

The Contribution of Nuclear Fusion in the Creation of Super Heavy Elements: A Detailed Review

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Abstract:

The synthesis of superheavy elements (SHEs), which are defined as elements with atomic numbers greater than 104, stands at the forefront of modern nuclear physics. These unique and highly unstable nuclei exist primarily due to the quantum shell effects, which provide an additional layer of stability that counters the repulsive forces between the numerous protons within the nucleus. The existence of SHEs poses profound questions about the limits of nuclear stability, the structural integrity of atomic nuclei, and the fundamental forces at play within nuclear matter. The production of SHEs relies heavily on nuclear fusion, with heavy-ion fusion being the predominant method employed for their synthesis. In this process, the fusion of two heavy nuclei forms a new element, which is a crucial technique in the field of nuclear chemistry and physics. However, this process is far from straightforward. The production of SHEs involves significant experimental challenges, including the precise targeting and acceleration of ions, the management of intense heat and radiation, and the detection of highly fleeting reaction products. This review delves into the pivotal role that nuclear fusion plays in the synthesis of superheavy elements, providing an in-depth analysis of the experimental methodologies and theoretical models employed to understand and predict these reactions. It further explores the intricate challenges that researchers face, including the development of more advanced detection techniques, the optimization of fusion reactions, and the enhancement of theoretical models that aim to explain the stability and behavior of these exotic nuclei. The review also highlights the exciting future prospects for SHE research, emphasizing the potential for discovering new elements, expanding our understanding of nuclear forces, and pushing the boundaries of what is possible in nuclear science.

Keywords: Super heavy Elements, Nuclear Fusion, Island of Stability, Nuclear Structure, Compound Nucleus, Nuclear Stability, Heavy-Ion Reactions, Quantum Shell Model, Elemental Synthesis, High Atomic Number Nuclei

I. Introduction: A Journey to the Limits of Nuclear Matter

The exploration of the periodic table is a continuous scientific endeavor, driven by humanity's intrinsic curiosity about the fundamental composition of matter. While naturally occurring elements offer a rich array of chemical and physical properties, the pursuit of elements beyond uranium ($Z=92$) marks an exciting new frontier in nuclear physics. This quest is not just about expanding the periodic table, but rather about delving deep into the very structure of the atomic nucleus. It involves probing the boundaries of nuclear stability and testing the accuracy and validity of nuclear models under extreme conditions.

Dmitri Mendeleev's periodic law, which famously predicted the organization and properties of elements based on atomic mass and recurring chemical characteristics, laid the foundation for understanding the elemental structure of matter [1]. This conceptual framework remains a guiding principle as we venture into the realm of synthetic, artificially created elements, pushing the boundaries of what was once thought possible.

A fundamental aspect of this exploration lies in the nuclear shell model, which describes the arrangement of protons and neutrons within the nucleus in specific energy levels, akin to electron shells in atoms [2]. According to this model, certain numbers of protons and neutrons—known as "magic numbers" (e.g., 2, 8, 20, 28, 50, 82, 126)—result in closed shells that impart increased stability to the nucleus. When applied to heavier nuclei, the model suggests the existence of an "island of stability," a theoretical region in the nuclear chart where combinations of protons and neutrons beyond the last naturally stable elements would create nuclei that resist spontaneous fission due to their closed shell configurations [3]. While theoretical predictions for the location of this island vary, prominent candidates for the proton and neutron numbers that could define it include $Z=114$, 120, and 126, and $N=184$ [4].

The pursuit of super heavy elements (SHEs) serves multiple scientific purposes. First and foremost, it provides an essential test of nuclear models, challenging our understanding of nuclear forces under extreme conditions characterized by high proton and neutron counts [5]. Second, it offers the opportunity to explore the ultimate limits of nuclear existence, answering critical questions about how many protons and neutrons can coexist in a stable nucleus. Finally, although the practical applications of SHEs remain speculative, the synthesis of these elements with unique properties could potentially open up novel avenues for scientific and technological advancements in various fields.

II. Fusion Reaction Mechanisms: Orchestrating Nuclear Collisions

The synthesis of superheavy elements (SHEs) is primarily driven by nuclear fusion reactions, where two atomic nuclei collide and merge to form a heavier nucleus. In the case of SHE synthesis, this process most often involves **heavy-ion fusion**, which specifically refers to the collision of two heavy atomic nuclei. The fusion process is intricate, comprising several distinct stages, each governed by various physical forces.

At the onset, the projectile and target nuclei are accelerated toward each other using heavy-ion accelerators. During this initial approach, the dominant force at play is the **Coulomb repulsion**, arising

from the positive charges of the nuclei. This creates a potential barrier, often referred to as the **Coulomb barrier**, which the nuclei must overcome for fusion to occur [6]. The magnitude of this barrier is proportional to the charges and radii of the interacting nuclei; thus, nuclei with larger charges experience stronger repulsion. Even though the nuclei may not possess enough kinetic energy to surmount this barrier classically, **quantum mechanical tunneling** allows the nuclei to fuse at energies lower than the Coulomb barrier, albeit with a reduced probability.

Once the nuclei are sufficiently close, the attractive **nuclear forces** begin to dominate over the Coulomb repulsion. At this point, the nuclei can form a **dinuclear system (DNS)**, which is a transient, short-lived intermediate state in which the two nuclei are in close contact but have not yet fully merged [7]. For this capture process to occur efficiently, there must be enough energy and an optimal collision geometry. Subsequently, the dinuclear system evolves into a **compound nucleus (CN)**, a more stable intermediate system formed through nucleon transfer and the dissipation of excess energy.

The formation of the compound nucleus can be classified into two categories based on the nature of the fusion reaction: **hot fusion** and **cold fusion** [8]. In **hot fusion**, lighter projectiles collide with heavier target nuclei, resulting in a compound nucleus with higher excitation energy. In contrast, **cold fusion** involves heavier projectiles and lighter target nuclei, which produces a compound nucleus with relatively lower excitation energy. While cold fusion typically has a lower fusion cross-section, the reduced excitation energy of the compound nucleus increases its chances of surviving against fission. Upon formation, the compound nucleus is typically in an excited state and must undergo a process of **de-excitation** to transition to a more stable configuration, either by reaching a ground state or by settling into a long-lived isomeric state. The primary mechanisms for this de-excitation are **neutron emission** and **fission**. For superheavy elements, fission is the dominant decay mode, driven by the intense Coulomb repulsion within the nucleus. The competition between neutron emission and fission depends on the **fission barrier height** and the excitation energy of the compound nucleus. A higher fission barrier and lower excitation energy favor neutron emission, thereby increasing the likelihood of the compound nucleus surviving and avoiding fission. The probability of neutron emission also depends on the **neutron binding energy**.

One of the key experimental challenges in SHE synthesis is measuring the **fusion cross-section**, which quantifies the likelihood of a fusion reaction occurring between two nuclei. This cross-section is influenced by the collision energy and the specific nuclear structure of the interacting nuclei. Given the extremely small cross-sections involved, detecting these reactions is difficult. The **evaporation residues**—the surviving nuclei after neutron emission—serve as the primary experimental signature of successful fusion, allowing scientists to confirm the synthesis of superheavy elements.

III. Experimental Techniques: Detecting the Rarest of Events

Synthesis experiments for superheavy elements (SHEs) present immense challenges, primarily due to the exceedingly low production rates of these elusive elements. To detect and confirm the synthesis of SHEs, researchers must employ cutting-edge experimental techniques that push the limits of precision and sensitivity. The foundation of SHE research relies on **heavy-ion accelerators**, which are

the primary tools for inducing fusion reactions [9]. These accelerators, including **linear accelerators** and **cyclotrons**, accelerate heavy ions to extremely high energies to overcome the Coulomb barrier that prevents nuclei from merging. The ability to produce intense, stable, and highly purified beams of heavy ions is essential for enhancing the production rate of superheavy elements.

An additional challenge lies in the preparation of the **target materials**. To maximize the synthesis of specific isotopes and minimize unwanted background reactions, **isotopically enriched targets** are often used. These targets are usually fabricated as thin foils to ensure that the accelerated beam suffers minimal energy loss as it passes through. They must also be durable enough to withstand the bombardment of high-energy ions without significant damage or degradation.

Once the fusion products are formed, **recoil separators** become essential in isolating the rare fusion products from the overwhelming background of the primary beam particles [10]. These separators exploit differences in **magnetic rigidity** and **velocity** between the recoiling fusion products and the primary beam particles. Two common types of recoil separators are **gas-filled separators** and **velocity filters**. Gas-filled separators utilize a gas-filled region to equalize the charge states of the recoiling ions, making it easier to separate them based on their **magnetic rigidity**. **Velocity filters**, such as the **SHIP** (Separator for Heavy Ion Reaction Products) at GSI, utilize a combination of electric and magnetic fields to filter ions based on their **velocity**, effectively distinguishing fusion products from the beam particles [11].

The final step in SHE detection involves **highly sensitive detectors**, which are critical for identifying the presence of the rare fusion products. **Silicon detectors** are commonly used to detect **alpha particles** and **spontaneous fission fragments**, providing accurate information about the energy and timing of these events. In addition, **germanium detectors** are employed to detect **gamma rays** emitted during the de-excitation process of the nuclei. To ensure reliable identification of superheavy elements, **coincidence measurements** are often employed. These involve using multiple detectors to detect correlated decay events simultaneously, providing unambiguous evidence of the presence of new elements. By analyzing the **decay chains**, which are sequences of **alpha decays** or **fission events**, researchers can generate a unique "fingerprint" for each newly discovered nuclide.

In summary, the synthesis and detection of SHEs require an intricate combination of high-energy ion acceleration, sophisticated separation techniques, and state-of-the-art detection equipment. Each of these experimental steps plays a crucial role in confirming the creation of superheavy elements, providing invaluable insights into nuclear structure and stability at the extreme end of the periodic table.

IV. Theoretical Models: Illuminating the Nuclear Landscape

Theoretical models are essential for advancing research on superheavy elements (SHEs). These models serve as guiding frameworks for experimental design, help interpret experimental findings, and make predictions about the properties of unknown nuclei. In the context of SHE research, **macroscopic-microscopic models** are particularly valuable. These models combine a macroscopic view of the nucleus as a liquid drop with microscopic corrections that account for the effects of nuclear shells [12]. The **liquid drop model** describes the bulk properties of a nucleus, such as its binding energy and shape,

treating it as a collective liquid, while **microscopic corrections**—drawn from the **shell model**—address the effects of nucleon configurations in closed shells, which can significantly influence nuclear stability. For a more detailed understanding of nuclear structure, **mean-field theories** provide a fundamental, microscopic description of the nucleus [13]. These models, such as **Hartree-Fock theory** and **relativistic mean-field theory**, consider nucleons (protons and neutrons) and mesons as interacting particles, offering insights into nuclear densities, single-particle energies, and collective excitations. These theories allow for a deeper understanding of nuclear behavior and are crucial for predicting the properties of nuclei in the SHE region. However, these models often overlook important correlations between nucleons, which are essential for accurate predictions in the SHE domain. To account for these correlations, methods like **configuration interaction** and **generator coordinate methods** are used, extending the scope of mean-field approaches.

One of the key challenges in SHE research is predicting the **decay properties** of these superheavy nuclei, such as **alpha decay energies**, **half-lives**, and **fission barrier heights**. These predictions are crucial for guiding experimental efforts and understanding how SHEs will behave once synthesized. For example, predicting the **spontaneous fission half-lives** and **alpha decay lifetimes** of SHEs is vital for estimating their stability and lifetimes. Accurate theoretical models can assist in identifying the most promising regions of the periodic table for discovering new superheavy elements and help researchers design experiments to probe these nuclei more effectively.

In summary, theoretical models play an indispensable role in SHE research by predicting key properties, guiding experimental efforts, and enhancing our understanding of nuclear structure at the extremes. As experimental techniques evolve and new data becomes available, these models will continue to refine our comprehension of the forces that govern nuclear matter, especially in the uncharted territory of super heavy elements.

V. Challenges and Future Directions: Charting the Unknown Territory

The synthesis of superheavy elements (SHEs) continues to face numerous challenges, despite the significant advancements in experimental techniques. One of the primary obstacles is the **fusion cross-section** for producing the heaviest SHEs, which remains extremely small. This means that the probability of successful fusion is low, making such experiments time-consuming and requiring intense, stable ion beams and long measurement durations. Increasing the beam intensity is an ongoing goal, as higher intensities improve the chances of successful collisions. Additionally, the development of more efficient **separators** and **detectors** is critical to isolating the rare fusion products from the overwhelming background of other reactions, further improving experimental precision.

Another significant challenge in SHE synthesis is the **low survival probability** of the compound nucleus formed after the fusion process. This low probability primarily arises from the tendency of the compound nucleus to undergo **fission** rather than remaining intact. The large Coulomb repulsion between the protons in the nucleus significantly contributes to this instability. To address this, researchers are exploring strategies such as using **more asymmetric reactions** and optimizing **beam energies** to enhance fusion probabilities. By minimizing the excitation energy of the compound nucleus,

these approaches aim to increase the likelihood of the nucleus surviving long enough to be detected. The **unambiguous identification** of new elements and isotopes is another persistent challenge. This task relies on the observation of **characteristic decay chains**—a series of alpha decays or fission events that reveal the identity of the new nucleus. To achieve this, future experiments will need to improve the **precision** and **sensitivity** of **detection systems**, such as silicon detectors and gamma-ray spectrometers, to clearly distinguish the decay signatures of newly formed superheavy elements from the background noise.

Looking forward, **exploring the neutron-rich region** of the periodic table, particularly within the **island of stability**, represents an exciting frontier. The island of stability refers to a predicted region in the nuclear chart where certain combinations of protons and neutrons are believed to form nuclei with relatively longer half-lives compared to those outside this region. To access this region, research will need to develop **neutron-rich beams** and **target materials**, as these are crucial for synthesizing isotopes with excess neutrons, which are thought to contribute to the enhanced stability of superheavy elements.

In summary, while significant progress has been made in the synthesis of superheavy elements, many challenges remain. However, the development of new techniques to improve beam intensities, separation efficiency, and detection capabilities, along with targeted research into the neutron-rich isotopes of the island of stability, will likely continue to push the boundaries of what is possible in the search for the heaviest elements. As these challenges are addressed, the field will expand our understanding of nuclear matter and may yield new, unexpected applications in science and technology.

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