

Mechanism for Hydrothermal-carbothermal Synthesis of AlN Nanopowders

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Abstract: Currently, the carbothermal reduction-nitridation (CRN) process is the predominant method for preparing aluminum nitride (AlN) powder. Although AlN powder prepared by CRN process exhibits high purity and excellent sintering activity, it also presents challenges such as the necessity for high reaction temperatures and difficulties in achieving uniform mixing of its raw materials. This study presents a comprehensive investigation into preparation process of AlN nanopowders using a combination of hydrothermal synthesis and CRN. In the hydrothermal reaction, a homogeneous composite precursor consisting of carbon and boehmite (γ -AlOOH) is synthesized at 200 °C using aluminum nitrate as the aluminum source, sucrose as the carbon source, and urea as the precipitant. During the hydrothermal process, the precursor develops a core-shell structure, with boehmite tightly coated with carbon (γ -AlOOH@C) due to electrostatic attraction. Compared with conventional precursor, the hydrothermal hybrid offers many advantages, such as ultrafine particles, uniform particle size distribution, good dispersion, high reactivity, and environmental friendliness. The carbon shell enhances thermodynamic stability of γ -Al₂O₃ compared to the corundum phase (α -Al₂O₃) by preventing the loss of the surface area in alumina. This stability enables γ -Al₂O₃ to maintain high reactivity during CRN process, which initiates at 1300 °C, and concludes at 1400 °C. The underlying mechanisms are substantiated through experiments and thermodynamic calculations. This research provides a robust theoretical and experimental foundation for the hydrothermal combined carbothermal preparation of non-oxide ceramic nanopowders.

Key words: aluminum nitride; carbothermal reduction-nitridation; mechanism; hydrothermal synthesis; precursor

Recently, aluminum nitride (AlN) has garnered significant attention due to its exceptional properties, including high intrinsic thermal conductivity (320 W/(m·K)), superior insulation performance ($>10^{14} \Omega\cdot\text{m}$), low dielectric constant and loss, a thermal expansion coefficient ($4.2\times 10^{-6} \text{ K}^{-1}$) close to that of semiconductor silicon, and non-toxicity^[1-4]. The aforementioned characteristics render AlN a highly promising substrate and packaging material for electronic applications^[5-6]. However, the sintering of AlN ceramics is challenging due to their robust covalent bonds and low diffusion coefficient^[7]. The use of ultrafine powders provides a feasible solution to alleviate the sintering difficulty

associated with AlN ceramics. AlN can be prepared using a variety of techniques, such as the carbothermal reduction-nitridation (CRN) method^[8-9], direct nitridation^[10-11], self-propagating high-temperature synthesis^[12], and gas reduction-nitridation method^[13-16]. The direct nitridation and CRN have been widely used in industry. However, the purity of AlN prepared by direct nitridation remains low, and the particles agglomerate seriously, necessitating an inevitable follow-up grinding process. AlN powders with excellent stability, easy sinterability, and high purity can be prepared using the traditional CRN process. Nevertheless, this method also encounters several limitations, including challenges in

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uniformly mixing the raw materials, the necessity for a high calcination temperature ($>1600\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$), and an extended reaction time required to achieve complete nitridation. Therefore, it is difficult to obtain high-quality AlN nanopowders by traditional CRN method. Obviously, highly reactive raw materials and homogeneously mixed precursors ($\text{Al}_2\text{O}_3+\text{C}$) are critical prerequisites for the production of high-quality ultrafine AlN powders.

The hydrothermal synthesis is a convenient method for preparing inorganic particles^[17], and has also been employed for synthesizing nanocarbon materials^[18–20]. In addition to being environmentally friendly, hydrothermal synthesis yields powders with a homogeneous, nanoscale particle size distribution, good dispersion, high reactivity, and no contaminants typically associated with physical pulverization. Furthermore, the morphology of the particles can be precisely controlled by adjusting the reaction conditions. We prepared a precursor composed of boehmite (pyrolysis to $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$) and carbon using hydrothermal synthesis^[21–23]. The CRN technique was then applied to these precursors to produce AlN and AlON nanopowders with high sintering activity. Transparent AlN ceramics with a thermal conductivity of $191.8\text{ W}/(\text{m}\cdot\text{K})$ were successfully fabricated by hot-pressing sintering at $1800\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 3 h using the nanopowders with 3% (in mass) CaF_2 as an additive^[22]. Transparent AlON ceramics with a line transmittance of more than 80% were prepared by pressureless sintering at $1880\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ using AlON powders obtained *via* the hydrothermal-carbothermal method^[23].

Our previous research primarily concentrated on the impact of various experimental parameters on the synthesis of ultrafine powders. In this study, we investigated the mechanism underlying both hydrothermal and CRN processes while also explaining why hydrothermal precursors confer advantages in CRN reactions.

1 Experimental

1.1 Materials and methods

Aluminum nitrate ($\text{Al}(\text{NO}_3)_3\cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$, aluminum source), urea ($\text{CO}(\text{NH}_2)_2$, precipitant), and sucrose ($\text{C}_{12}\text{H}_{22}\text{O}_{11}$, carbon source) are analytical pure reagents, which were purchased from Shanghai Titan Technology Co., Ltd., Shanghai, China. The starting materials mentioned above were dissolved in 100 mL deionized water. The content of aluminum nitrate in aqueous solution was 0.05 mol, while the molar ratio of urea to aluminum nitrate was fixed at 2 ($\text{U}/\text{Al}=2$) and the molar ratio of carbon (12 times the amount of sucrose) to aluminum nitrate was fixed at 4. Subsequently, this solution was transferred into a Teflon lined stainless steel autoclave with a

capacity of 200 mL and heated to $200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ for 12 h. After cooling, the product was filtered and washed three times with deionized water. The precipitate was processed with vacuum freeze drying to obtain precursors ($\gamma\text{-AlOOH}@C$). The precursors were then subjected to CRN in a graphite furnace at a heating rate of $10\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}/\text{min}$ until reaching the target temperature of $1100\text{--}1600\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, which was then held for 4 h under nitrogen flow at a rate of 1 L/min. Finally, the residual carbon in nitridation products was removed through calcination at $700\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$ in air for 30 min.

1.2 Characterization

The nitridation products were investigated for phase composition by an X-ray diffractometer (XRD, Rigaku Miniflex600, Tokyo, Japan) using $\text{CuK}\alpha$ radiation operated at 40 kV and 15 mA. The morphology and particle size of the precursor and AlN nanopowder were observed using a field emission scanning electron microscope (FESEM, Hitachi SU8010, Tokyo, Japan). The precursor was characterized for its microstructure and elemental composition using a transmission electron microscope (TEM, FEI Tecnai G²F20, Hillsboro, OR, USA). The high-angle annular dark field (HAADF) and mapping images were performed on the Tecnai G²F20 in scanning mode. The functional groups of hydrothermal carbon and precursors were analyzed using a Fourier transform infrared spectroscope (FTIR, Bruker Optics, Karlsruhe, Germany) with a spectral resolution of 4.0 cm^{-1} . The specific surface area and porosity of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, obtained by removing carbon after calcining the precursor at $1200\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$, were determined using an automatic surface area and porosity analyzer (Micromeritics ASAP2020C+M, Norcross, USA). The elemental and chemical states of the precursors were qualitatively and quantitatively analyzed by an X-ray photoelectron energy dispersive spectrometer (XPS, Thermo Scientific ESCALAB 250Xi, Waltham, USA).

2 Results and discussion

2.1 Core-shell structure of the precursor

XRD pattern and corresponding FESEM image of the precursor synthesized by hydrothermal process are displayed in Fig. S1. XRD pattern of the precursor exhibits strong correlation with the reference boehmite ($\gamma\text{-AlOOH}$, JCPDS NO.76-1871), indicating the presence of both amorphous carbon and crystalline boehmite, without impurity phase detected. The morphology and size of the precursor were observed, revealing a star fruit shape, with dimensions ranging from 600 to 800 nm.

As depicted in Fig. 1(a), the precursor features a core-shell

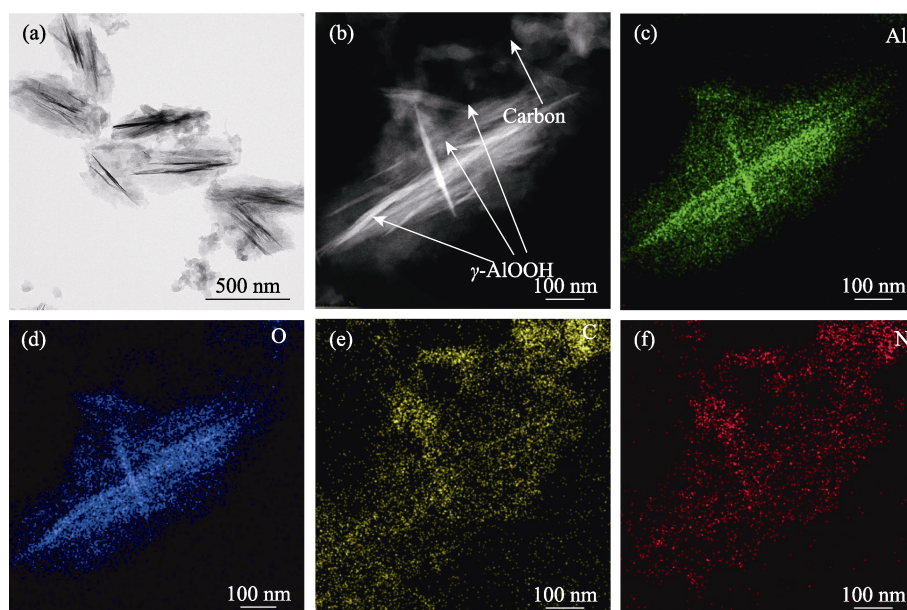


Fig. 1 TEM image, HAADF image and elemental mappings of the precursor
(a) TEM; (b) HAADF; (c-f) Elemental mappings of (c) Al, (d) O, (e) C, and (f) N

structure. The boehmite displays a well-defined shape composed of multiple stacked thin strips, which appear as black bands in the TEM bright-field image. The thickness of the boehmite crystallite is about 20 nm (Fig. S2). In contrast, the carbon exists in an amorphous state, resembling gray cloud wrapped around the surface of the boehmite.

The core-shell structure of carbon-coated boehmite is further validated by HAADF image. As illustrated in Fig. 1(b), the boehmite region appears brighter due to the higher atomic number of aluminum, whereas the hydrothermal carbon exhibits foggy appearance due to the smaller atomic numbers of its constituent elements.

Elemental mappings (Fig. 1(c-e)) indicate that aluminum and oxygen are primarily distributed within the needle-like structure of boehmite, while carbon predominantly comprises the amorphous coating. Furthermore, the presence of nitrogen doping in the hydrothermal carbon is evident in Fig. 1(f), consistent with XPS analyses (Fig. S3).

In the structure of boehmite, each Al^{3+} ion is coordinated by two bridging hydroxyl and four oxygen ions^[24], where the electrical properties of the surface can be tailored by adjusting pH of the solution (Fig. 2(a)). According to the results of XPS (Fig. S3) and FTIR (Fig. S4) spectra, the carbon structure consists of C=C and C-C bonds, forming a

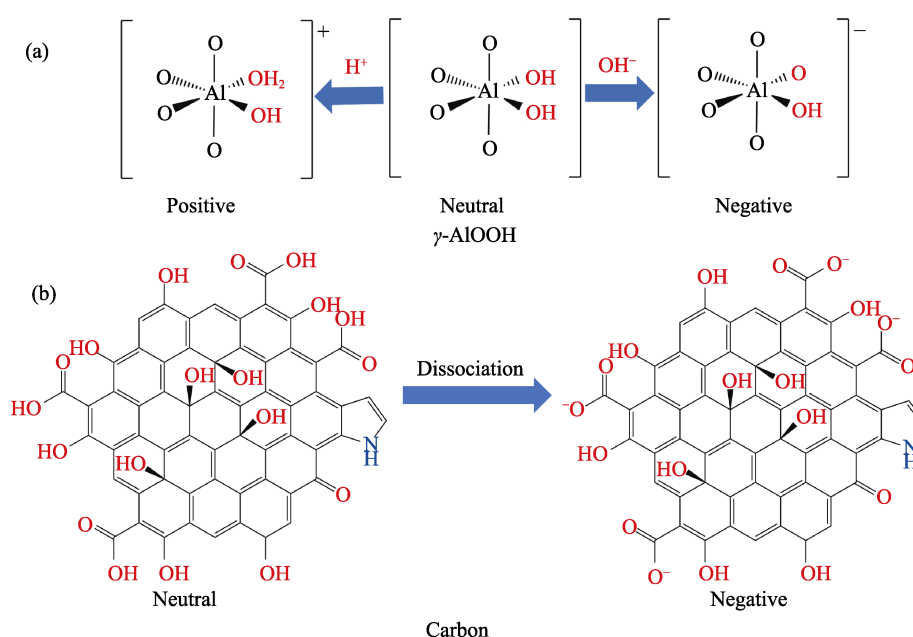


Fig. 2 (a) $\gamma\text{-AlOOH}$ and (b) carbon electrically charged in an aqueous solution

skeleton interlinked with numerous oxygen-containing functional groups such as $-\text{OH}$, $-\text{COOH}$, and a minor amount of $-\text{NH}$ (Fig. 2(b)). In weak alkaline systems (pH 8.5), carboxylic acids are fully ionized, resulting in a negatively charged surface on the carbons.

Zeta potentials were subsequently measured at different pH values for dispersions of hydrothermal carbon and boehmite (Fig. 3(a)). Within the acidic to alkaline range, the Zeta potential of the hydrothermal carbons remains negative, fluctuating around -20 mV, indicating that the acidic groups attached to the carbon surface impart negative charge to the hydrothermal carbon. The result is consistent with the behavior of graphene oxide, which possesses a similar structure^[25-26]. Conversely, the Zeta potential of the dispersion solution of boehmite remains positive (16.48–33.60 mV) when pH is below 10. It reaches the isoelectric point and becomes negative at pH 11. Therefore, co-precipitation can be achieved over a wide pH range of 3 to 10 as positively charged boehmite and negatively charged carbon interact electrostatically to form a neutral homogeneous precursor ($\gamma\text{-AlOOH}@\text{C}$). As previously discussed, positively charged boehmite crystallites are preferentially formed in an aqueous solution, attracting negatively charged

carbon through electrostatic action. During the hydrothermal processes, carbon particles adsorb onto the surface of boehmite and aggregate, facilitating the continuous growth of the carbon shell (Fig. 3(b)). This provides evidence that the hydrothermal carbon generated in the latter stage can form a uniform precursor with the boehmite generated in the earlier stage. After CRN, the precursor yields pure AlN (Fig. S5–Fig. S7).

2.2 Phase transformation

Fig. 4(a) displays typical XRD patterns of the samples obtained after CRN at temperatures ranging from 1100 to 1600 °C. The products synthesized at 1100 and 1200 °C are identified as $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, resulting from the pyrolysis of boehmite. As the temperature increases, the nitridation occurs at 1300 °C and is completed at 1400 °C. According to the TGA curve (Fig. S8), the calcined product exhibits a carbon mass fraction of 10.36%. Fig. S9 shows that the resulting AlN nanopowder exhibits a spherical morphology following carbon removal at 700 °C.

Fig. 4(b) displays XRD patterns of the nitridation products of precursors (Al : U : C = 1 : 2 : (0, 1, 2, 3, 4)) at 1500 °C. For the precursor (C/Al=0) without carbon, the resulting product phase is $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$. As the sucrose

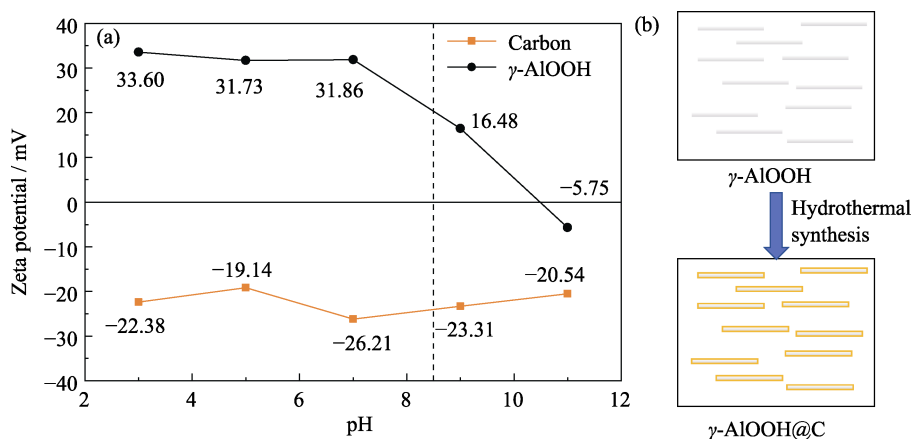


Fig. 3 (a) Zeta potential of $\gamma\text{-AlOOH}$ and carbon dispersions at different pH and (b) mechanism of precursor formation

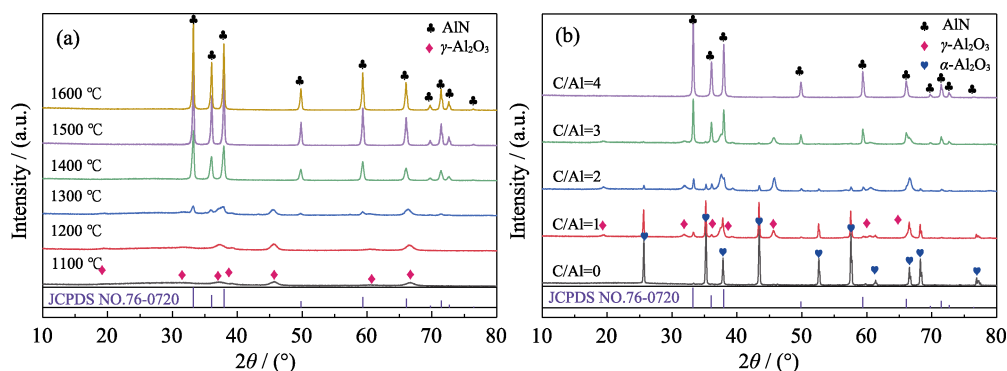


Fig. 4 XRD patterns of the nitridation products synthesized at (a) different temperatures and (b) different C/Al molar ratios at 1500 °C

content increases, the diffraction peak intensity of $\alpha/\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ decreases with the intensity of AlN peaks increasing. For precursors with $\text{C}/\text{Al}=4$, complete nitridation is achieved, resulting in the formation of pure-phase AlN.

Notably, only the diffraction peaks of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ are observed except for AlN, indicating that the phase transition of alumina from gamma to alpha is effectively suppressed. The finding agrees with literature^[27-29], likely due to the high specific surface of ultrafine alumina particles, which allows $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ to be directly nitrided without transitioning through $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ intermediates. A detailed thermodynamic analysis will be presented in subsequent discussion.

2.3 Thermodynamic mechanism

$\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ is widely acknowledged as the thermodynamically stable phase of alumina, with other phases of alumina converting to it at elevated temperatures^[30-31]. Boehmite converts to $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ at 550 °C and subsequently transforms into $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ when heated above 1200 °C^[30]. However, in this work, alumina remained in $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ phase throughout the CRN process, even when subjected to temperatures that exceed the phase transition temperature.

Here, the high-temperature stability of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ is quantitatively explained based on their different surface energies through thermodynamic calculations. The enthalpy difference between $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ at room temperature, assuming zero surface area, is 13.4 kJ/mol^[32], and the entropy change associated with the transition from $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ to $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ is 5.7 J/(K·mol)^[33]. This suggests that as the temperature increases, the Gibbs free energy for the transformation of $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ to $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ decreases. Table 1 summarizes the surface thermodynamic properties of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, showing that the surface energy of $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ is greater than that of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$. This suggests that when the specific surface area is sufficiently large, the Gibbs free energy of $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$

Table 1 Compilation of measured and calculated surface energies in literature

Phase	Surface energy/ (J·m ⁻²)	Ref.	Method
$\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$	2.04	[34]	MD simulation
	2.64	[33]	High-temperature calorimetry
	2.57	[35]	Static lattice calculation
	2.03	[36]	MD simulation
	4.89	[37]	<i>Ab initio</i> calculation
$\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$	0.79	[34]	MD simulation
	1.66	[33]	High-temperature calorimetry
	1.53	[38]	High-temperature calorimetry

becomes higher than that of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, resulting in the stabilization of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ as the thermodynamically stable phase.

The relationship between Gibbs free energy and surface area can be calculated using equation (1).

$$\Delta_r G = \Delta_r H - T\Delta_r S + A\Delta\gamma \quad (1)$$

Where $\Delta_r G$ is the Gibbs free energy change of the reaction, J; $\Delta_r H$ is the enthalpy change of the reaction, J; $\Delta_r S$ is the entropy change of the reaction, J·K⁻¹; T is the thermodynamic temperature, K; A is the surface area, m²; $\Delta\gamma$ is the surface energy change, J/m².

The Gibbs free energy for the transformation from $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ to $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ at different temperatures is calculated and plotted as a function of specific surface area in Fig. 5(a). The analysis reveals a critical specific surface area due to the differences in surface energy between $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$. When the specific surface area exceeds this critical value, $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ can be thermodynamically stabilized at elevated temperatures. At 1200, 1300, 1400, and 1500 °C, the critical specific surface areas are 50.6, 44.9, 39.2, and 33.2 m²/g, respectively.

The precursor was calcined at 1200 °C (a temperature at

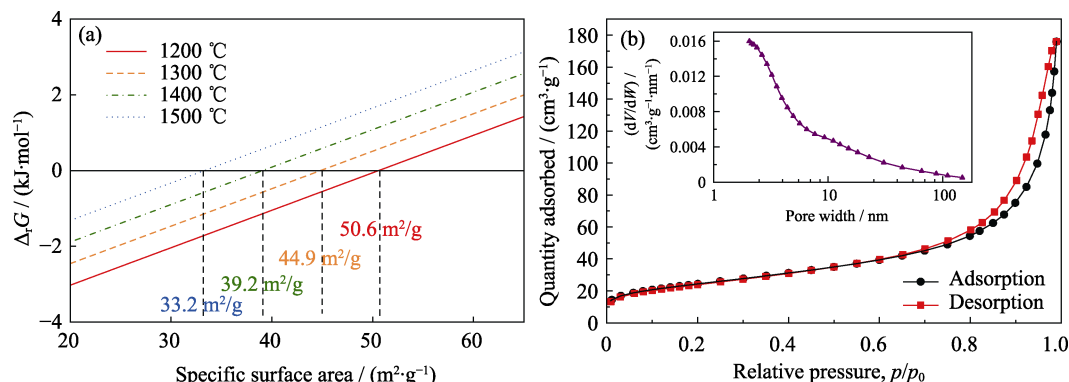


Fig. 5 (a) Gibbs free energy of the transformation from $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ to $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ at different temperatures calculated as a function of specific surface area, and (b) N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm of $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ with inset showing pore size distribution determined by application of BJH method to the isotherm

which the CRN reaction does not occur) for 4 h, followed by carbon removal at 700 °C. The morphology of the resulting γ -Al₂O₃ is depicted in Fig. S10, revealing that it retains its plate-like shape and particle size consistent with that of the precursor. The specific surface area of γ -Al₂O₃ was measured by Brunauer-Emmett-Teller (BET) method. Fig. 5(b) presents the typical N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherm of γ -Al₂O₃. Barrett-Joyner-Halenda (BJH) method was employed to analyze the pore size distribution of γ -Al₂O₃, which ranged from 2 to 150 nm, exhibiting decreased pore volume with pore size increasing. The specific surface area of the obtained γ -Al₂O₃ is measured to be 87.5 m²/g, which greatly exceeds the critical value.

Therefore, it can be reasonably inferred that the hydrothermal precursor, characterized by a unique core-shell structure with coated carbon that effectively inhibits the growth and agglomeration of alumina grains, maintains a high specific surface area during calcination. This guarantees the thermodynamical stability of γ -Al₂O₃ throughout the CRN process. As illustrated in Fig. S11, the atomic spacing in γ -Al₂O₃ crystals is larger than that in α -Al₂O₃ crystals, facilitating the diffusion of N atoms and O atoms at high temperatures, thereby promoting the CRN reaction. Tsuge *et al.*^[39] investigated the reactivity of different crystalline forms of alumina (α -Al₂O₃, γ -Al₂O₃, η -Al₂O₃, θ -Al₂O₃, and Al(OH)₃) in the CRN reaction and found that γ -Al₂O₃ exhibited the highest reactivity. Therefore, it can be concluded that the combination of high specific surface area and thermodynamic stability of γ -Al₂O₃ significantly contributes to the superior reactivity of hydrothermal precursor in the CRN reaction.

3 Conclusions

AlN nanopowders were successfully synthesized through a combination of hydrothermal synthesis and CRN. A systematic investigation was conducted on the composition, structure, morphology, and generation mechanism of the products, leading to the following conclusions.

1) During the hydrothermal process, hydrothermal carbon and boehmite with opposite surface charges co-precipitate through electrostatic attraction to form precursors. The precursor exhibits a core-shell structure consisting of carbon-coated boehmite (γ -AlOOH@C), allowing for complete nanoscale contact between carbon and boehmite.

2) The highly reactive γ -Al₂O₃ nanoparticles and the extensive contact between alumina and carbon facilitate the hydrothermal precursor's participation in the CRN reaction, benefiting from thermodynamic and kinetic advantages. The CRN reaction initiates at 1300 °C, with complete nitridation achieved at 1400 °C without the

formation of α -Al₂O₃.

3) Taking the surface energy into account, the critical specific surface area is determined by thermodynamic calculations. The high-temperature stability of γ -Al₂O₃ during carbothermal reduction is quantitatively explained by the mitigation of surface area loss of γ -Al₂O₃ (87.5 m²/g at 1200 °C) due to carbon coating.

The findings from this work will also enhance the experimental and theoretical foundations for the preparation of other nitrides and carbides by a combination of hydrothermal synthesis and carbothermal reduction. Related research efforts are currently underway.

Supporting Materials

Supporting materials related to this article can be found at <https://doi.org/10.15541/jim20240279>.

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水热-碳热合成 AlN 纳米粉体的机理

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摘要: 碳热还原氮化法是应用最广泛的制备 AlN 粉体的方法。该工艺制备的 AlN 粉体纯度高且烧结活性优良, 但是存在反应温度高、原料难以混合均匀等不足。本研究将水热合成与碳热还原氮化法相结合制备 AlN 纳米粉体。以硝酸铝为铝源、蔗糖为碳源、尿素为沉淀剂, 在 200 °C 水热合成碳和勃姆石(γ -AlOOH)均质复合前驱体。前驱体通过静电吸引形成碳紧密包覆勃姆石的核壳结构(γ -AlOOH@C)。与传统前驱体相比, 水热复合物具有超细颗粒、粒度分布均匀、分散性好、反应活性高、环境友好等优点。在氧化铝相的稳定性方面, 碳壳通过抑制氧化铝的表面积损失, 使 γ -Al₂O₃ 相比刚玉相(α -Al₂O₃ 相)的热稳定性更好, γ -Al₂O₃ 在碳热还原过程中能保持较高的反应活性, 该反应始于 1300 °C, 止于 1400 °C(比传统碳热还原法低 200 °C)。本研究通过实验和热力学计算验证了相关机理, 为水热法结合碳热法制备非氧化物纳米陶瓷粉体提供了有效的理论和实验依据。

关键词: 氮化铝; 碳热还原氮化法; 机理; 水热合成; 前驱体

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Supporting Materials:

Mechanism for Hydrothermal-carbothermal Synthesis of AlN Nanopowders

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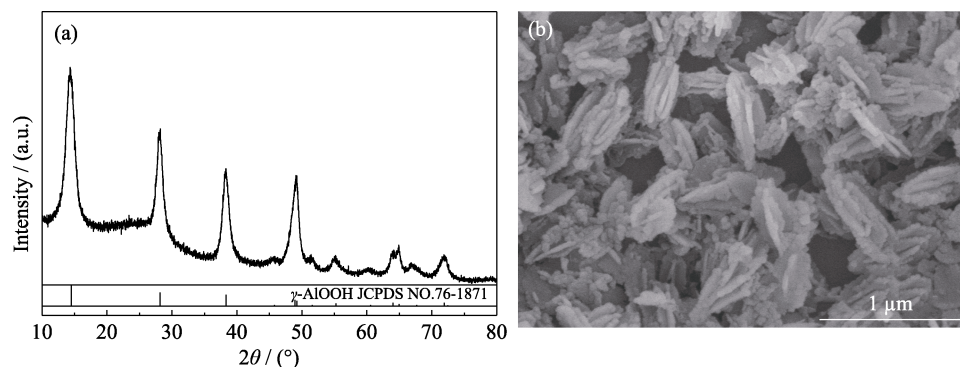
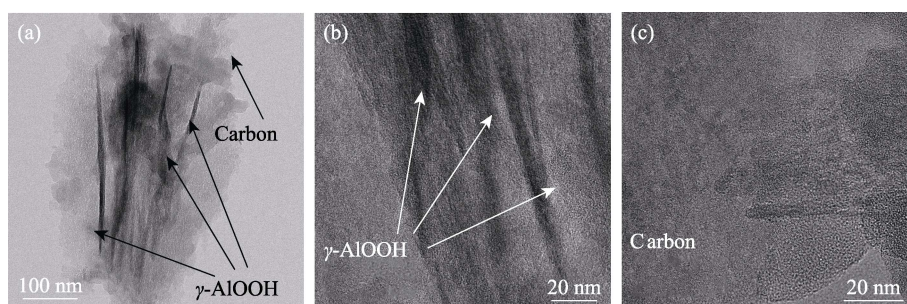
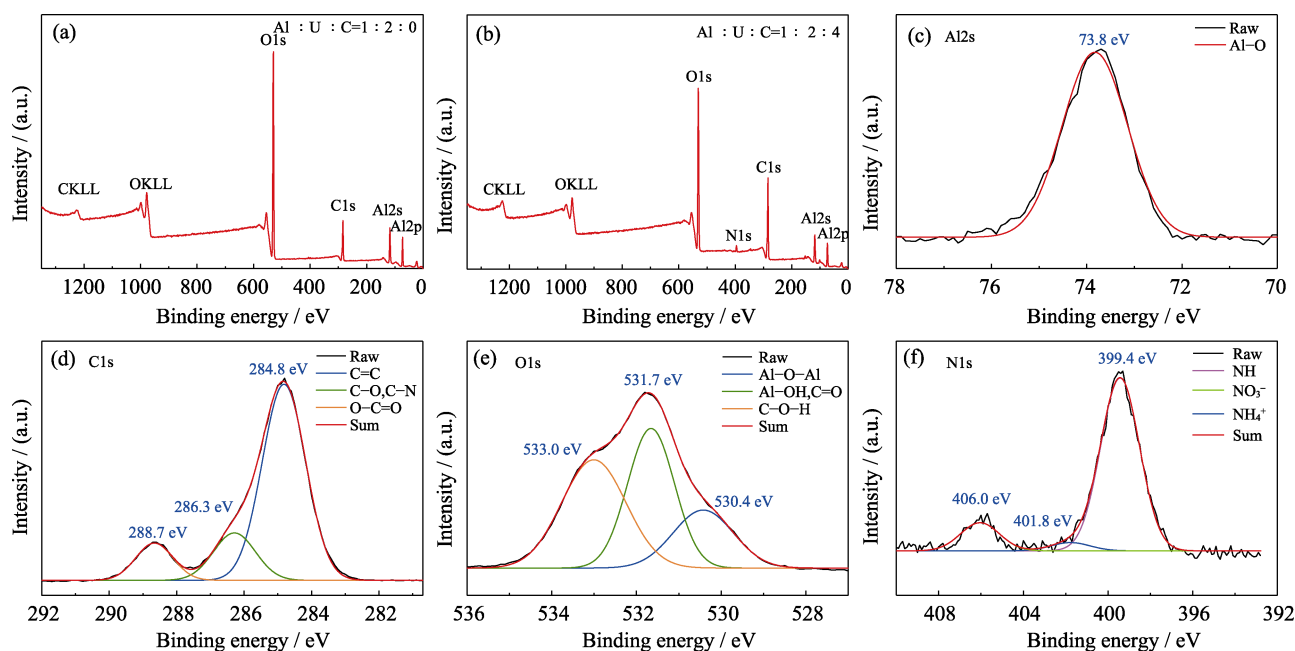


Fig. S1 (a) XRD pattern and (b) FESEM image of the precursor obtained at 200 °C

Fig. S2 TEM images of the precursor
(a) Precursor; (b) γ -AlOOH; (c) CarbonFig. S3 (a, b) Survey spectra of the precursors at (a) Al : U : C=1 : 2 : 0 and (b) Al : U : C=1 : 2 : 4;
(c-f) XPS spectra of (c) Al2s, (d) C1s, (e) O1s, and (f) N1s for the precursors at Al : U : C=1 : 2 : 4

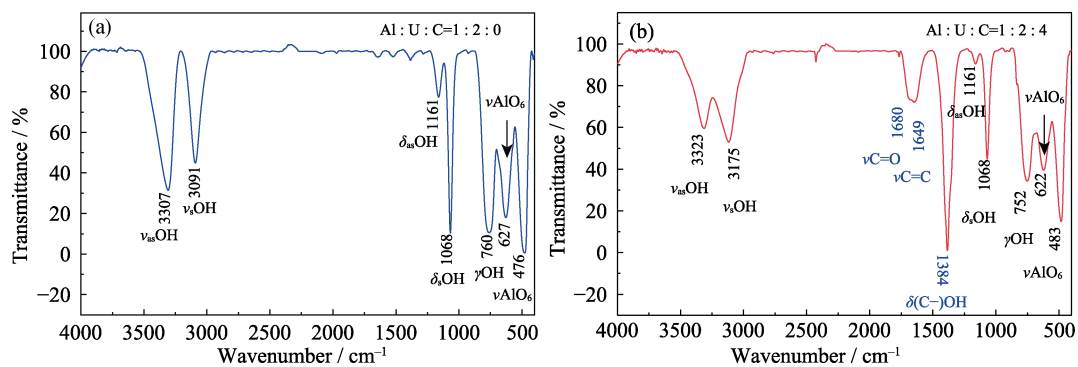


Fig. S4 FTIR spectra of the precursors

(a) Al:U:C=1:2:0; (b) Al:U:C=1:2:4

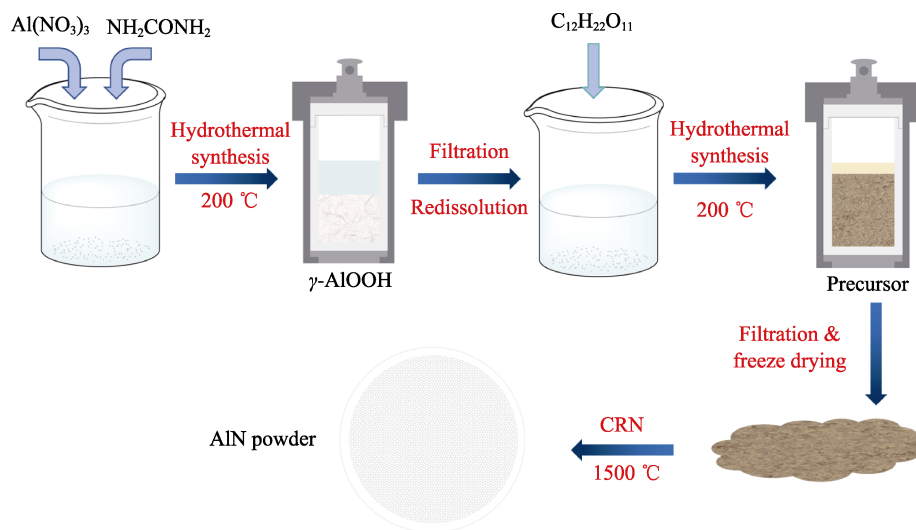


Fig. S5 Experimental procedure for validating the mechanism of precursor formation through electrostatic adsorption

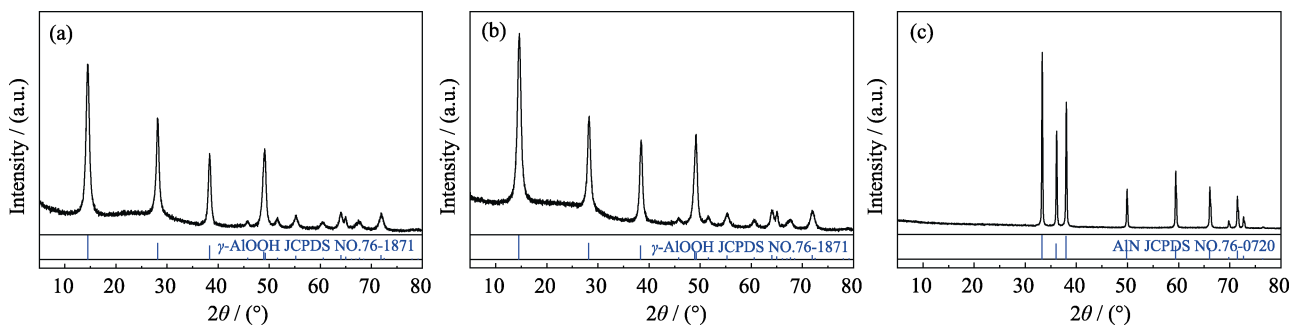


Fig. S6 XRD patterns of the products in Fig. S5

(a) Boehmite; (b) Precursor; (c) AlN

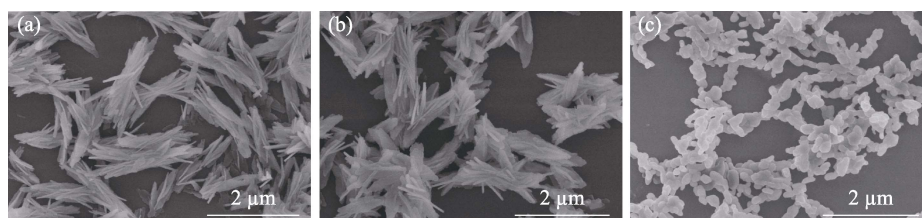


Fig. S7 FESEM images of the products in Fig. S5

(a) Boehmite; (b) Precursor; (c) AlN

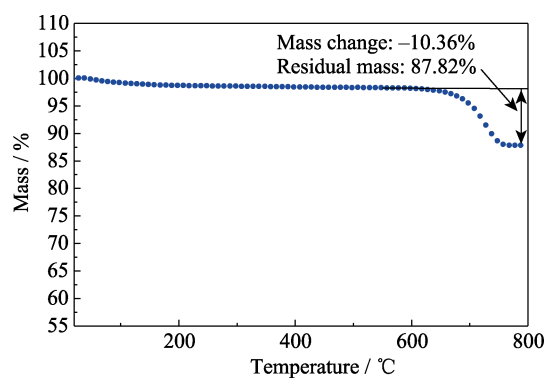


Fig. S8 TGA curve of the product calcined at 1400 °C in air

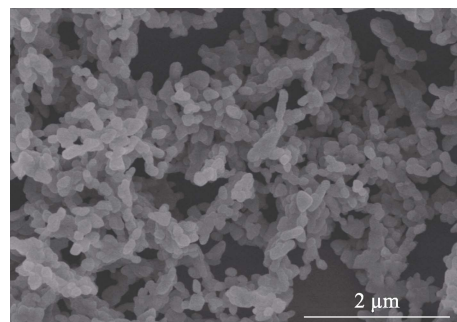


Fig. S9 FESEM image of AlN nanopowder produced at 1400 °C

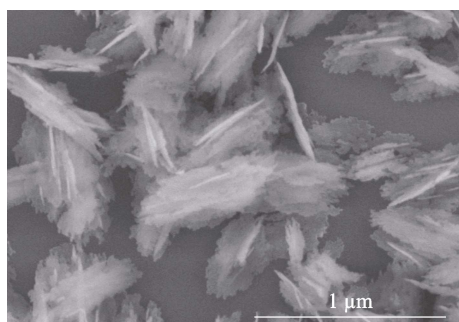
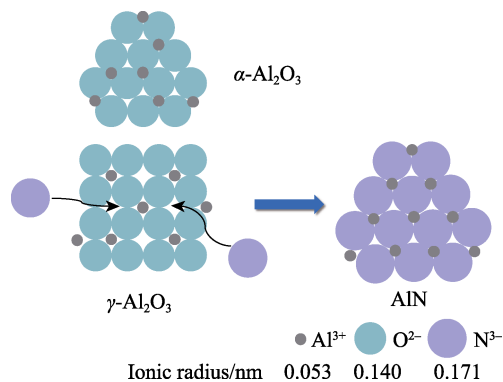


Fig. S10 FESEM image of the product after calcination at 1200 °C and carbon removal at 700 °C

Fig. S11 Structure diagram of $\alpha\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$, $\gamma\text{-Al}_2\text{O}_3$ and AlN