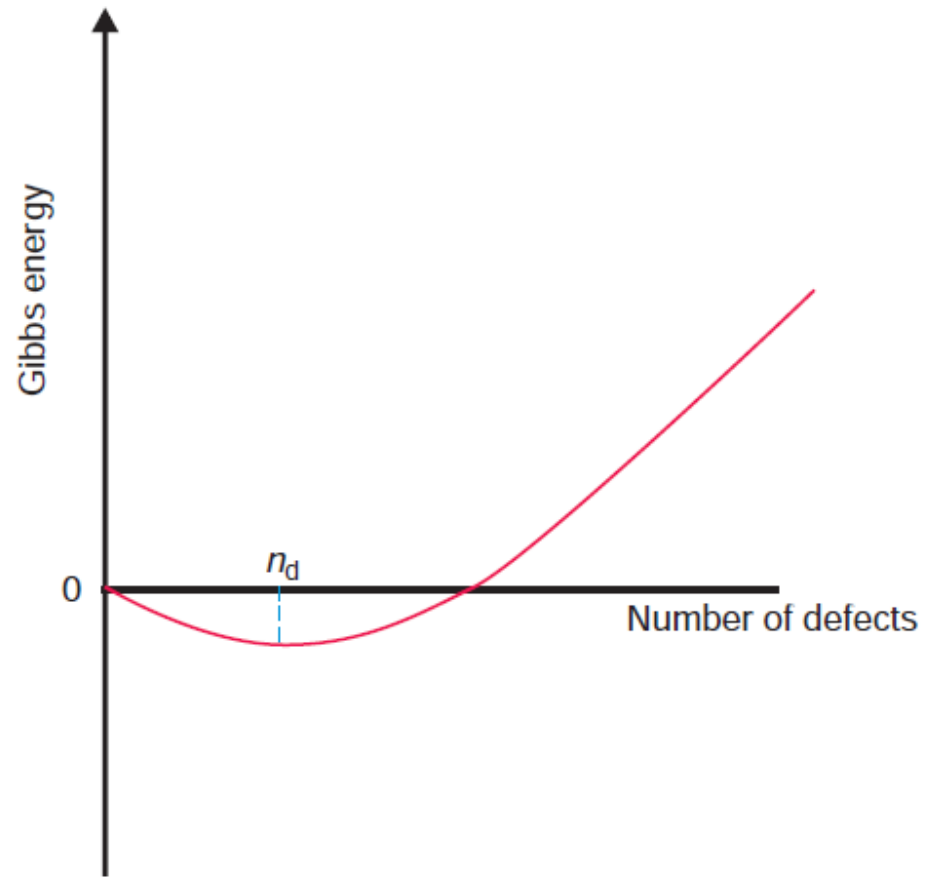
- (a) a vacancy;
- (b) an interstitial.



silicon



- ✓ For these defects (vacancy and interstitial) to be stable, the Gibbs energy of a crystal containing defects must be less than the Gibbs energy of a crystal without defects.
- ✓ Initially, a population of defects lowers the Gibbs energy, but ultimately large numbers of point defects results in an increase in Gibbs energy.
- ✓ The minimum in the curve represents the equilibrium situation that will exist at a given temperature (Fig.).

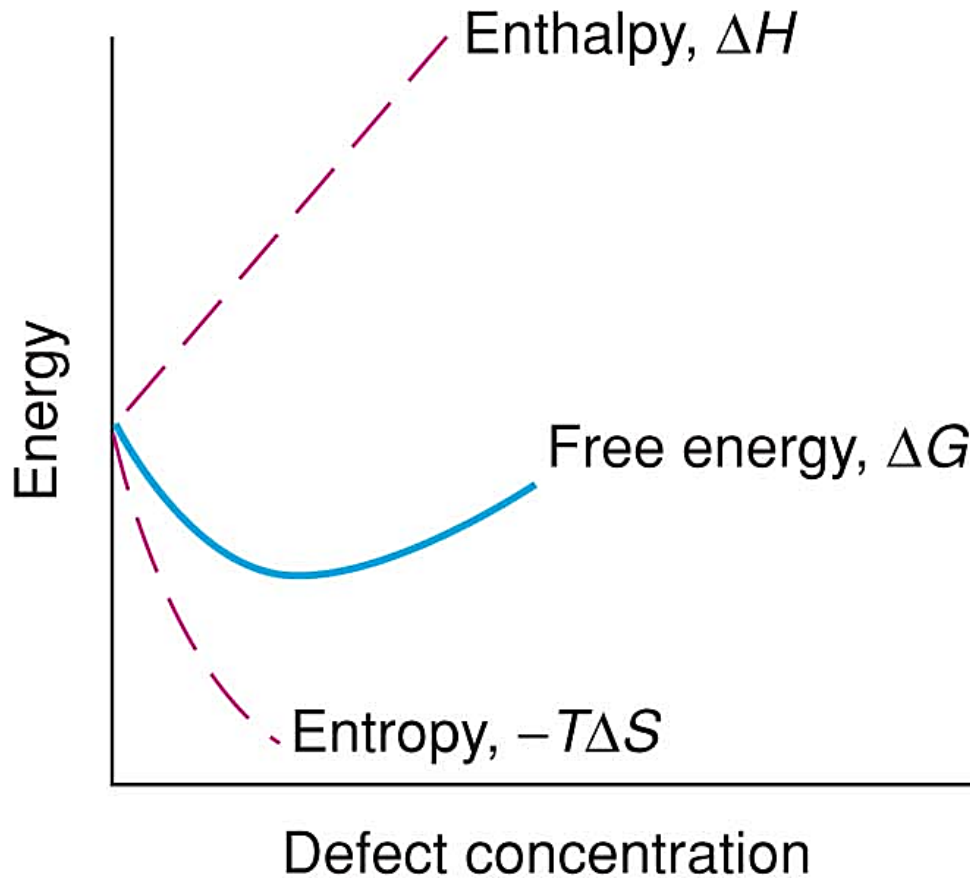


The Gibbs energy of a crystal as a function of the number of point defects present. At equilibrium, n_d defects are present in the crystal.

- ✓ The creating a single defect, say a vacant cation site, requires a certain amount of energy, H , but causes a considerable increase in entropy, S , because of the large number of positions which this defect can occupy.
- ✓ Thus, if the crystal contains 1 mol of cations, there are $\sim 10^{23}$ possible positions for the vacancy.
- ✓ The entropy gained is called *configurational entropy* and is given by the Boltzmann equation: **$S = k \ln W$**

where the probability, W , is proportional to 10^{23} ;
other, smaller, entropy changes are also present due to the disturbance of the crystal structure in the neighborhood of the defect.

- ✓ As a result of this increase in entropy, the enthalpy required to form the defect initially is more than offset by the gain in entropy.
- ✓ Consequently, the free energy, given by **$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$** decreases.



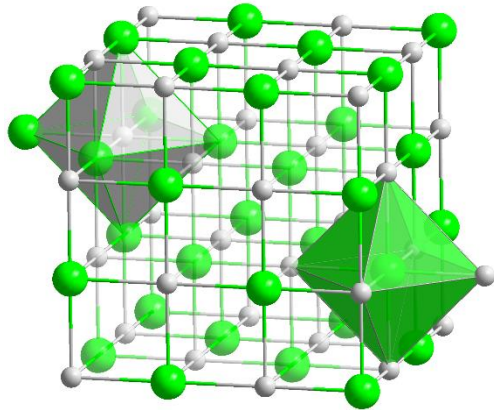
$$\Delta G = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

- ✓ Energy is required to form a defect (endothermic process)
- ✓ Although there is a cost in energy, there is a gain in entropy in the formation of a defect.

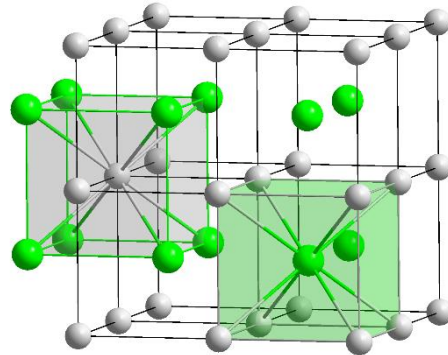
Energy changes on introducing defects into a perfect crystal

Predominant point defects in various ionic crystals

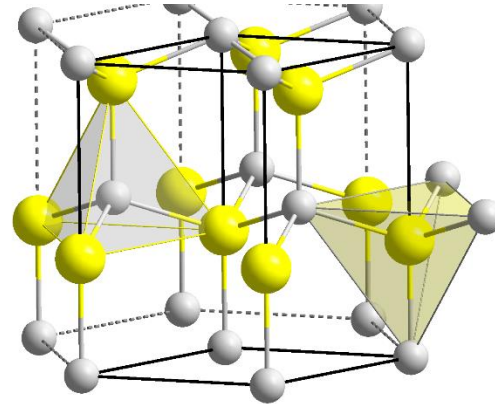
Crystal	Crystal structure	Predominant intrinsic defect
Alkali halides (not Cs)	Rock salt, NaCl	Schottky
Alkaline earth oxides	Rock salt	Schottky
AgCl, AgBr	Rock salt	Cation Frenkel
Cs halides, TlCl	CsCl	Schottky
BeO	Wurtzite, ZnS	Schottky
Alkaline earth fluorides, CeO_2 , ThO_2	Fluorite, CaF_2	Anion Frenkel



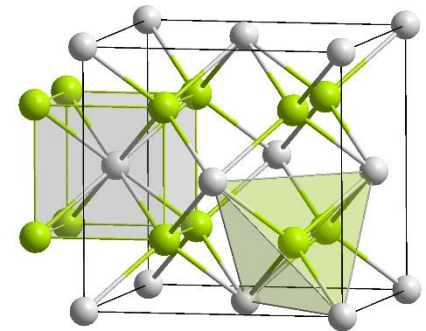
NaCl



CsCl



ZnS
wurtzite



CaF₂

ESTIMATING VACANCY CONC.

- Find the equil. # of vacancies in 1m^3 of Cu at 1000°C .
- Given:

$$\rho = 8.4 \text{ g/cm}^3 \quad A_{\text{Cu}} = 63.5\text{g/mol}$$

$$Q_V = 0.9\text{eV/atom} \quad N_A = 6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ atoms/mole}$$

$$\frac{N_D}{N} = \exp\left(\frac{-Q_D}{kT}\right) = 2.7 \cdot 10^{-4}$$

↖ 0.9eV/atom
↙ 1273K
↘ $8.62 \times 10^{-5} \text{ eV/atom-K}$

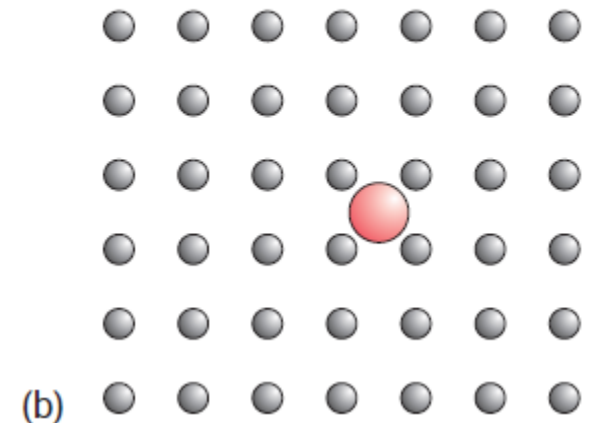
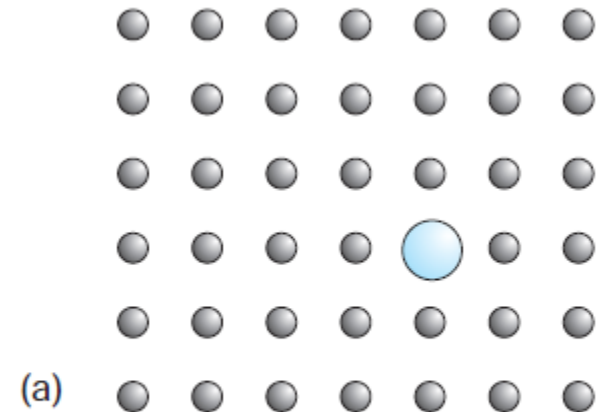
For 1m^3 , $N = \rho \times \frac{N_A}{A_{\text{Cu}}} \times 1\text{m}^3 = 8.0 \times 10^{28}$ sites

- Answer:

$$N_D = 2.7 \cdot 10^{-4} \cdot 8.0 \times 10^{28} \text{ sites} = 2.2 \times 10^{25} \text{ vacancies}$$

LOWER END ESTIMATION !

- ✓ No material is completely pure, and foreign atoms will be present.
- ✓ If these are undesirable or accidental, they are known as **impurities**, but if they have been added deliberately, to change the properties of the material on purpose, they are called **dopants**.
- ✓ Foreign atoms can rest in sites normally occupied by the parent atom type to form **substitutional defects**.
- ✓ Foreign atoms may also occupy normally empty positions to create **interstitial impurities** or **interstitial dopants** (Fig.).
- ✓ There is no simple thermodynamic formula for the number of impurities present in a crystal.



Impurity or dopant point defects in a crystal:

- (a) substitutional;
(b) interstitial.

Thermodynamics of defect formation

Perfect \rightarrow imperfect

n vacancies created

$$\Delta G = G_{\text{def}} - G_{\text{per}} = \Delta H - T\Delta S$$

$$\Delta H = n \Delta H_i$$

ΔH_i : **enthalpy of formation of one vacant site**

$$\Delta S = \Delta S_{\text{osc}} + \Delta S_c$$

ΔS_{osc} : **change of oscillation entropy of atoms surrounding the vacancy**

ΔS_c : **change in configurational entropy of system on vacancies formation**

Concentration of defects

The idea that the second law of thermodynamics or "entropy law" is a law of disorder (or that dynamically ordered states are "infinitely improbable") is due to Boltzmann's view of the second law of thermodynamics.

The **Boltzmann formula** tells us that the entropy of such a system is:

$$S = k \ln W$$

where:

W is the number of ways of distributing ns defects over N possible sites at random,
k is the Boltzmann constant (1.38×10^{-23} J/K)

Probability theory shows that W is given by:

$$W = \frac{N!}{(N-n)!n!}$$

N! is 'factorial N'. $N \times (N-1) \times (N-2) \dots \times 1$



Boltzmann's grave in the Zentralfriedhof (Vienna) with bust and entropy formula.

Schottky Defects

Compound	ΔH (10^{-19} J)	ΔH (eV)
MgO	10.57	6.60
CaO	9.77	6.10
LiF	3.75	2.34
LiCl	3.40	2.12
LiBr	2.88	1.80
Lil	2.08	1.30
NaCl	3.69	2.30
KCl	3.62	2.26

Frenkel Defects

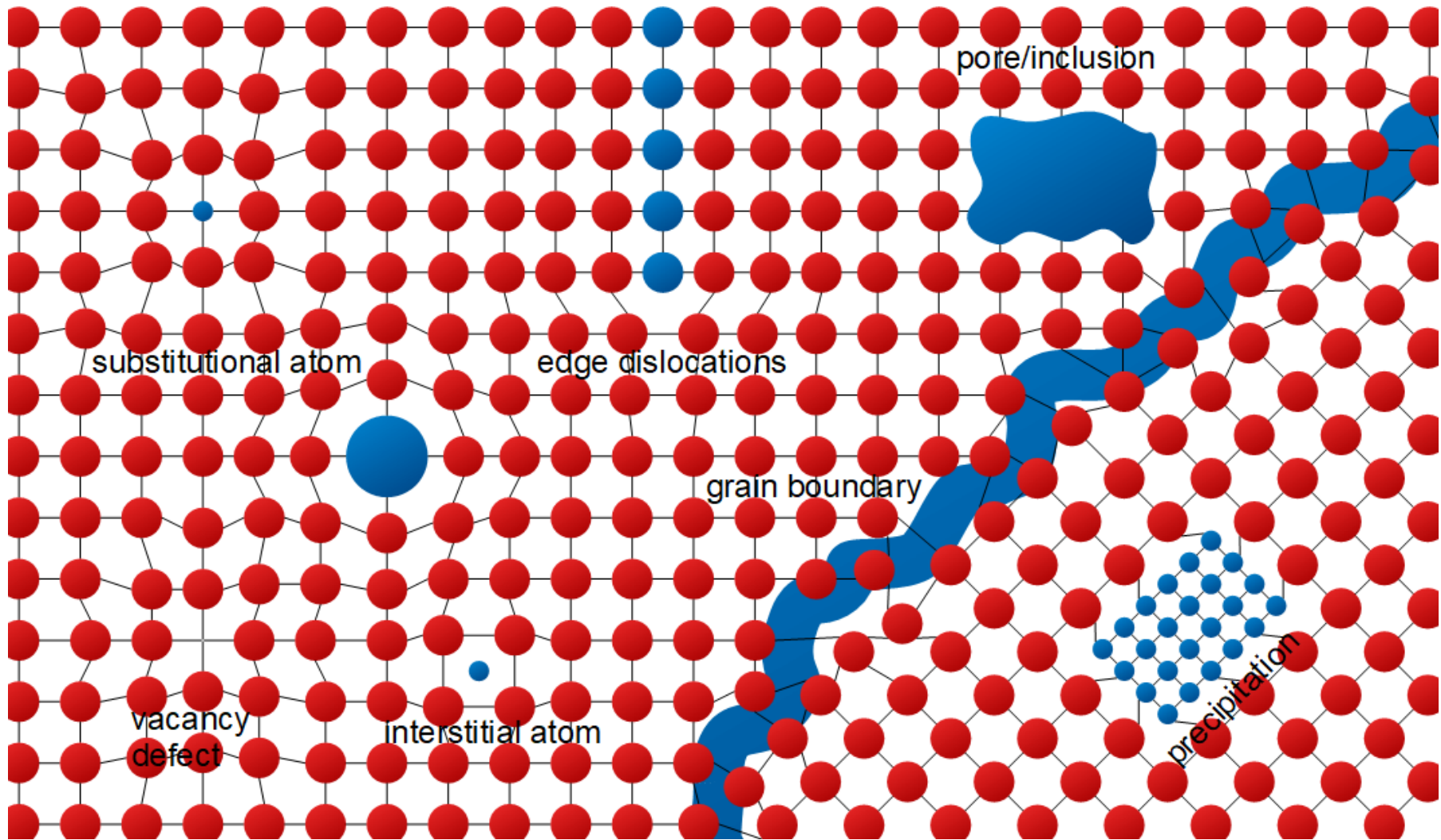
Compound	ΔH (10^{-19} J)	ΔH (eV)
UO ₂	5.45	3.40
ZrO ₂	6.57	4.10
CaF ₂	4.49	2.80
SrF ₂	1.12	0.70
AgCl	2.56	1.60
AgBr	1.92	1.20
β -AgI	1.12	0.70

NaCl ($T_f=801\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$) $\Delta H_s = 3.69 \times 10^{-19}\text{ J}$
T=300K $n_s = 2.64 \times 10^4$ vacancies/mol
T=1000K $n_s = 9.38 \times 10^{17}$ vacancies/mol

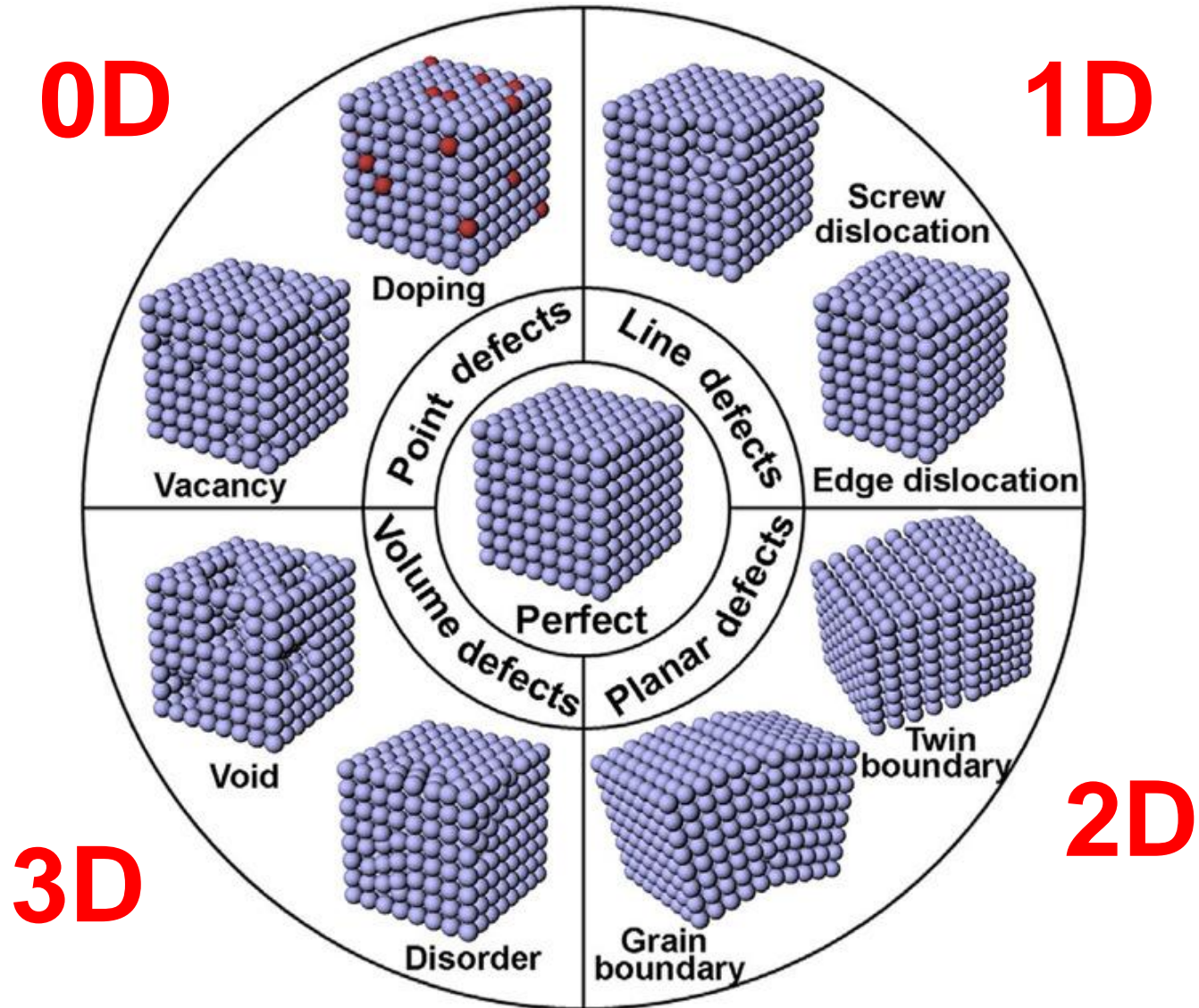
MgO $\Delta H_s = 10.57 \times 10^{-19}\text{ J}$
T=300K $n_s = 2.12 \times 10^{-32}$ vacancies/mol
T=1000K $n_s = 1.39 \times 10^7$ vacancies/mol

$\Delta H_s(\text{MgO}) > \Delta H_s(\text{NaCl})$
 $\Rightarrow n_s$ low, more difficult to create vacancies.

- ✓ Real crystals do not have a perfect lattice structure but show so-called *crystallographic defects*.
- ✓ At these defects, the real lattice deviates from the idealized perfect structure.

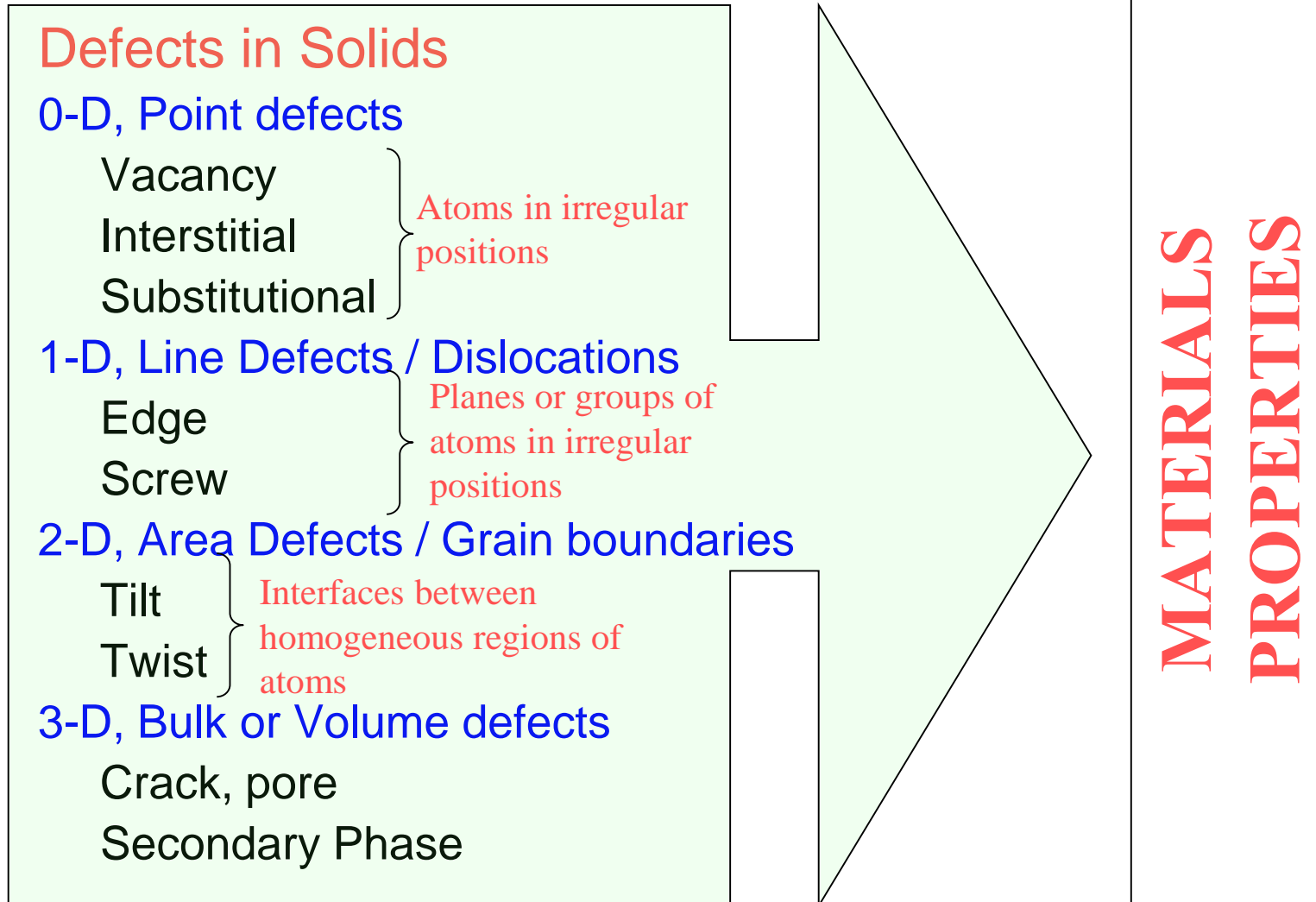


Defects may be classified into four categories based on their dimension:



Imperfections in Solids

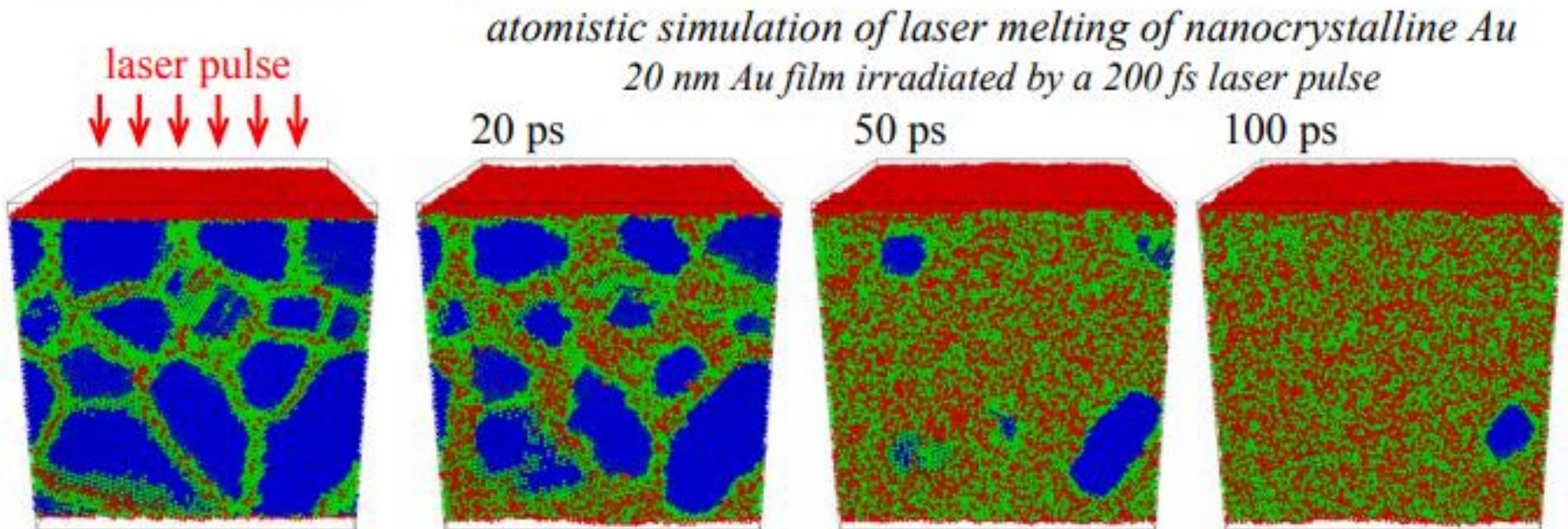
Crystals in nature are never perfect, they have *defects* !



Crystal Defects → Material Properties

Even properties that are normally not affected by defects can become sensitive to microstructure at very high defect densities.

Example: melting of nanocrystalline materials



Melting starts at grain boundaries, temperature drops (energy goes into $\Delta H_m \times V_l$).
Melting continues even after T drops below the equilibrium melting temperature T_m at ~ 30 ps and the last crystalline region disappears at ~ 250 ps.

Lin, Leveugle, Bringa, Zhigilei, *J. Phys. Chem. C* **114**, 5686, 2010

Impurities / Solid Solutions

- **Impurities** are atoms which are different from the host/matrix
- All solids in nature contain some level of impurity
 - Very pure metals 99.9999%
 - For Cu how much does that make ? ~ 1 impurity per 100 atoms
- Impurities may be introduced intentionally or unintentionally.
 - Examples: carbon added in small amounts to iron makes steel, which is stronger than pure iron. Boron is added to silicon change its electrical properties. Pt and Cu are added to Gold to make it stronger, also!
- Alloys - deliberate mixtures of metals
 - Example: sterling silver is 92.5% silver – 7.5% copper alloy. Stronger than pure silver.