

Solid state detectors - Cryogenic detectors

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OUTLINE

Part 1: physic of cryogenic detectors

- Cryogenic detectors: working principles
- Cryogenic techniques
- Temperature sensors
- Specific background components
- Composite detectors

Part 2: astroparticle physic applications

Part 1: physic of cryogenic detectors

Basic principles

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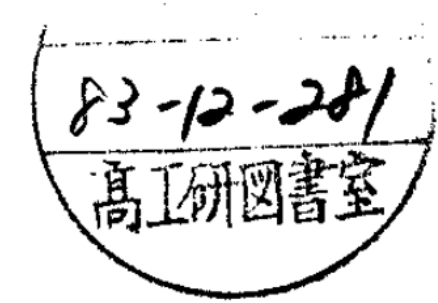
Working principle: the basic idea is to **measure the energy** deposited by a particle after it has been **converted into heat** with a T sensor.

Scheme: composed by an **energy absorber** in which the radiation interacts, producing a T increase, and by a **T sensor** that reads the increase (sometimes sensor = absorber).

Historical parenthesis

The use of cryogenic detectors in elementary particle physics experiments was proposed in early 1970's

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EUROPEAN ORGANIZATION FOR NUCLEAR RESEARCH

CERN-EP/83-180
17 November 1983

LOW-TEMPERATURE CALORIMETRY FOR RARE DECAYS

E. Fiorini¹ and T.O. Niinikoski²

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ABSTRACT

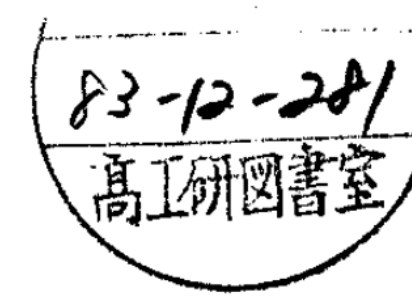
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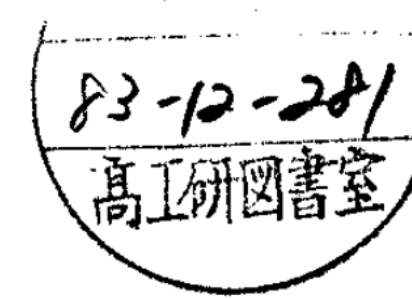
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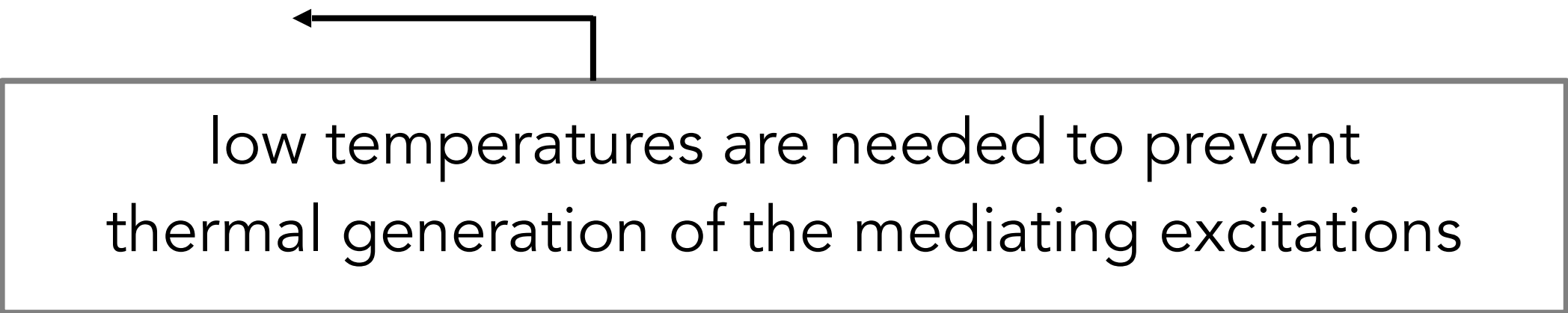


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Nowadays cryogenic detectors have found applications in a variety of fields and with extremely exciting results.

Characteristics of a Low Temperature Particle Detector (LTD)

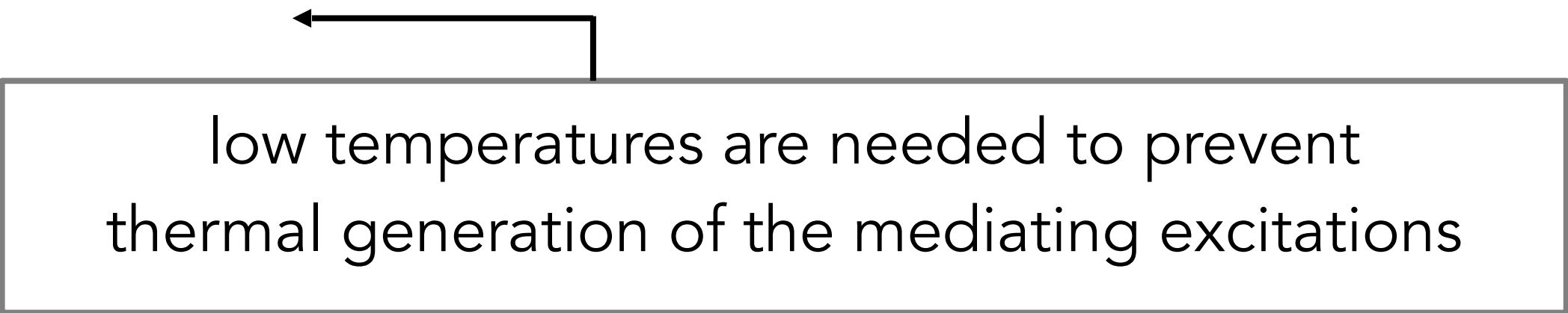
- It is sensitive to single quanta
- The detection is mediated by elementary excitations in a solid (Energy Absorber)
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low temperatures are needed to prevent thermal generation of the mediating excitations

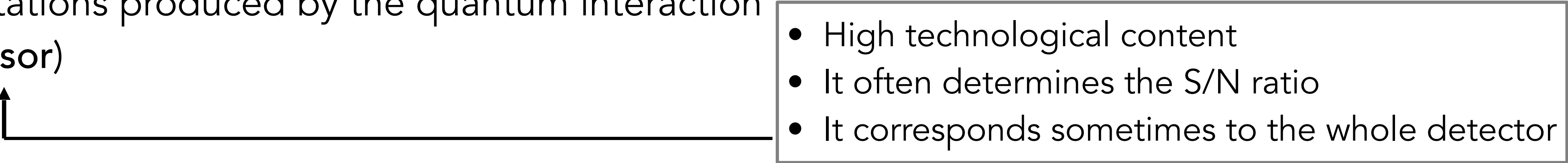
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- Extra information on the interacting quantum can be obtained, at least in principle

- Arrival time
- Quantum type
- Impact point
- Deposited energy
- Initial momentum

Advantages of Bolometers over conventional devices for radiation spectroscopy

Energy resolution

- ε : energy to produce an elementary excitation
- $N = E/\varepsilon$: number of elementary excitation
- $\Delta E = \varepsilon \Delta N = \varepsilon (N)^{1/2} = (\varepsilon E)^{1/2}$
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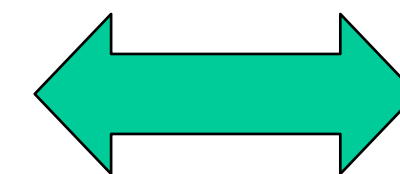
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elementary excitations in LTD:

- phonons in a dielectric/semiconductor
- quasiparticles in a superconductor

Phonon-Mediated
particle detectors



Quasiparticle-Mediated
particle detectors

Phonon-Mediated particle Detectors (PMD)

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- The interacting quantum deposits energy in the energy absorber → phonons

The initial phonon spectrum depends on the interaction mechanism.

A different spectrum in particular is expected for:

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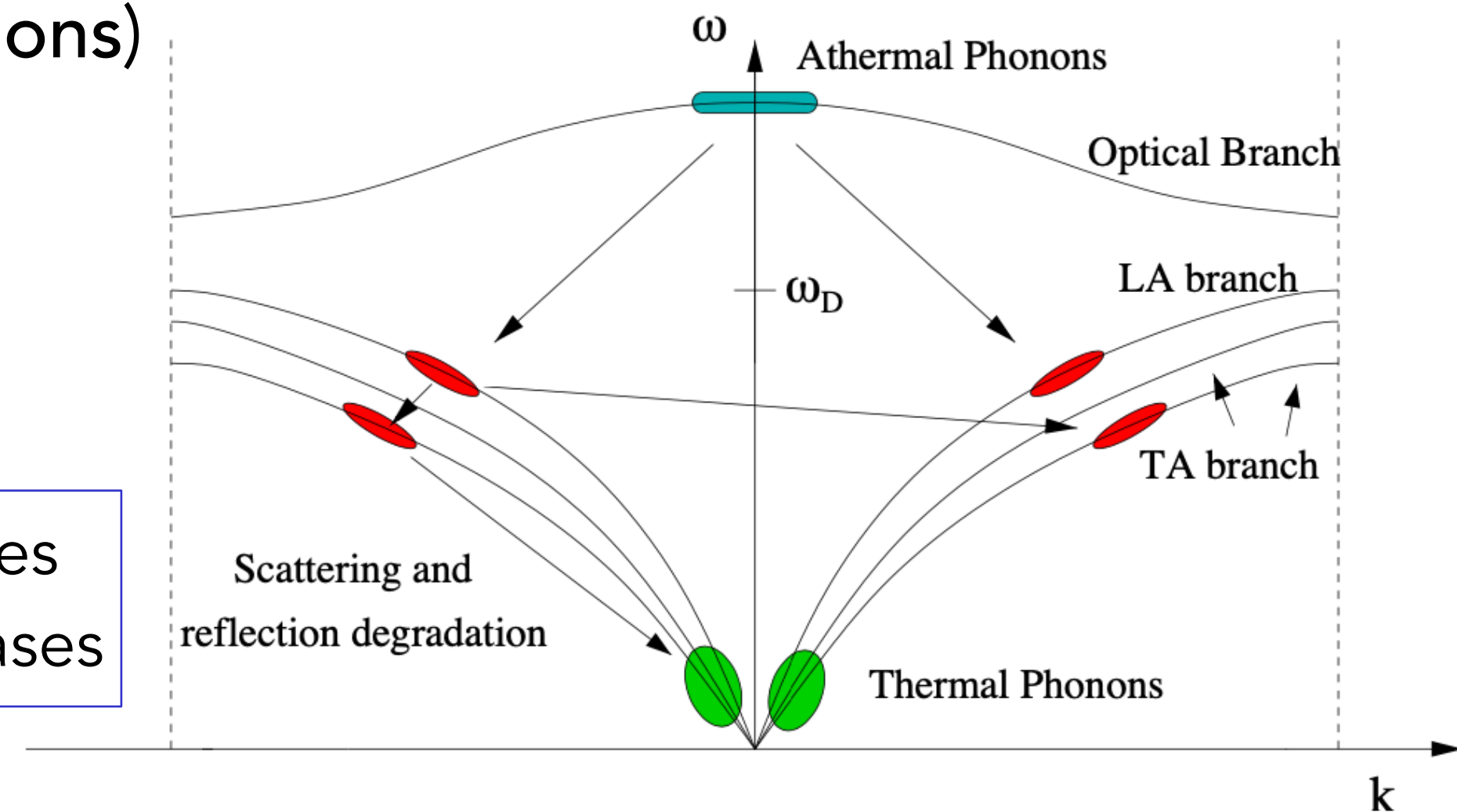
Athermal phonons propagate ballistically and are long-living

Athermal phonons undergo anharmonic decay, isotope, surface and impurity scattering (quasi-diffusive propagation) \Rightarrow energy degradation

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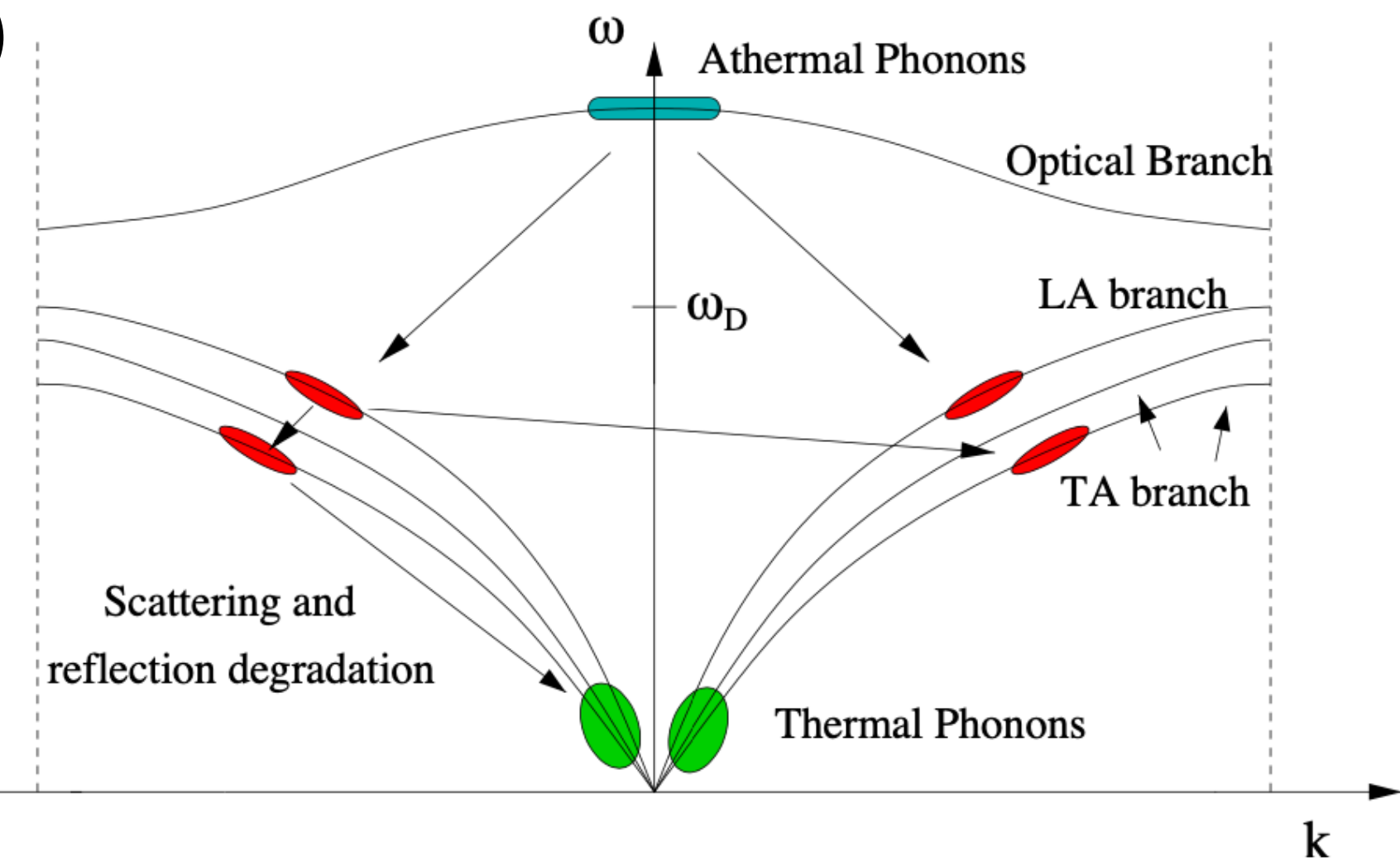
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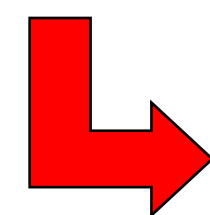
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- Finally, phonons relax on a new equilibrium distribution

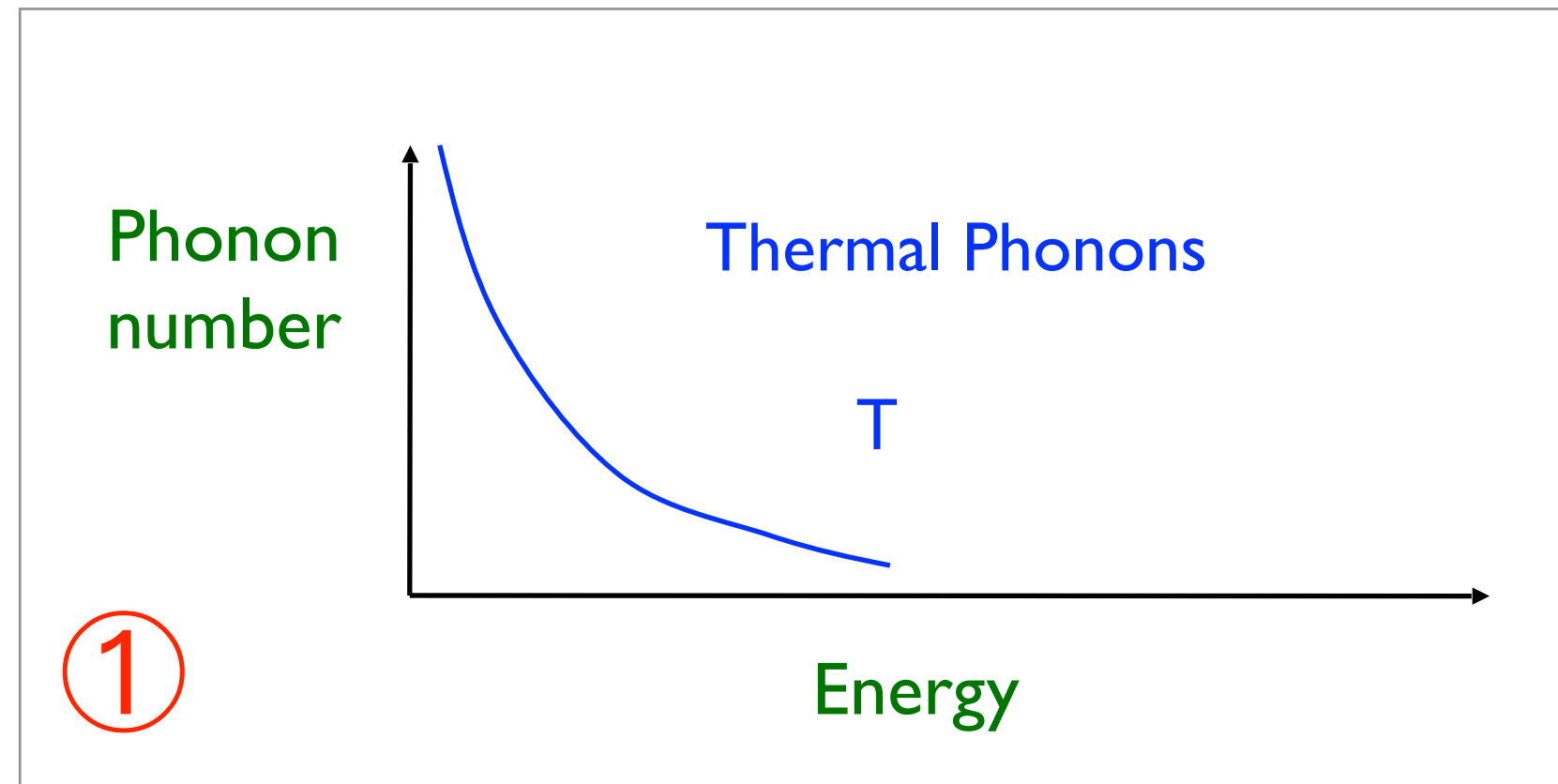


the deposited energy has produced a temperature increase

Thermal and athermal phonons

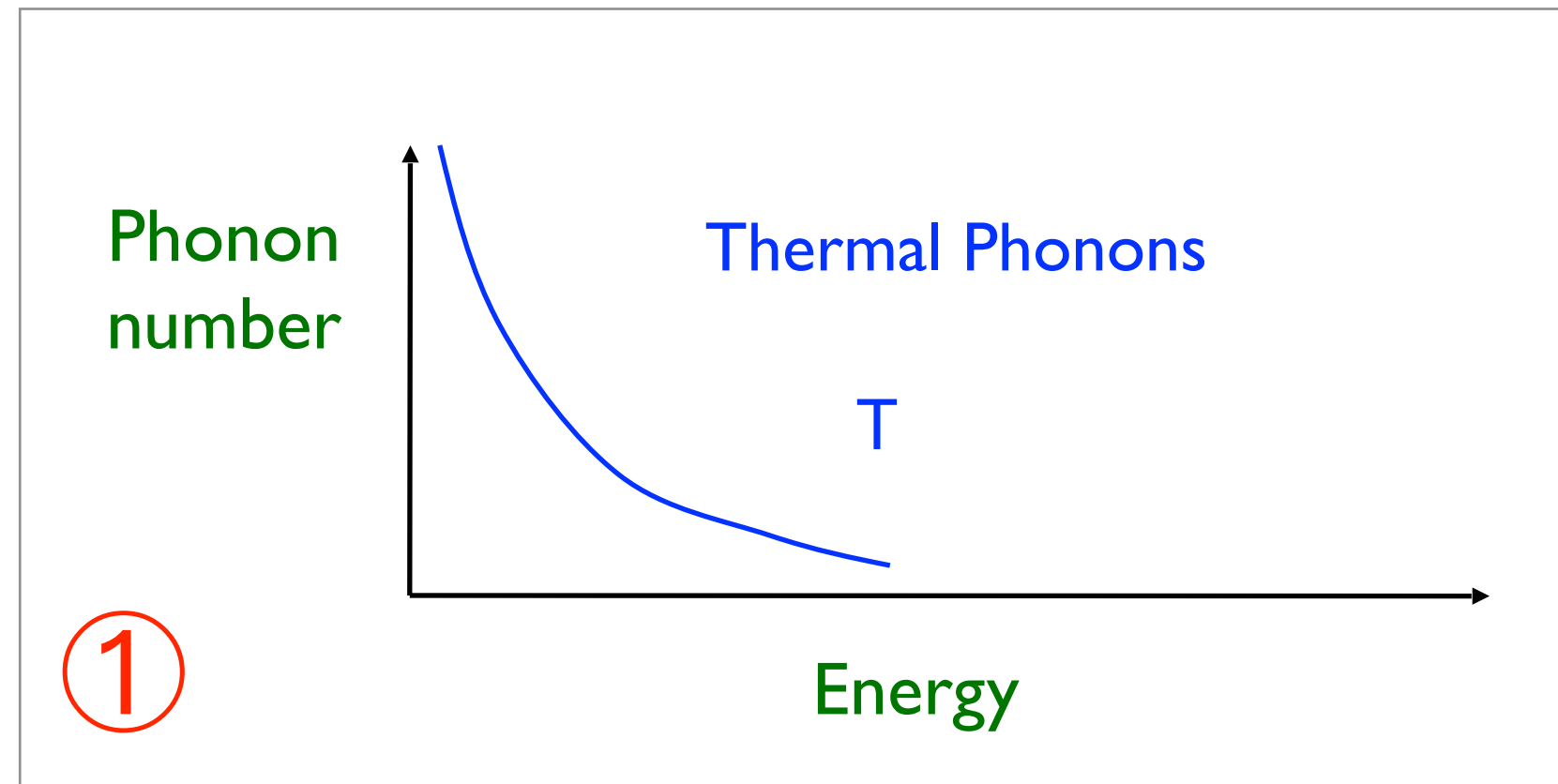
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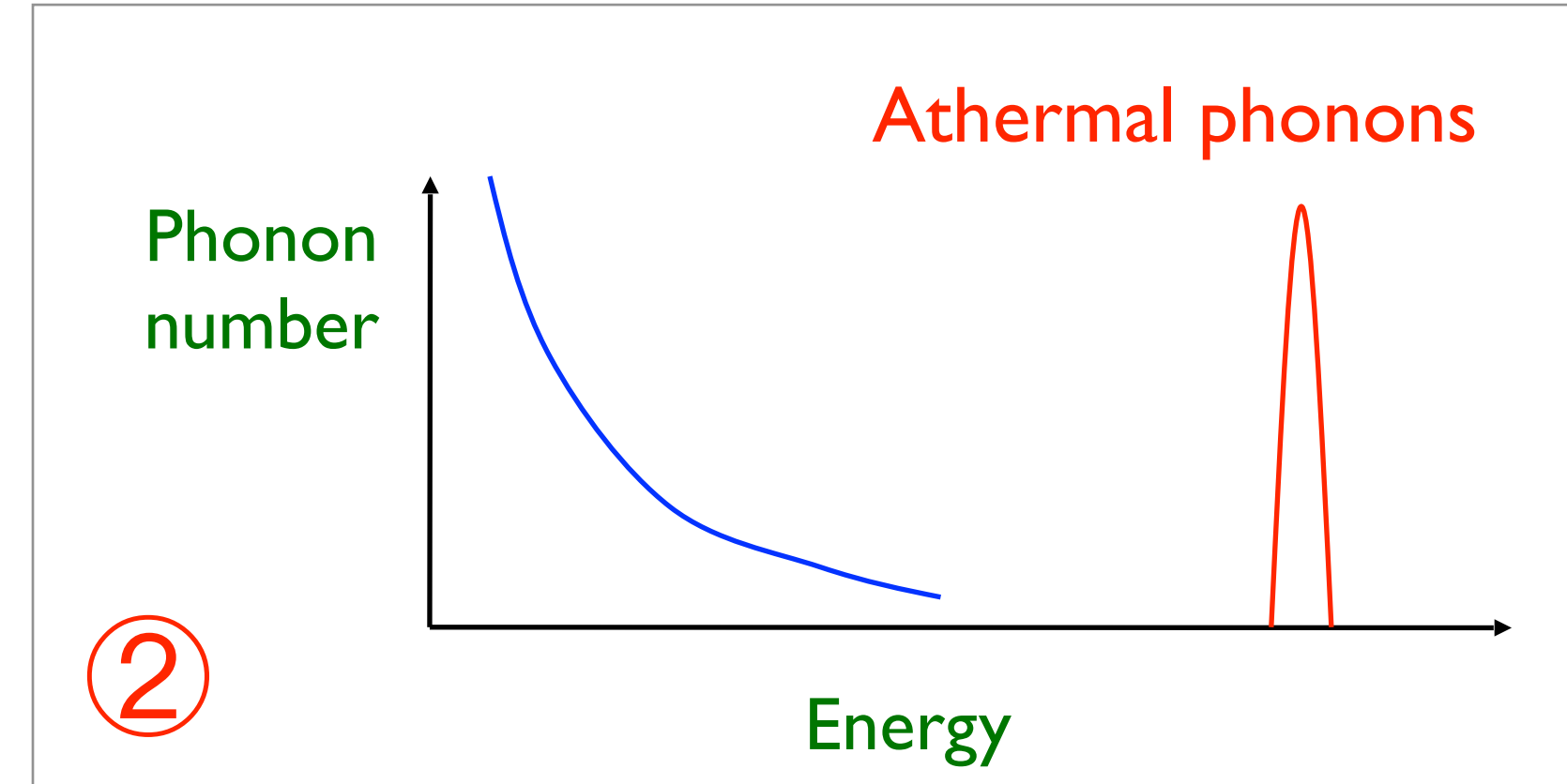


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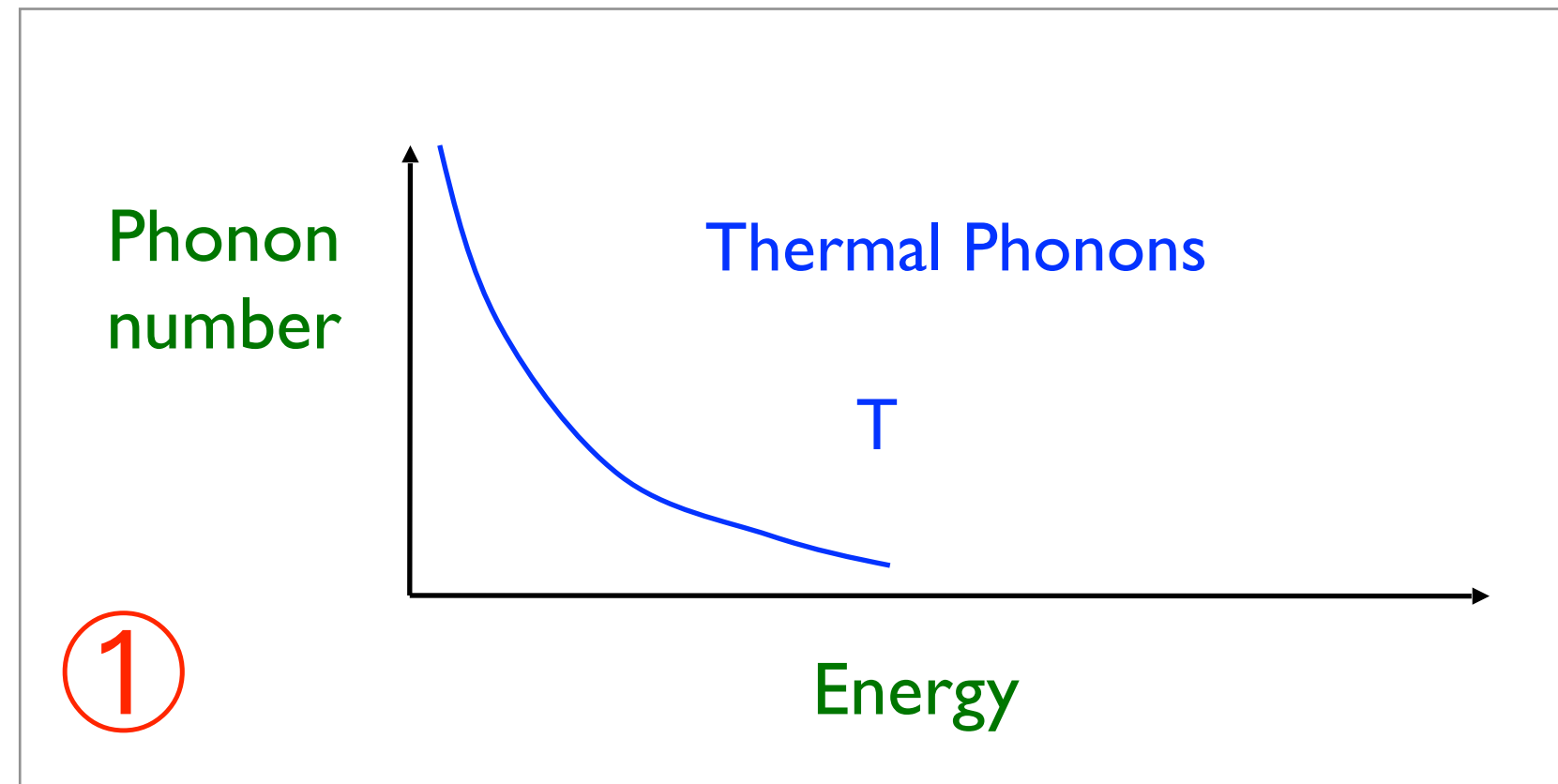


Immediately after interaction

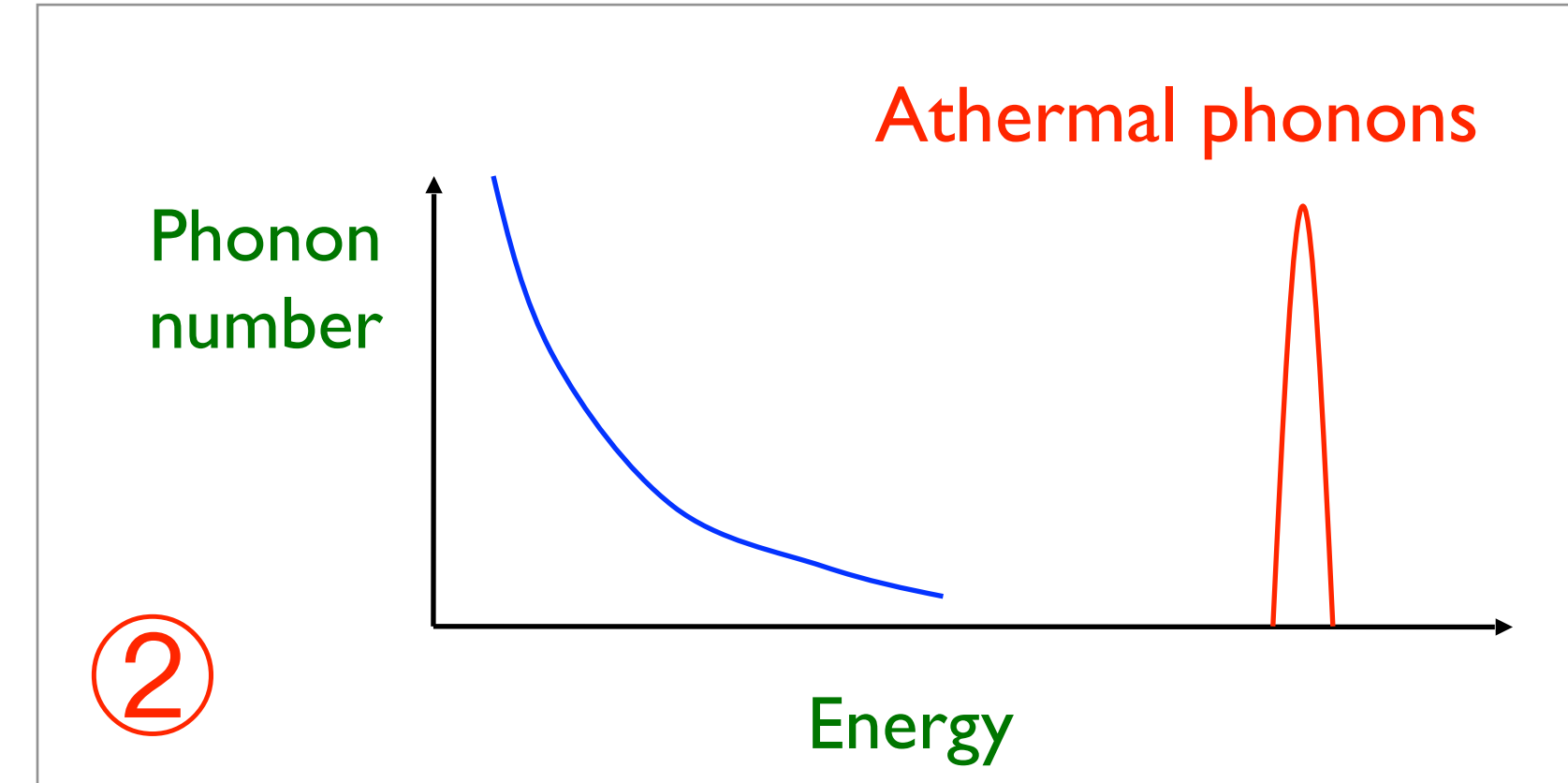


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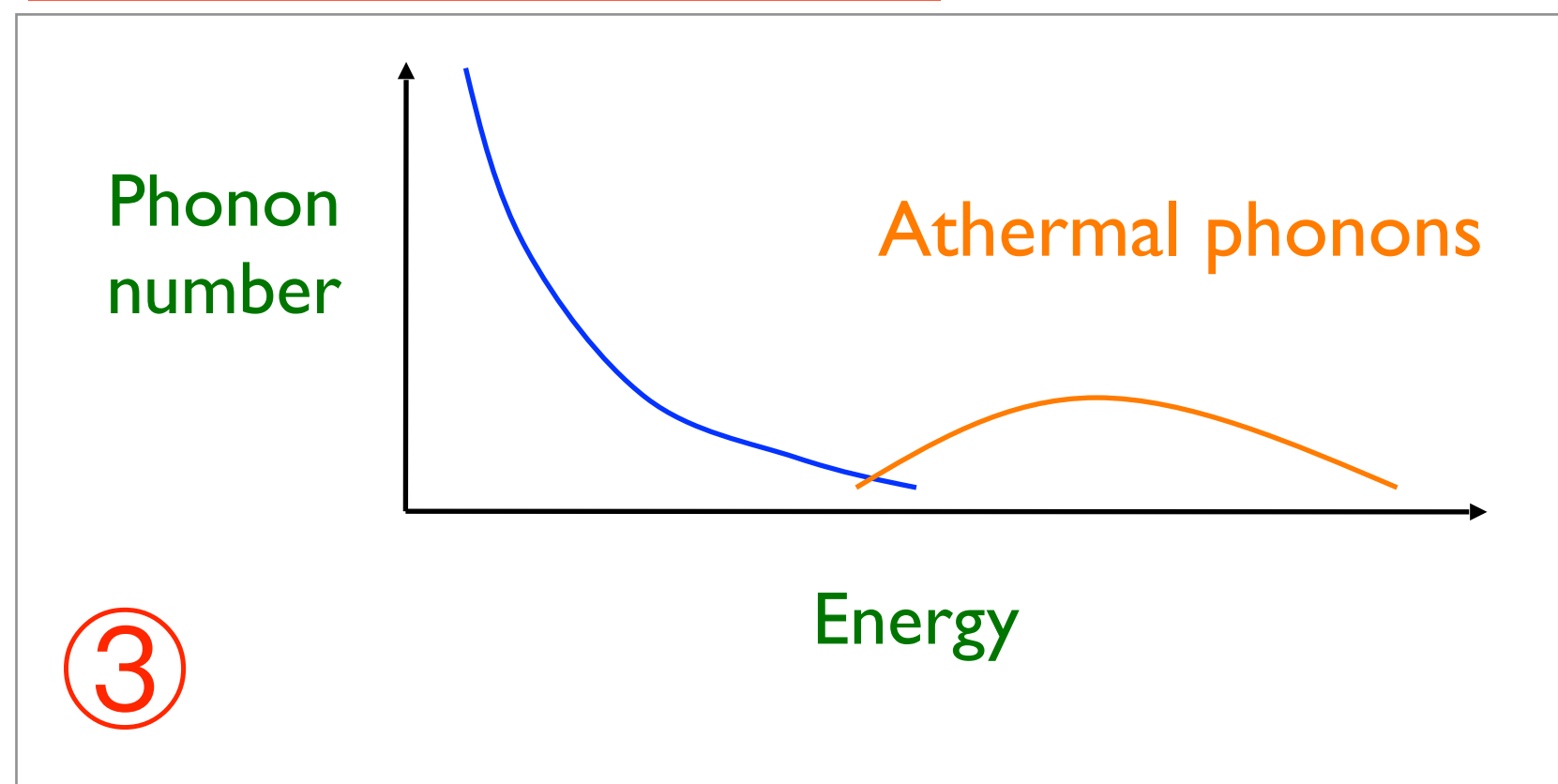
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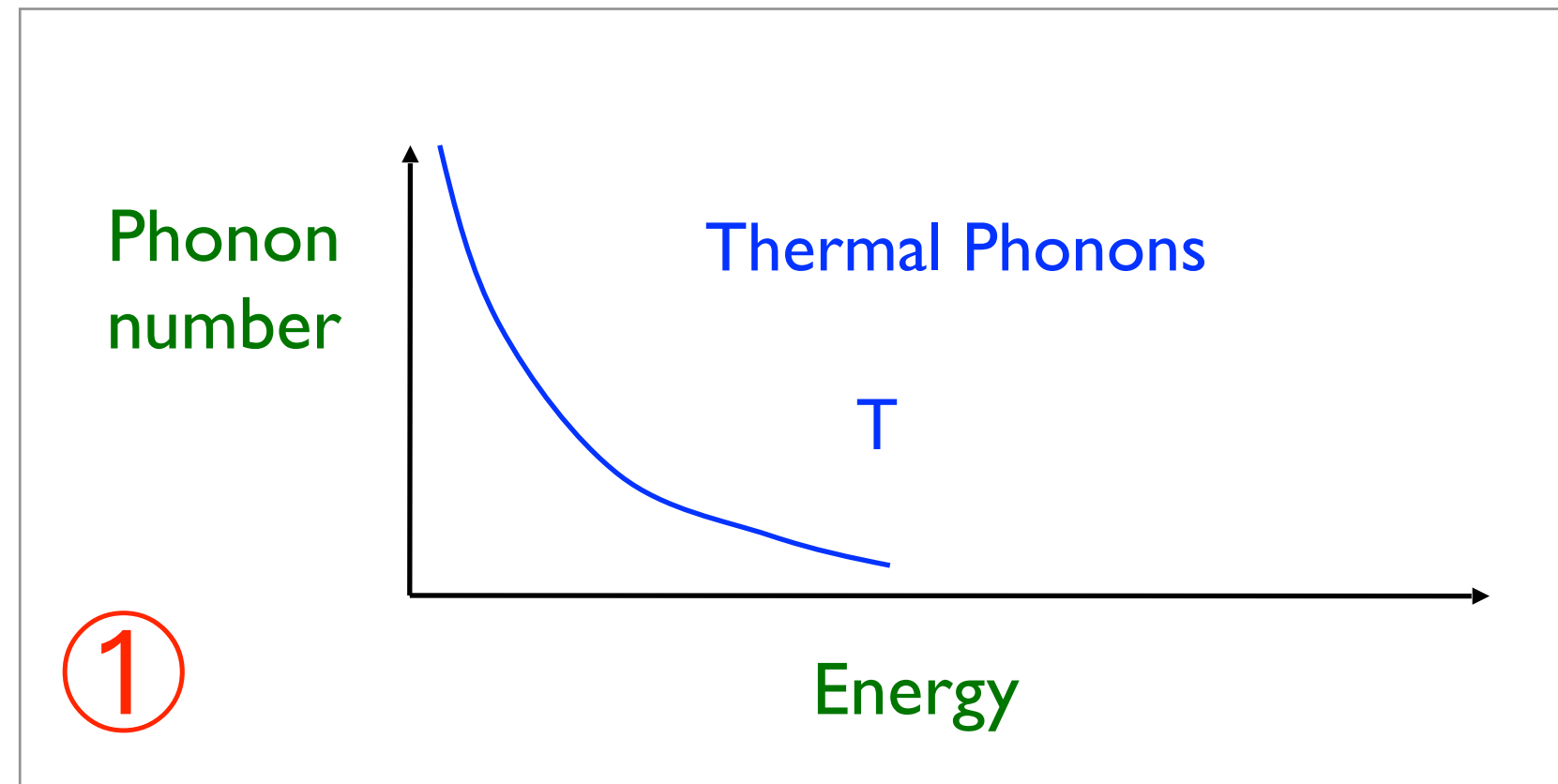


Phonon energy degradation

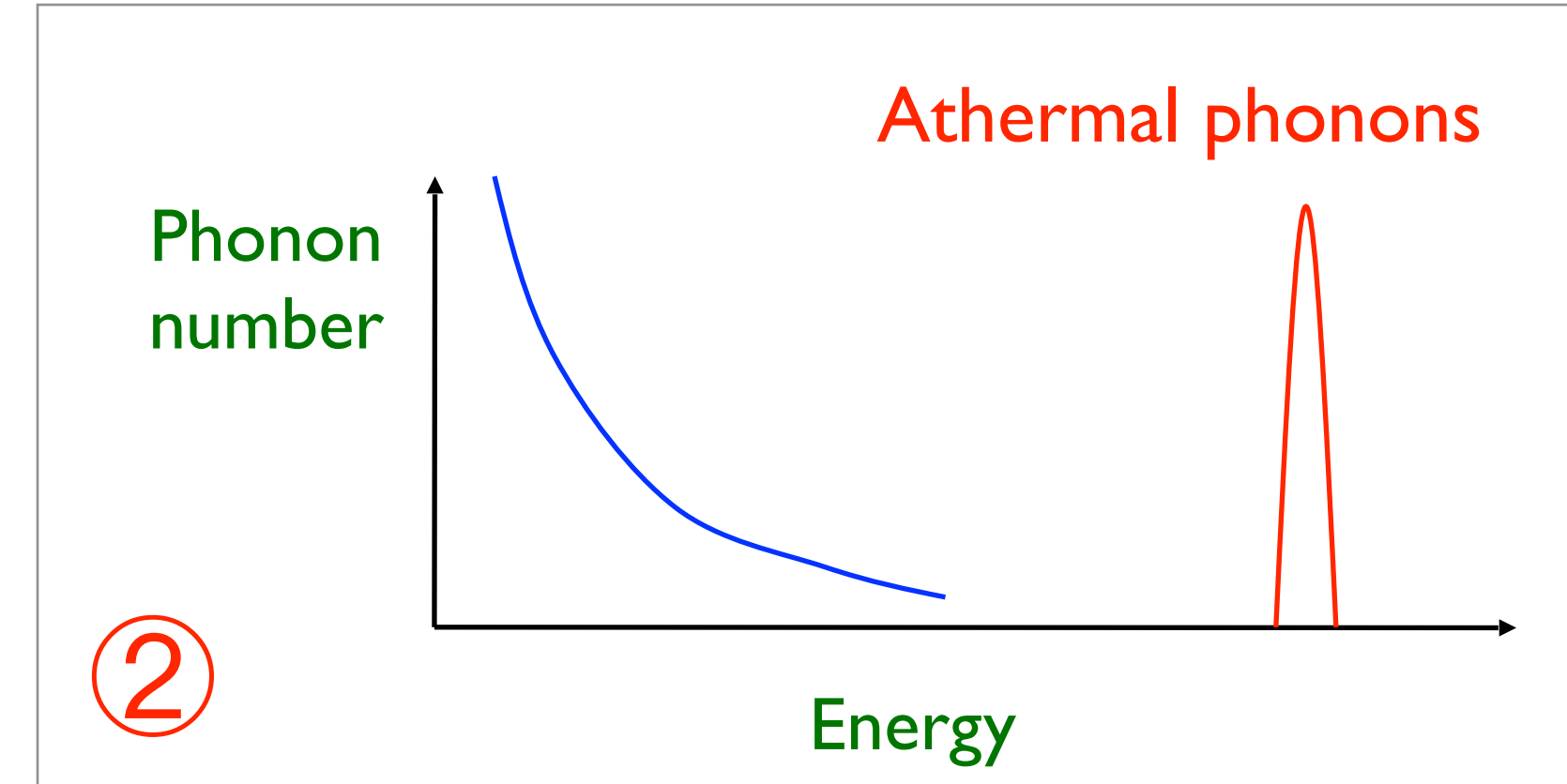


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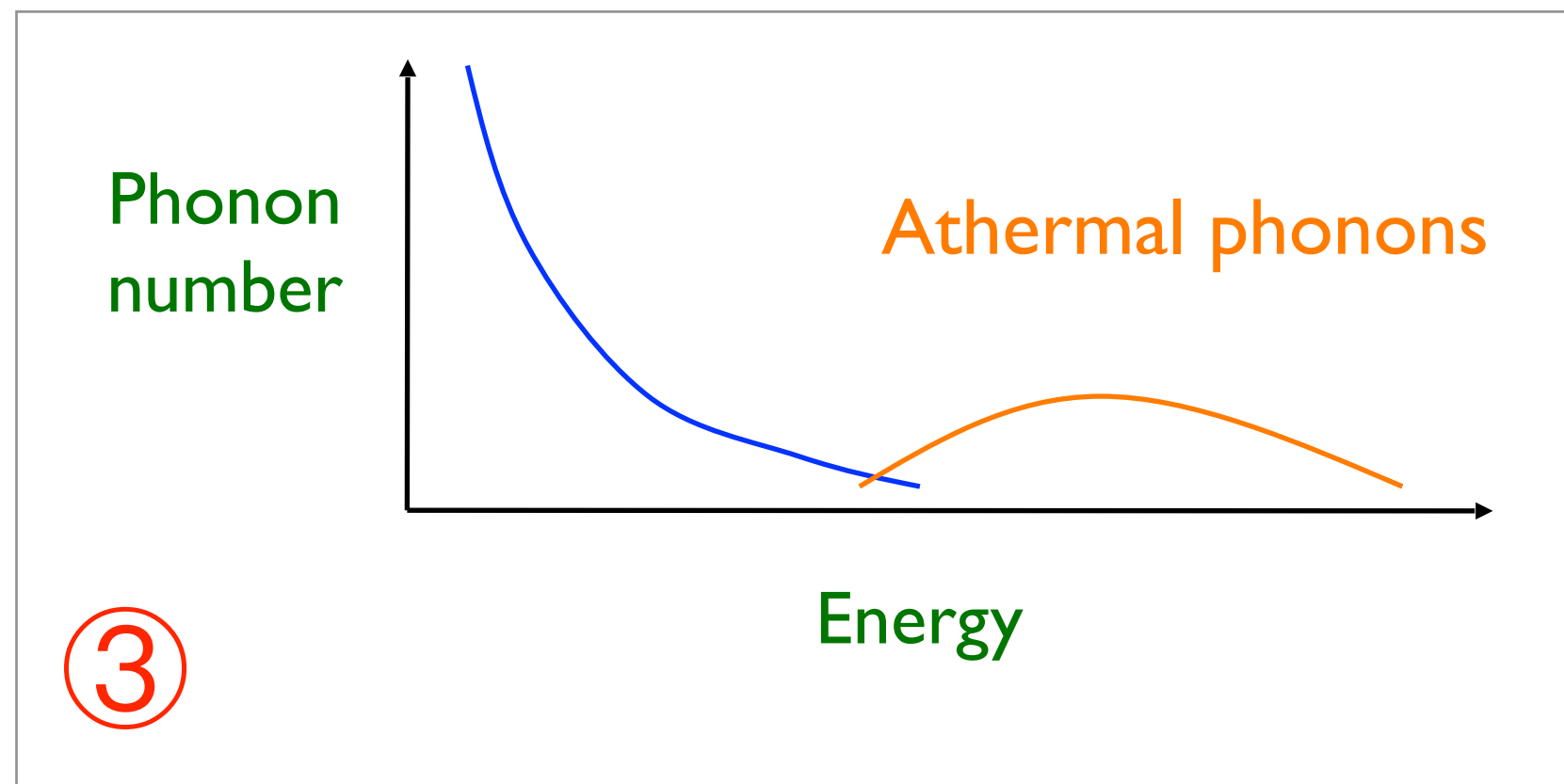
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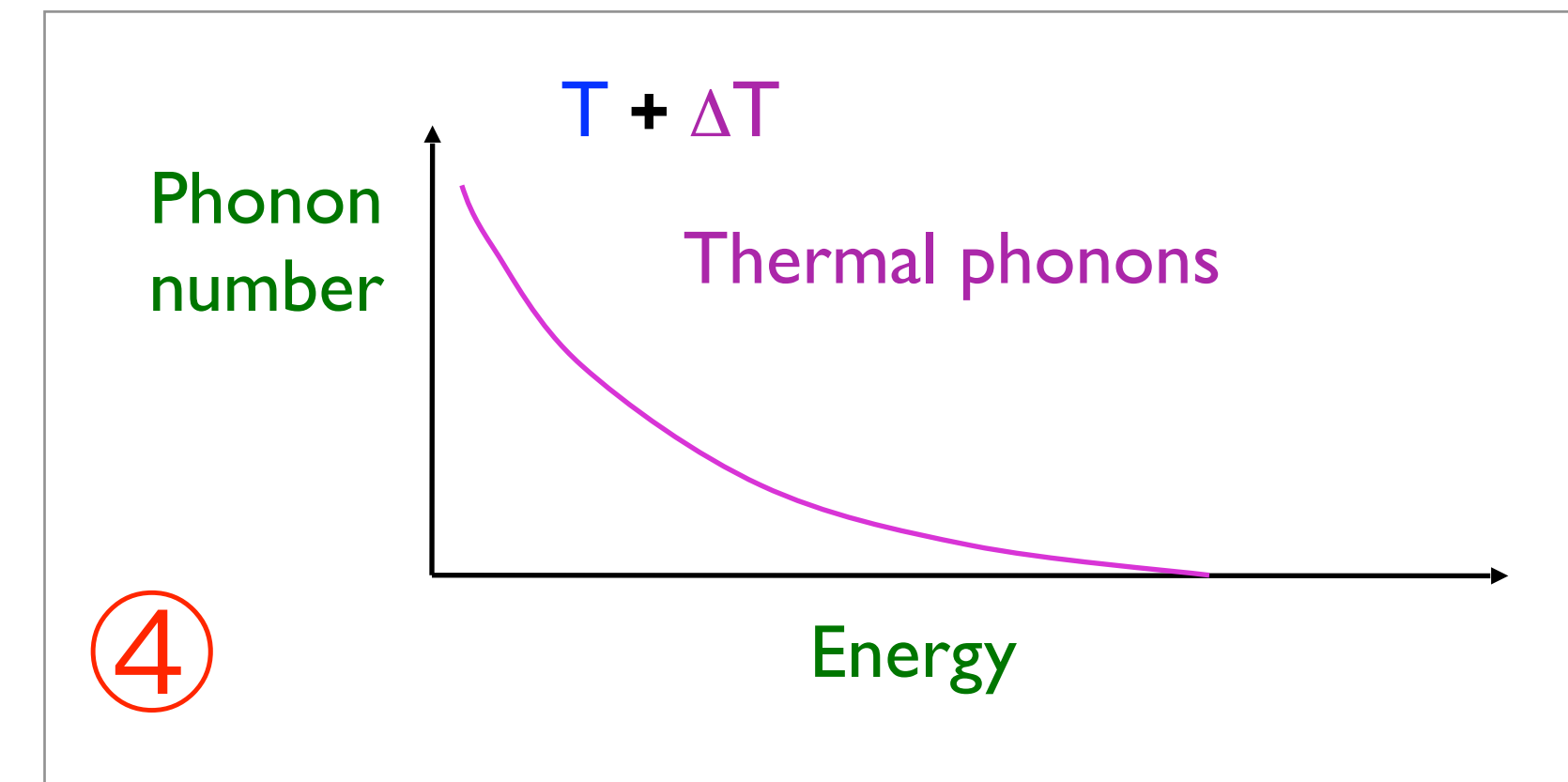
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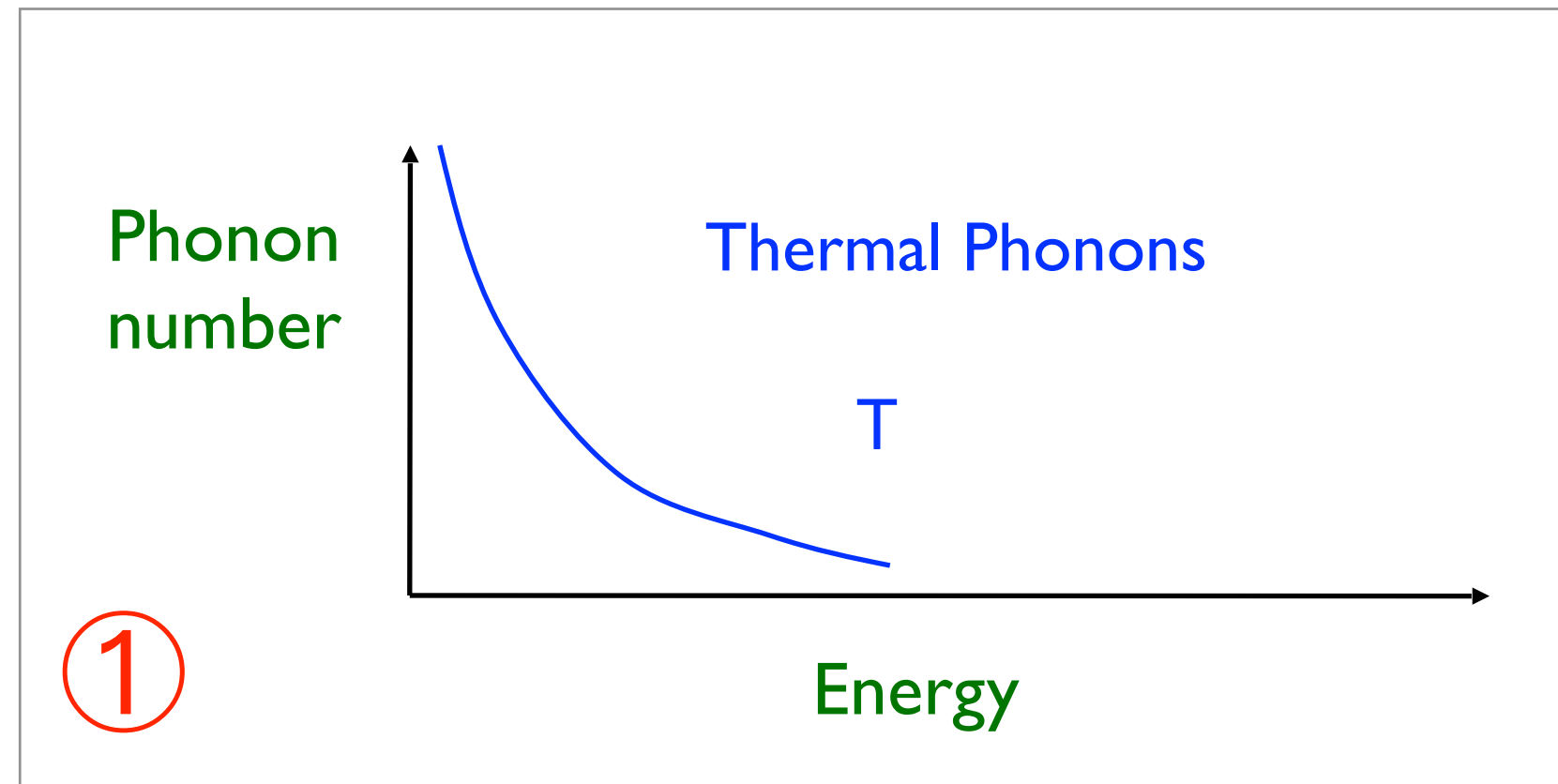


New thermal distribution

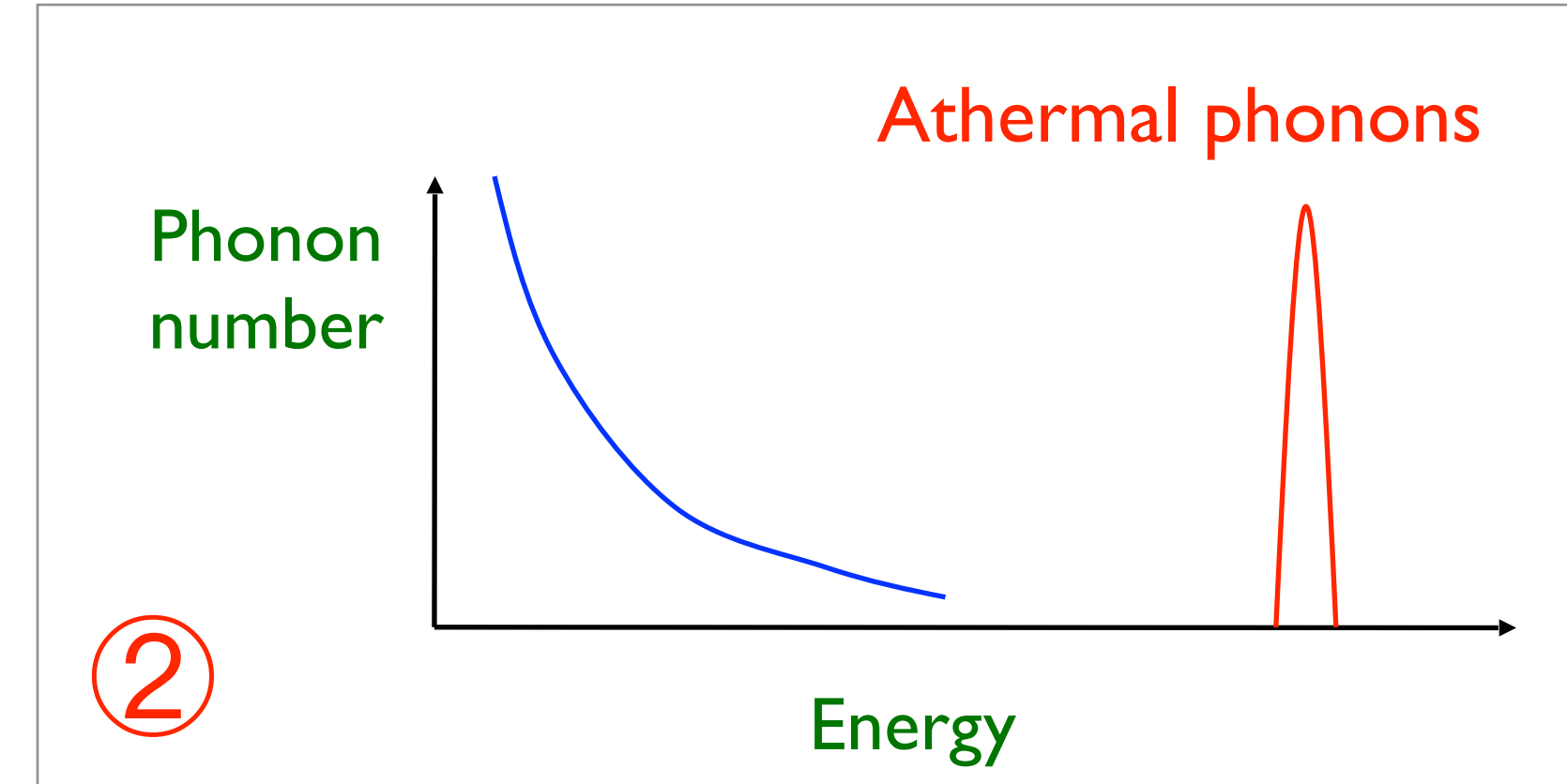


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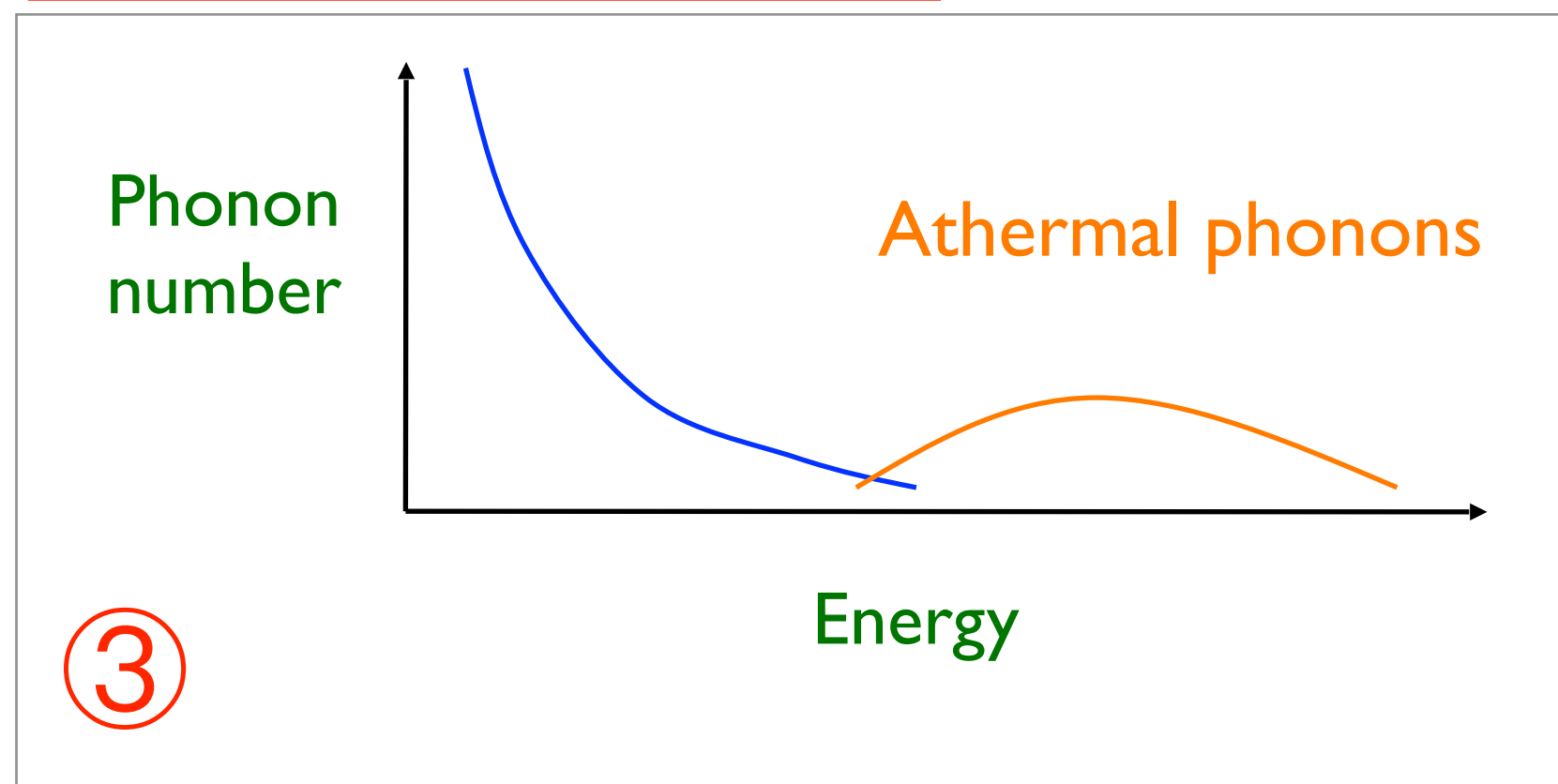


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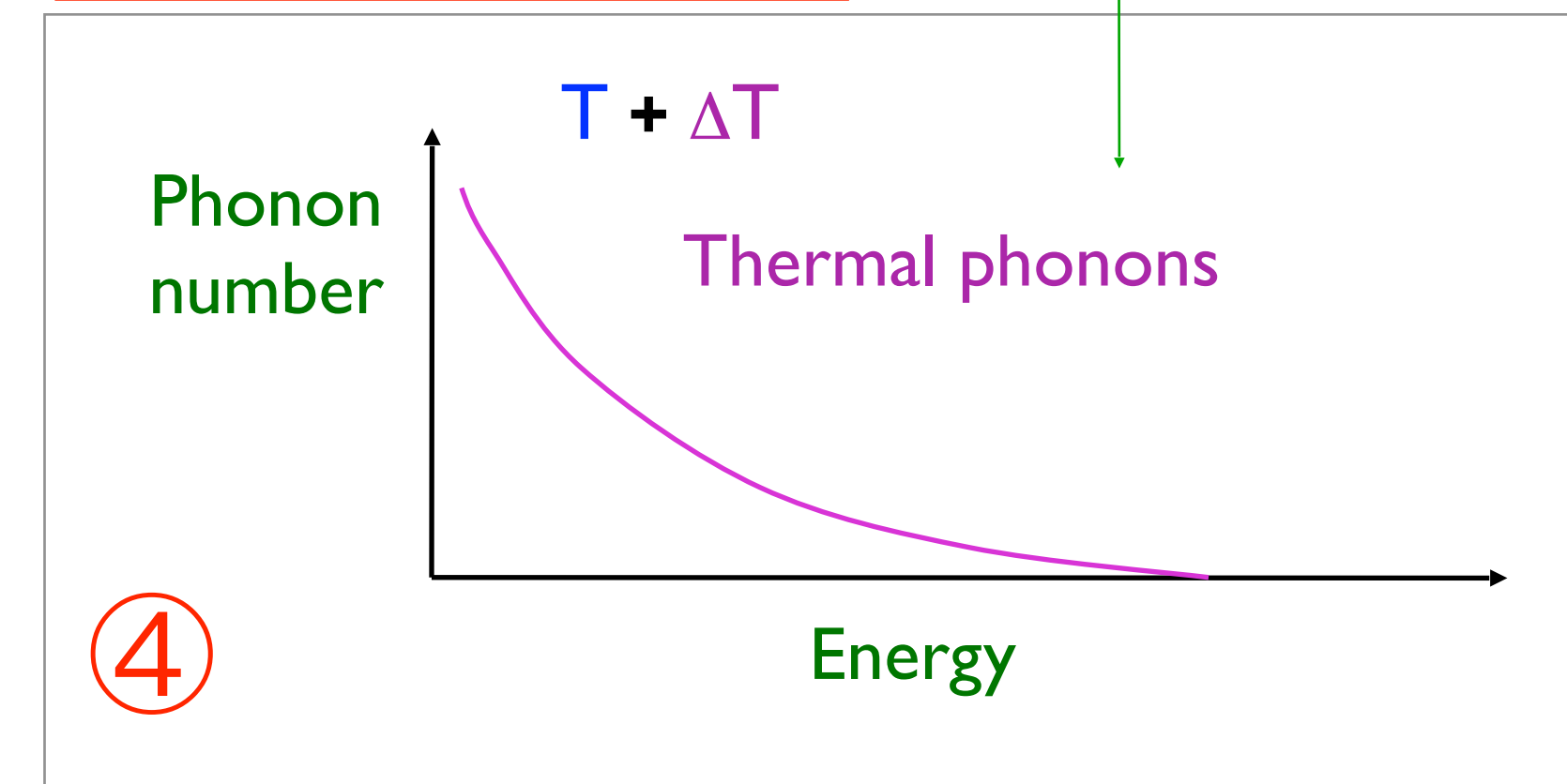


Detector operating here:
Perfect calorimeter

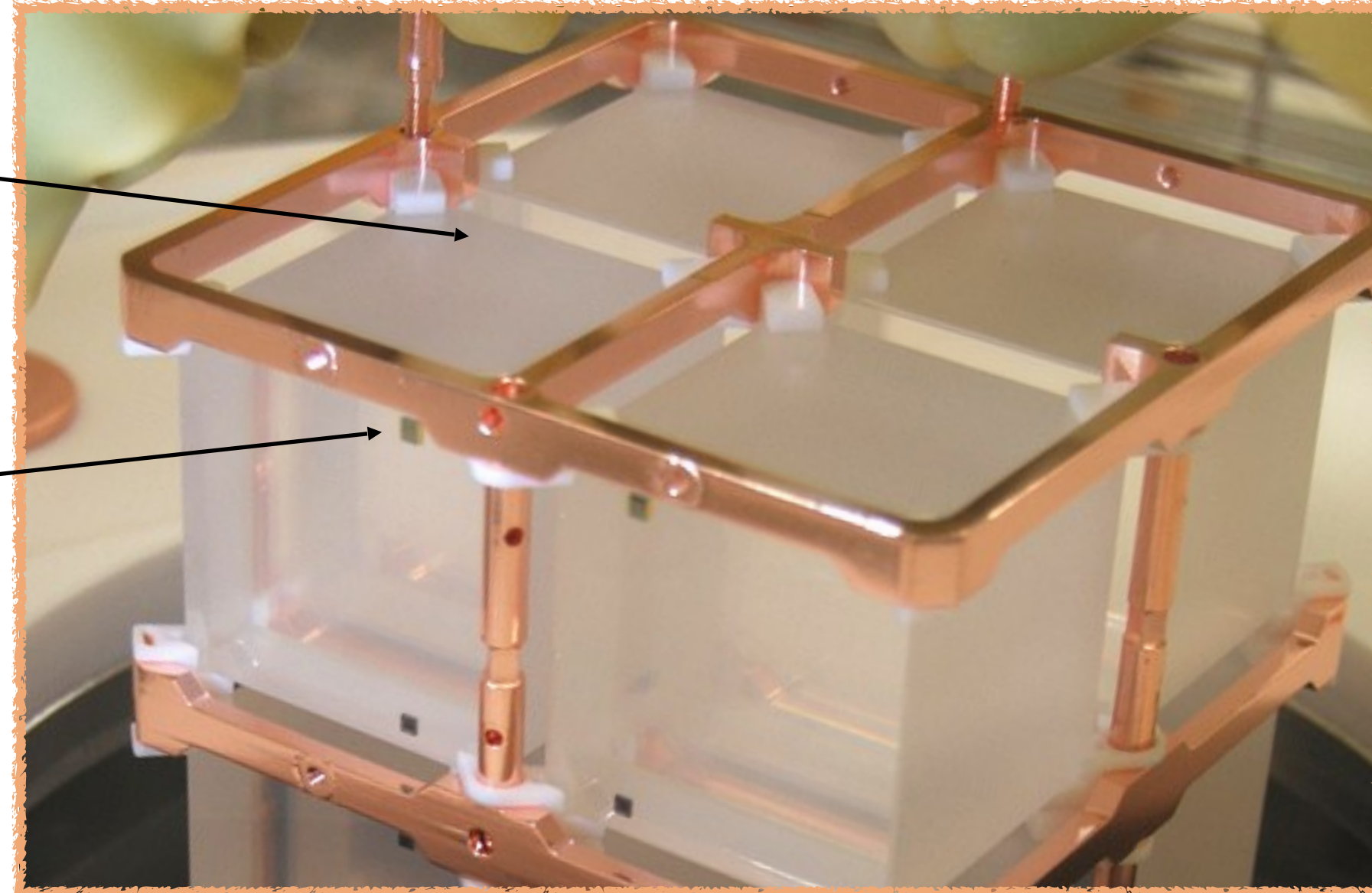
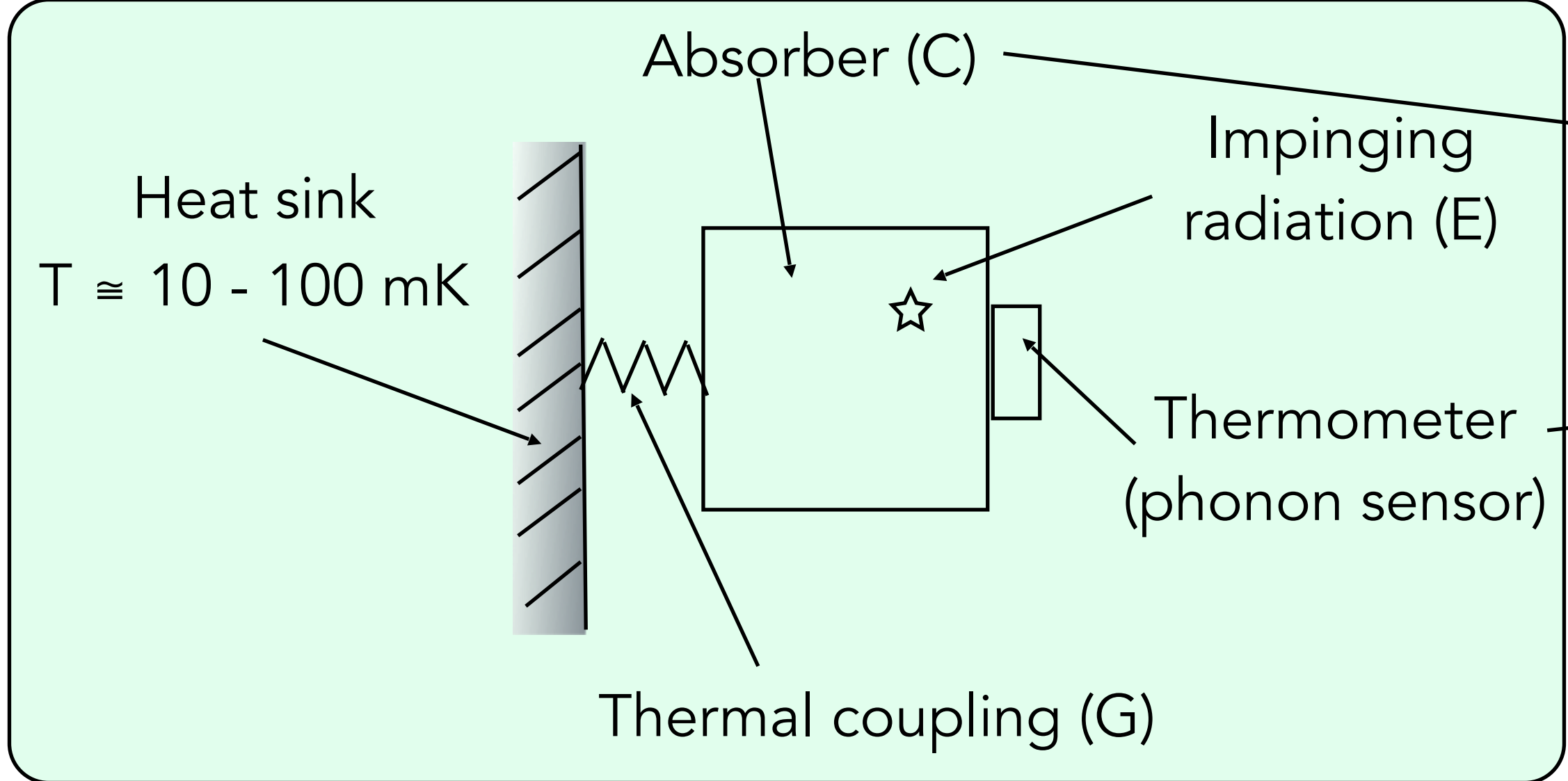
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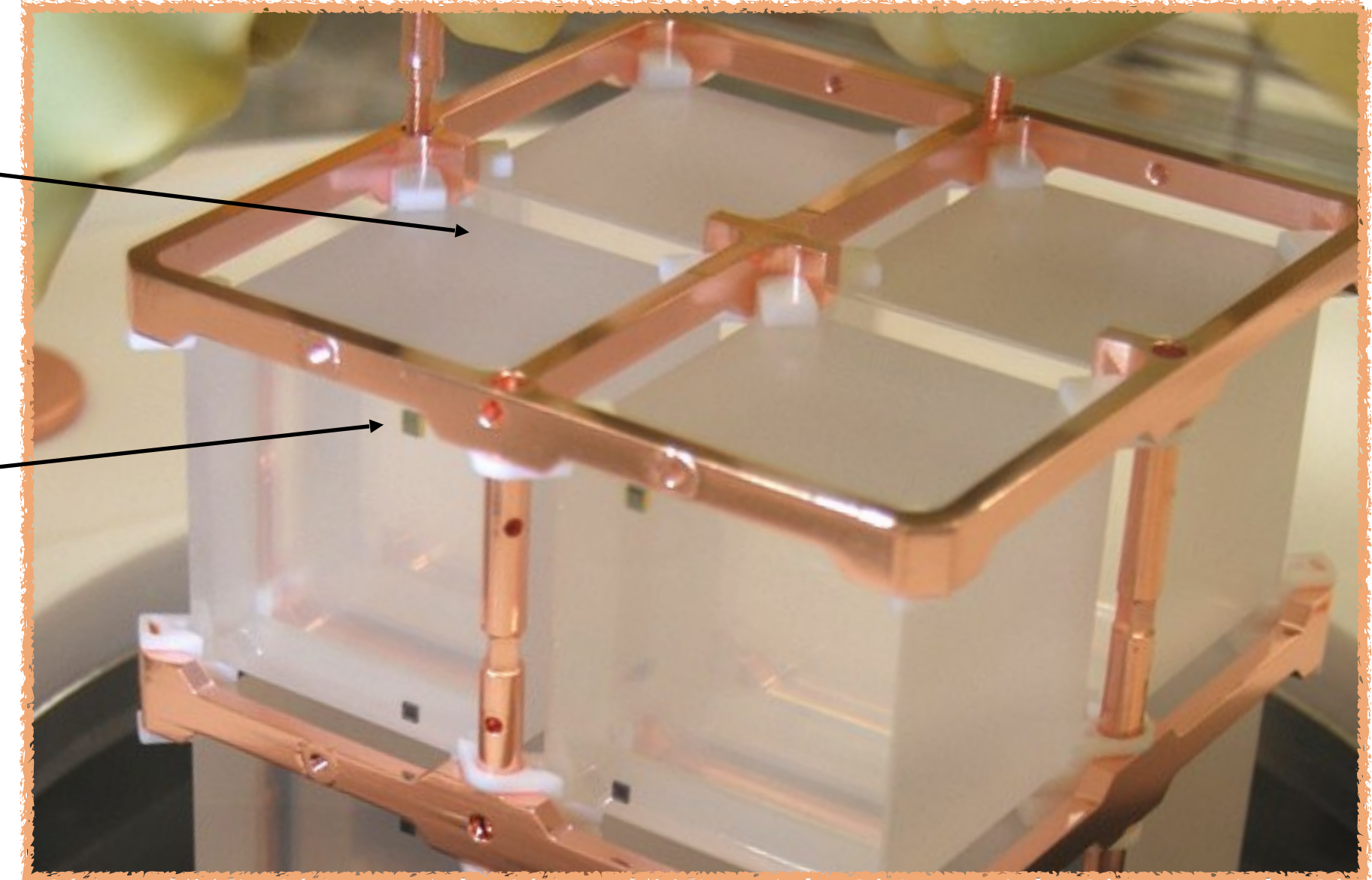
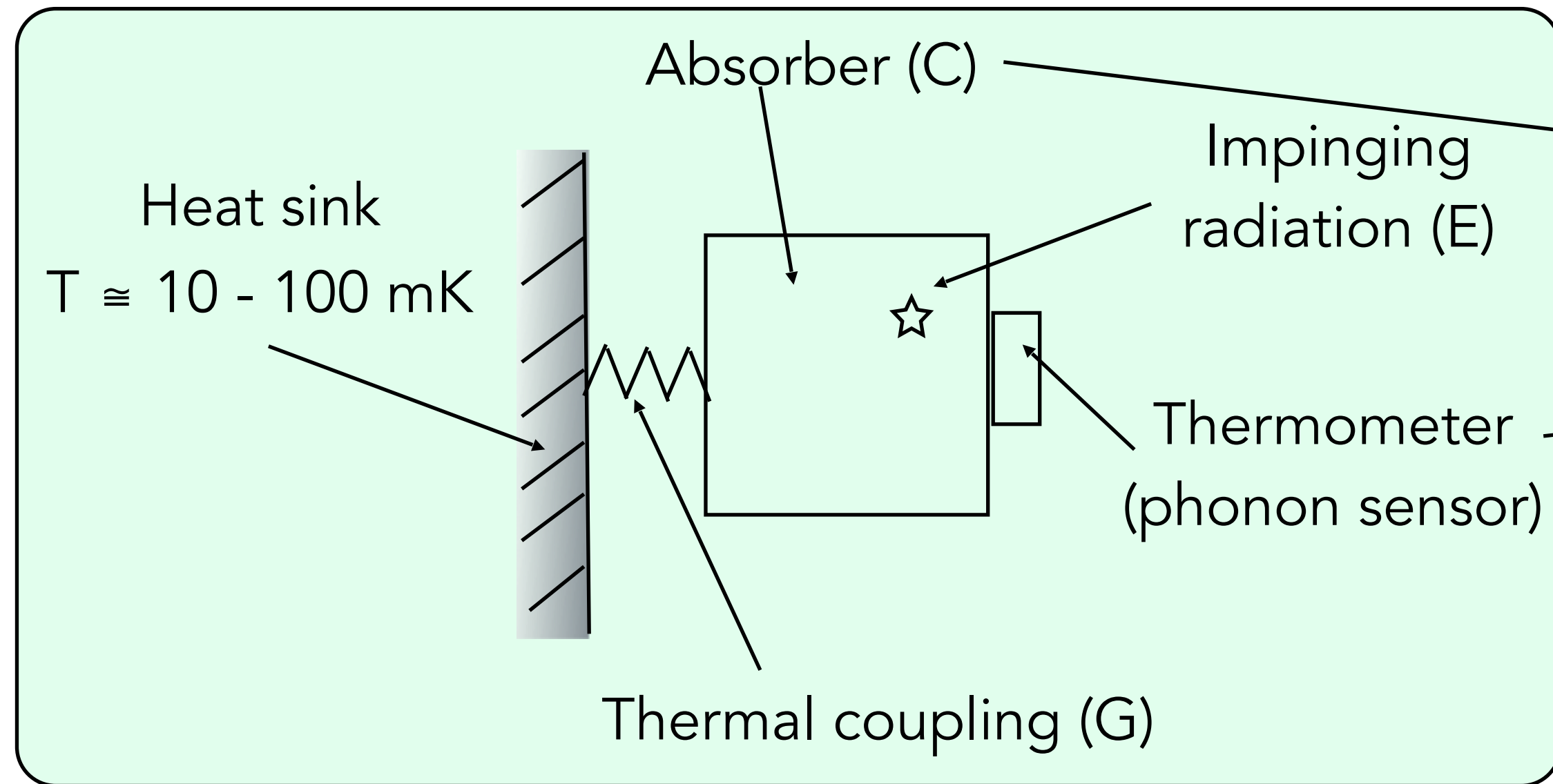
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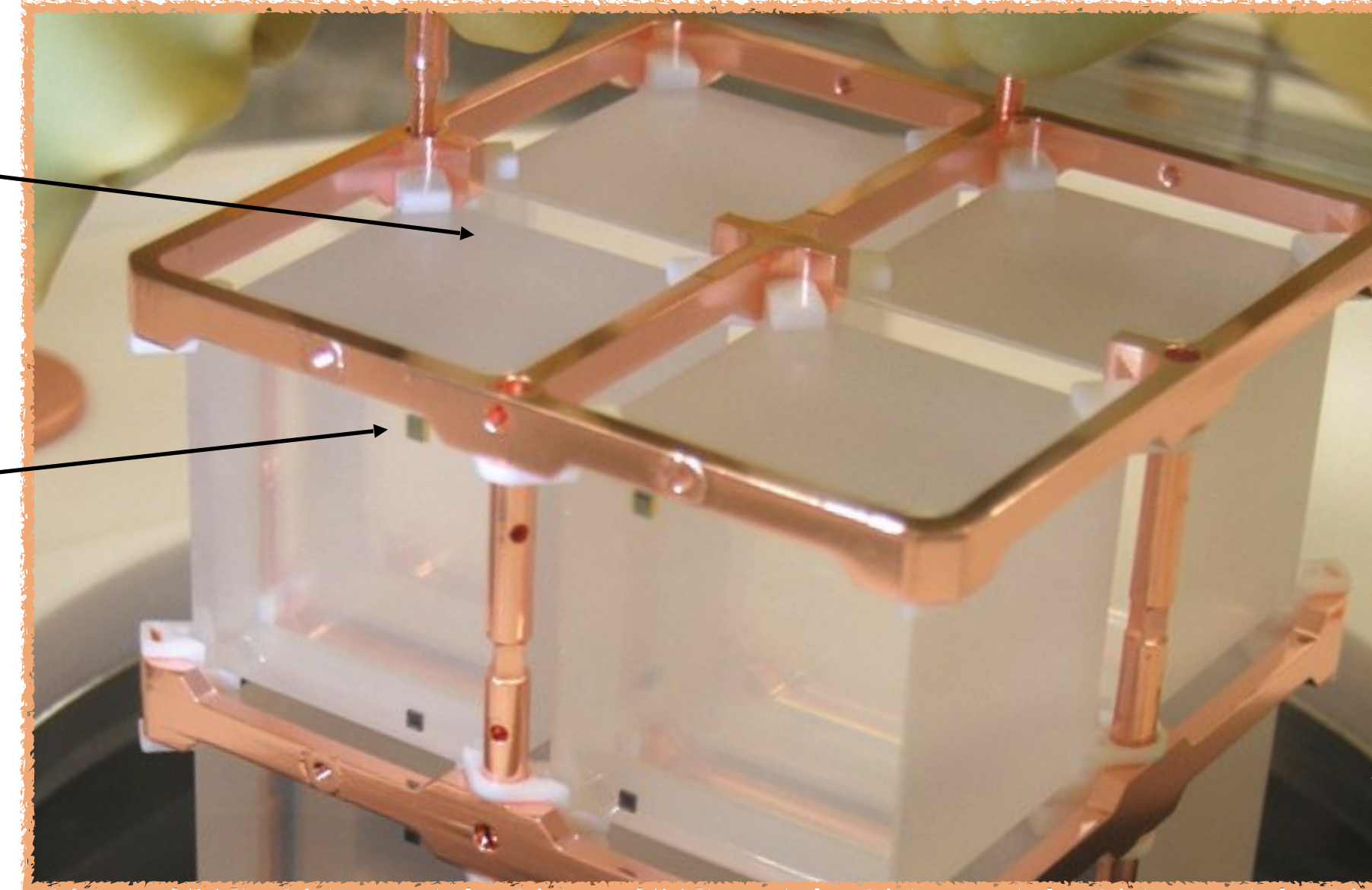
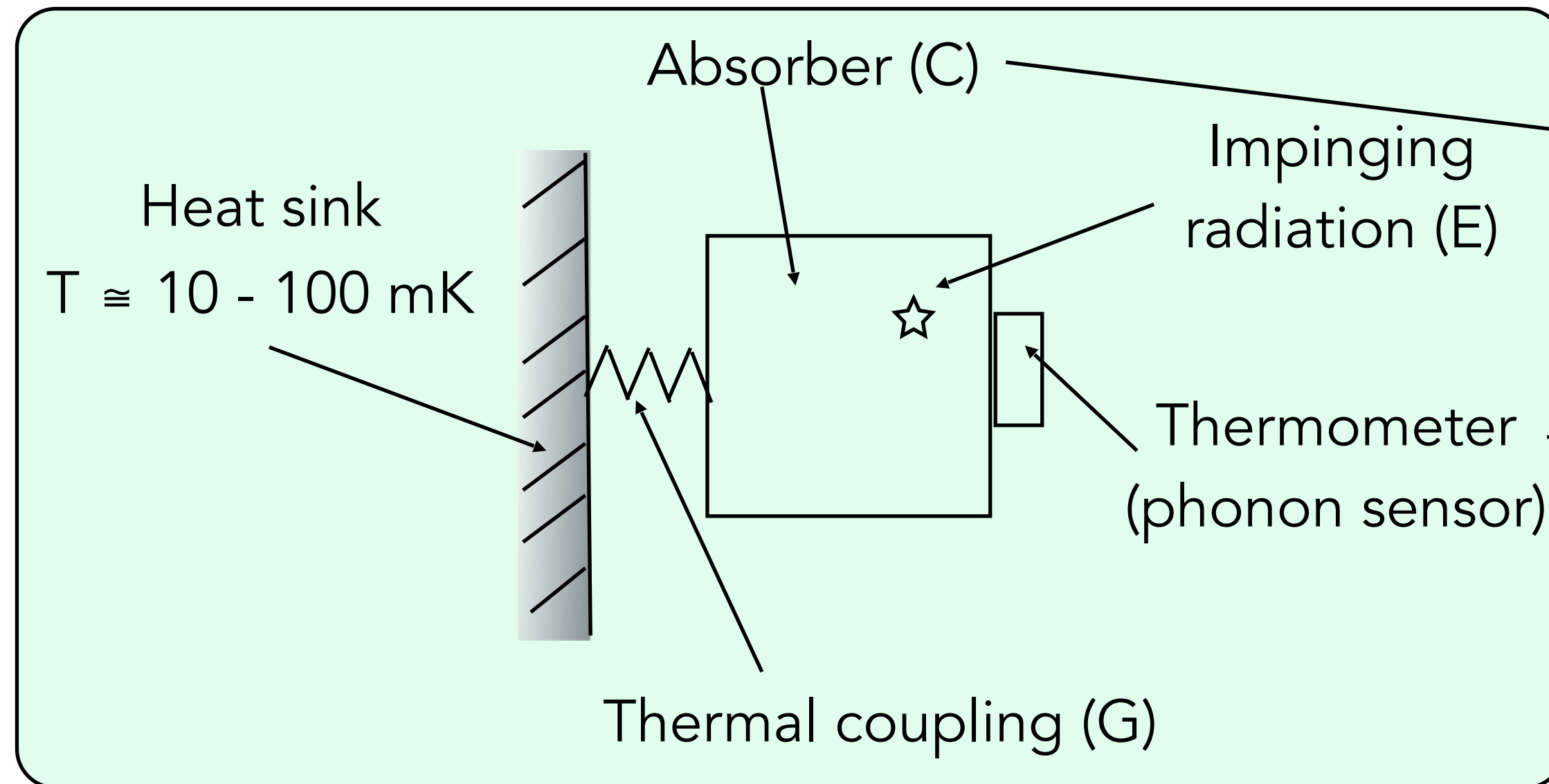


- The only relevant parameter for the energy absorber is the heat capacity C .
- The thermal conductance to the bath G enables the temperature recover.

Signal amplitude $\Delta T = E/C$

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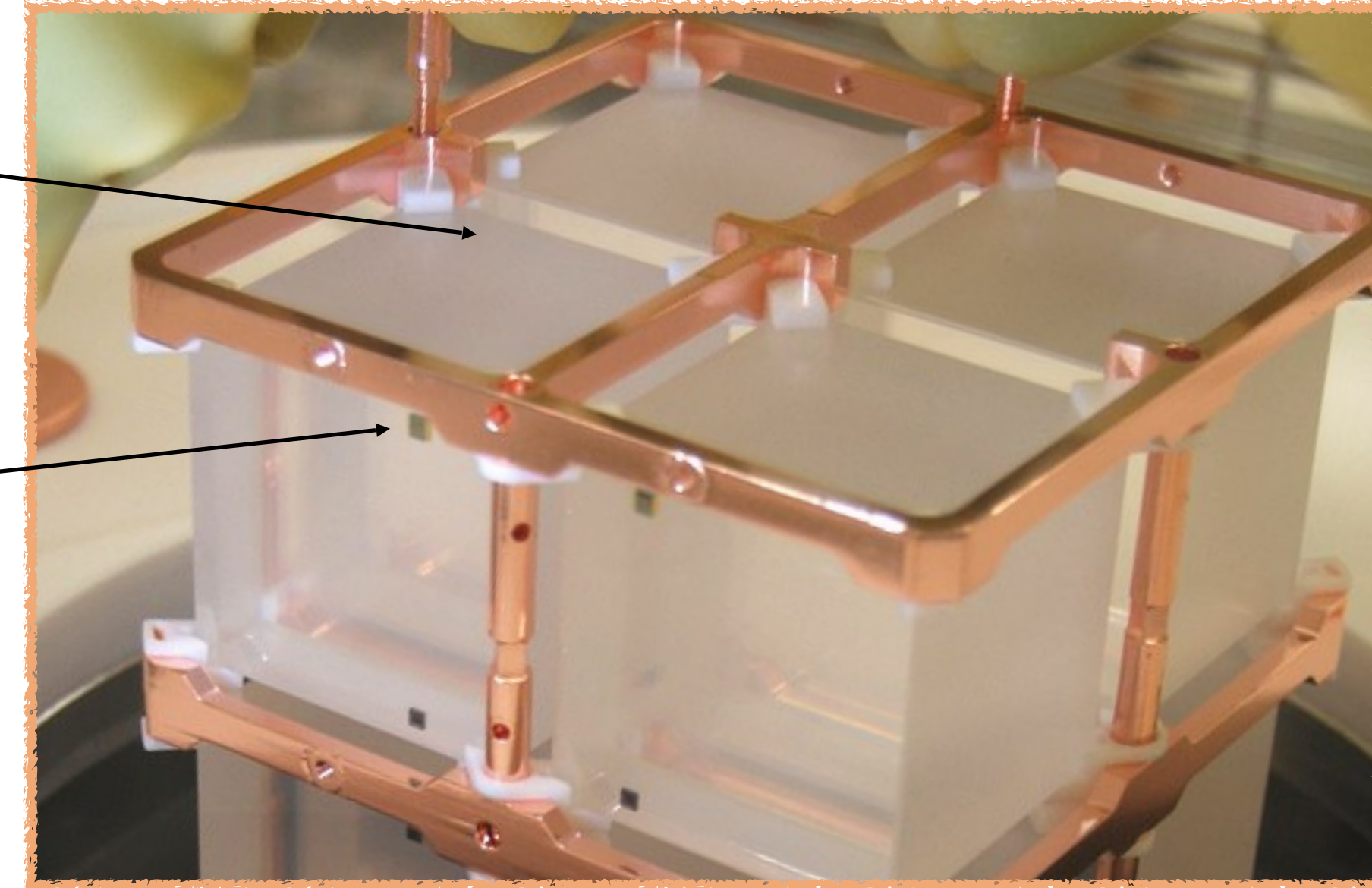
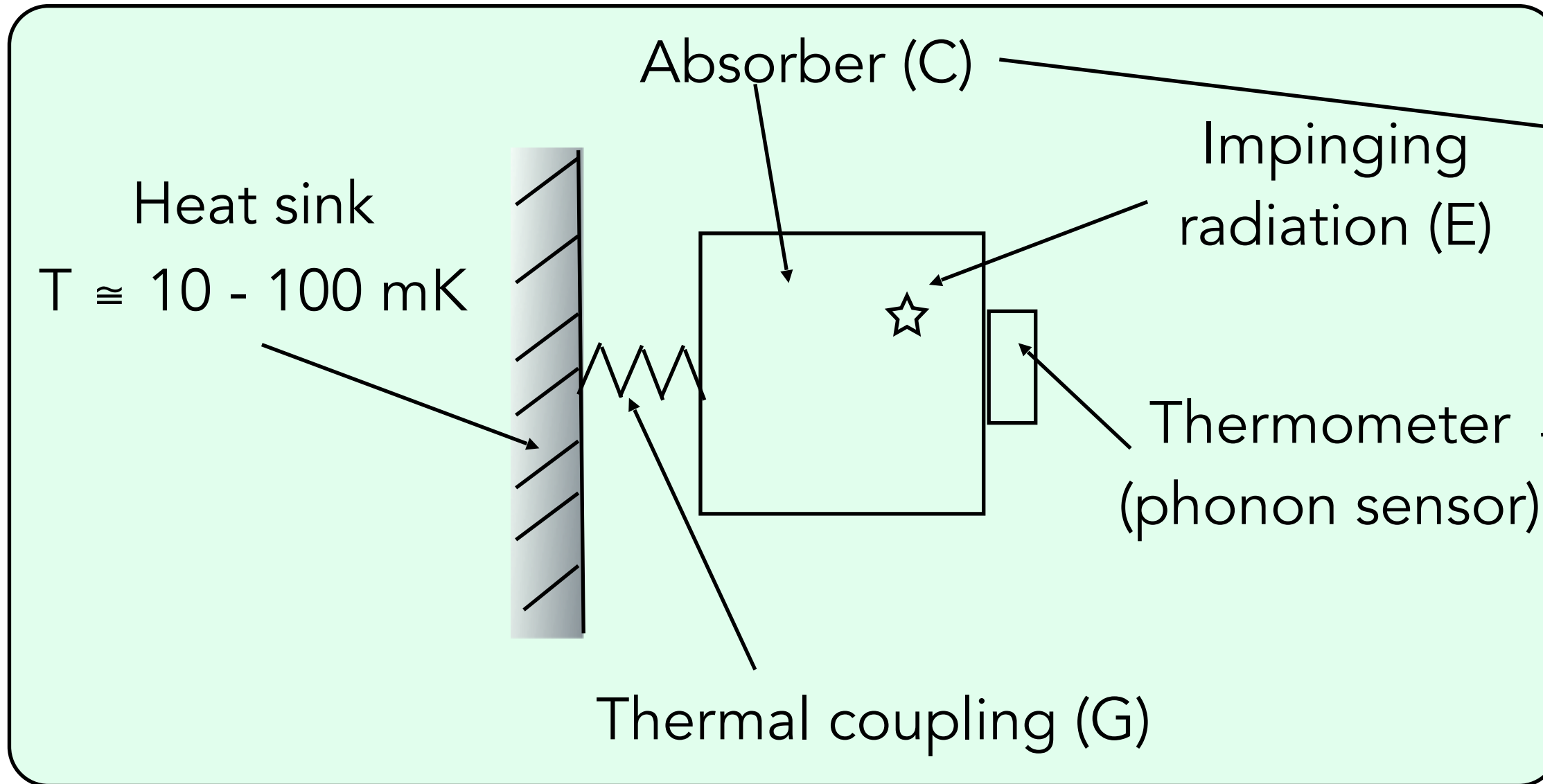
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- Dielectric and diamagnetic materials are preferred

$$C \propto (T/\Theta_D)^3 \text{ (Debye Law)}$$

Wide choice of materials!

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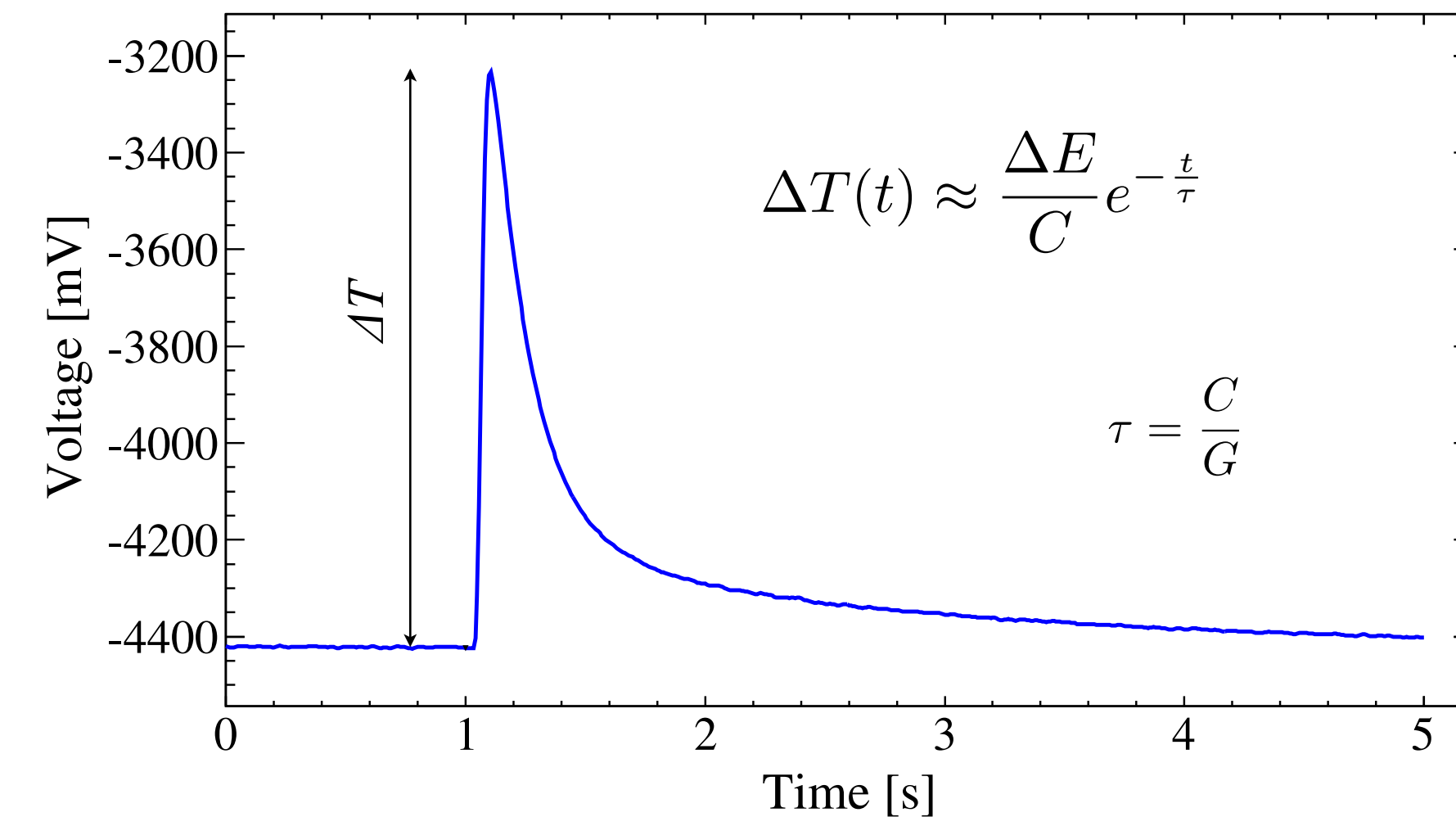
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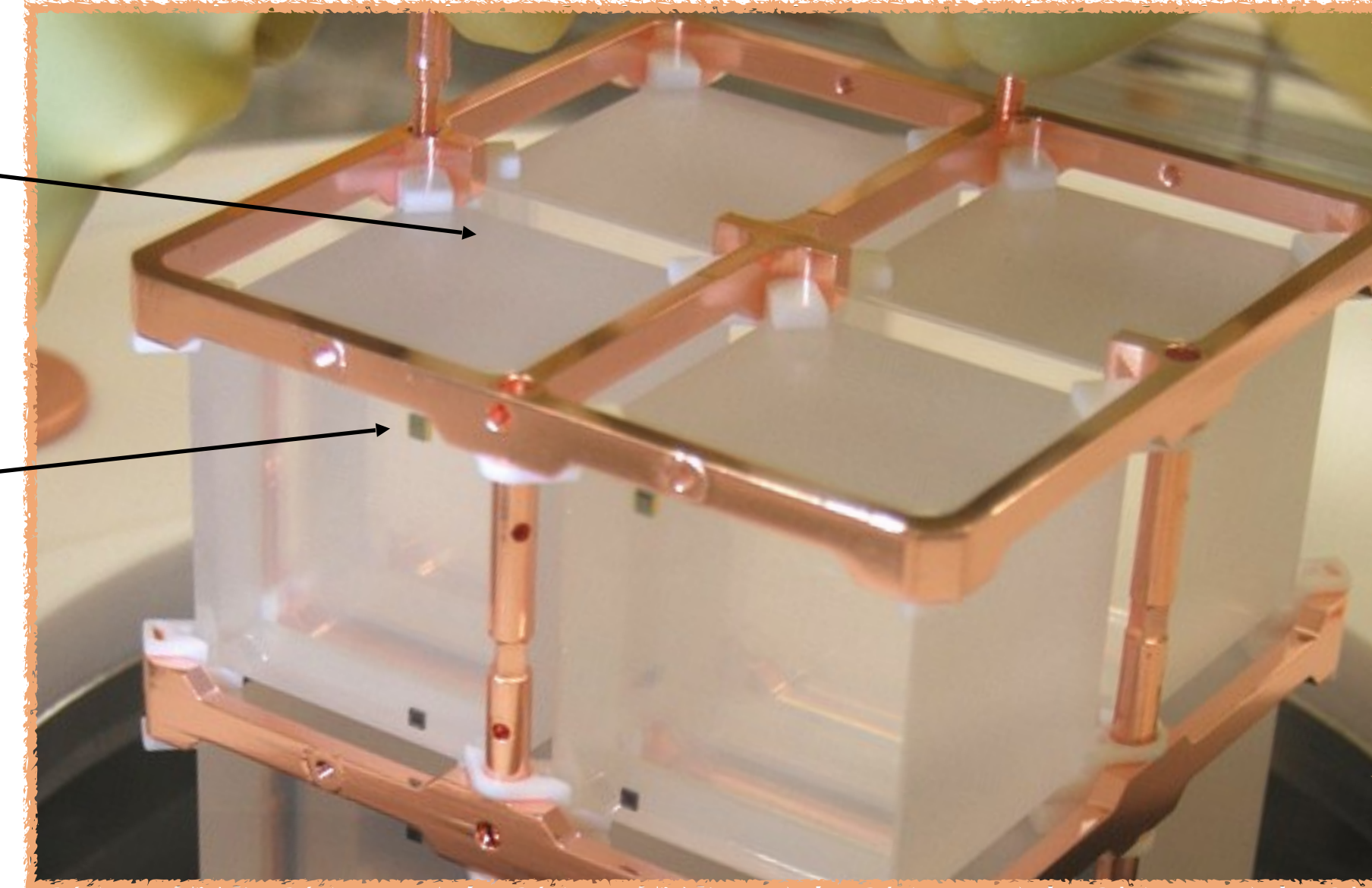
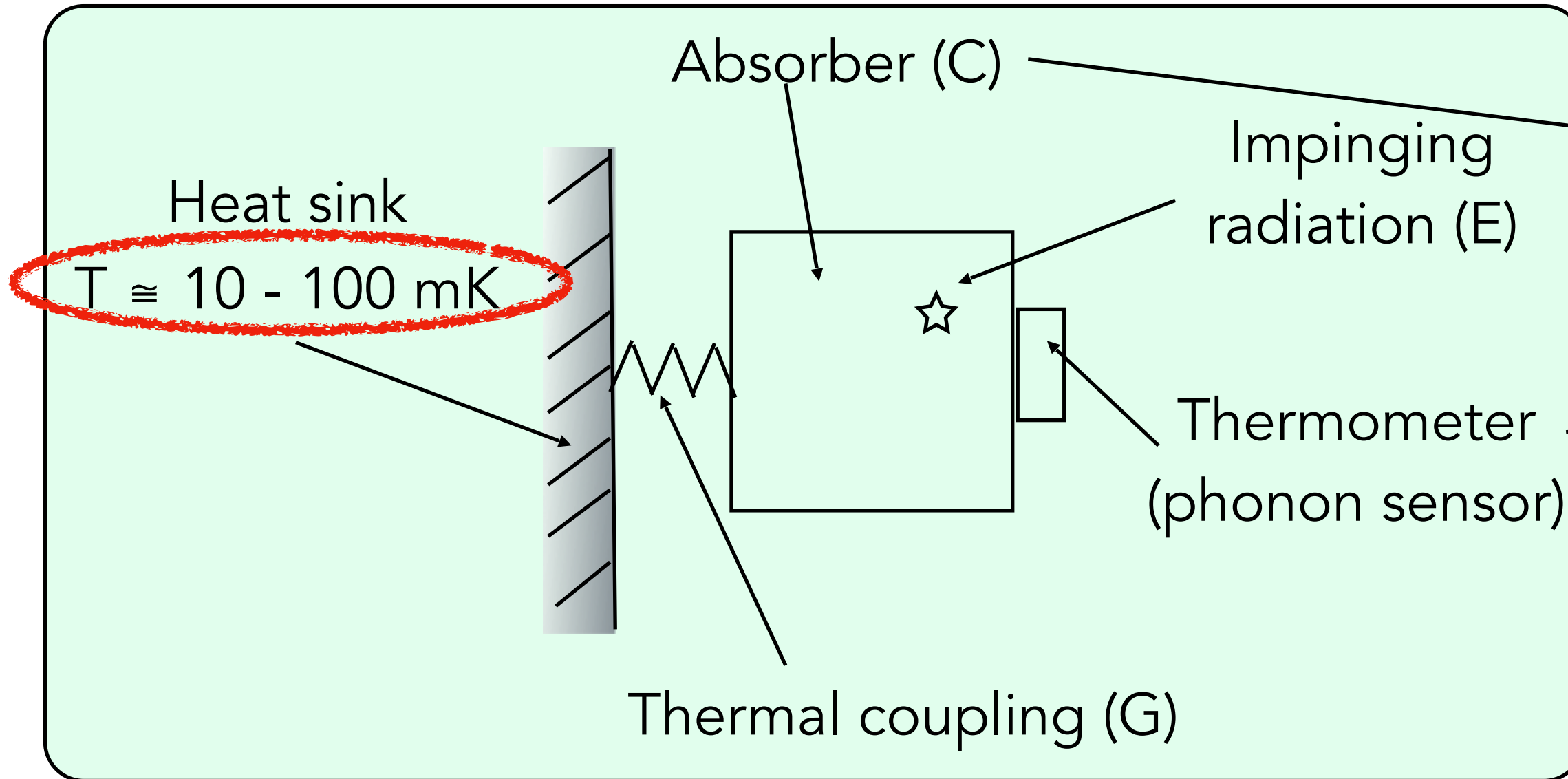
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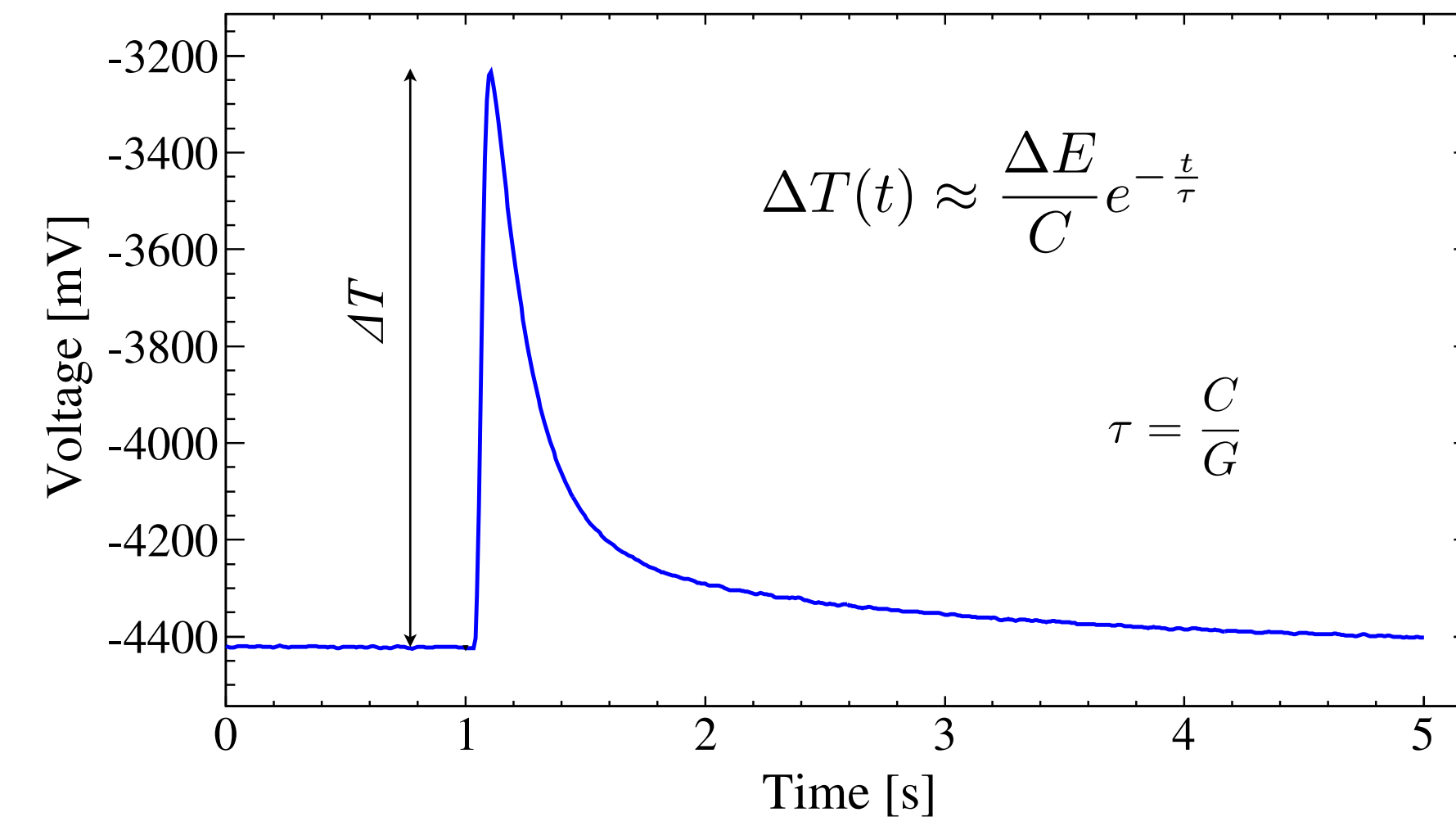
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1 keV in 1 g of TeO_2 at 300 K produce a T increase signal of $\sim 10^{-16}$ K, while at 10 mK $\sim 1 \mu\text{K}$

Summary

PROs:

- Very good energy resolution
- Wide choice of materials for the energy absorber (also multi-target)
- Possibility of building big detectors (~kg scale)

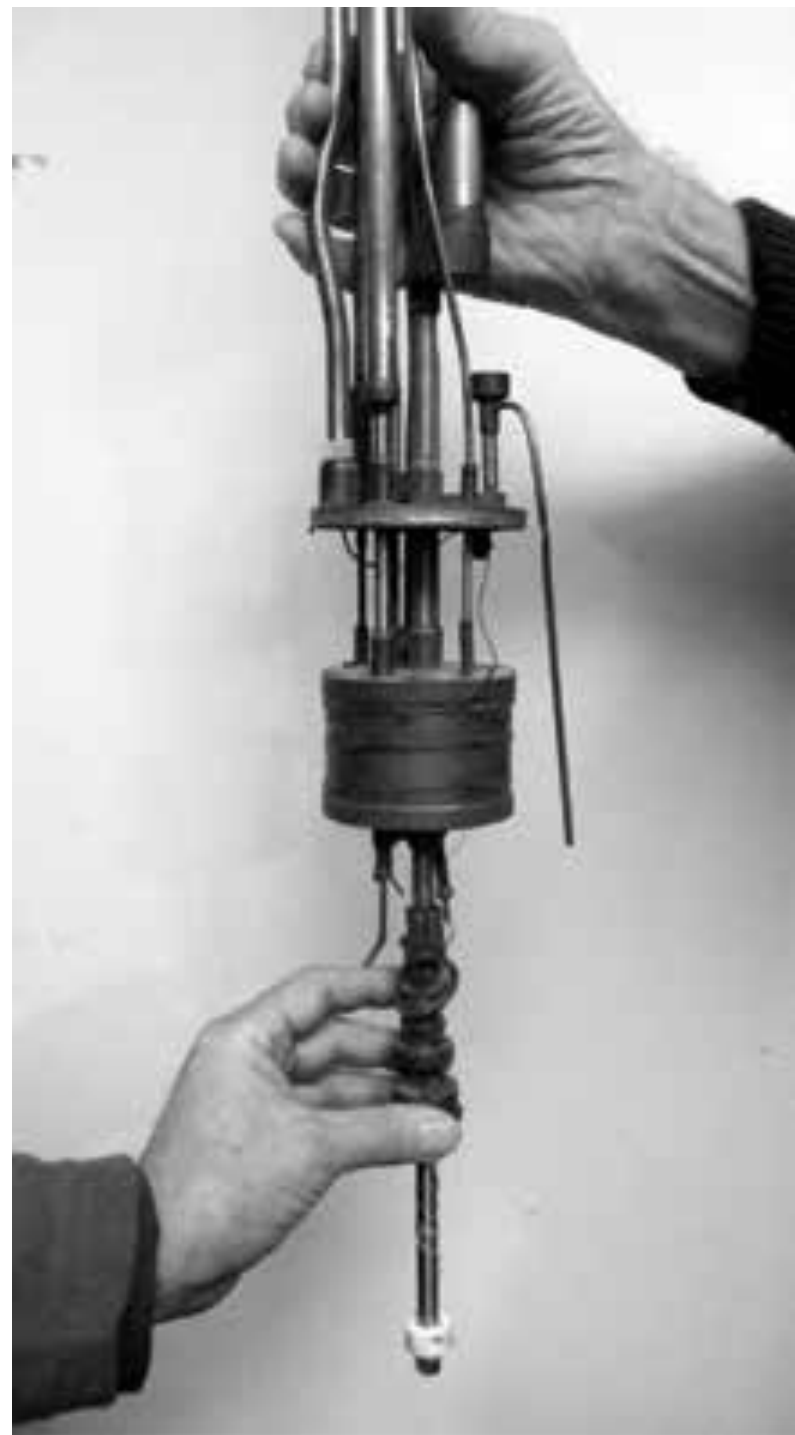
CONs:

- Very slow signal (50 msec - 2 sec, depends on sensor and mass)
- Need to work at low temperature
- No radiation identification (?)
- Difficult to scale at very large masses (>multi-tonne)

A (short) digression: physic of low temperature

Dilution Refrigeration

In 1900 century many development have been performed in cryogenic physics leading to the capability of reaching mK temperatures with reliable systems. Dilution units have open the way to mK applications in a wide range of physic fields.



A bit of history

1951: idea proposed by H. London

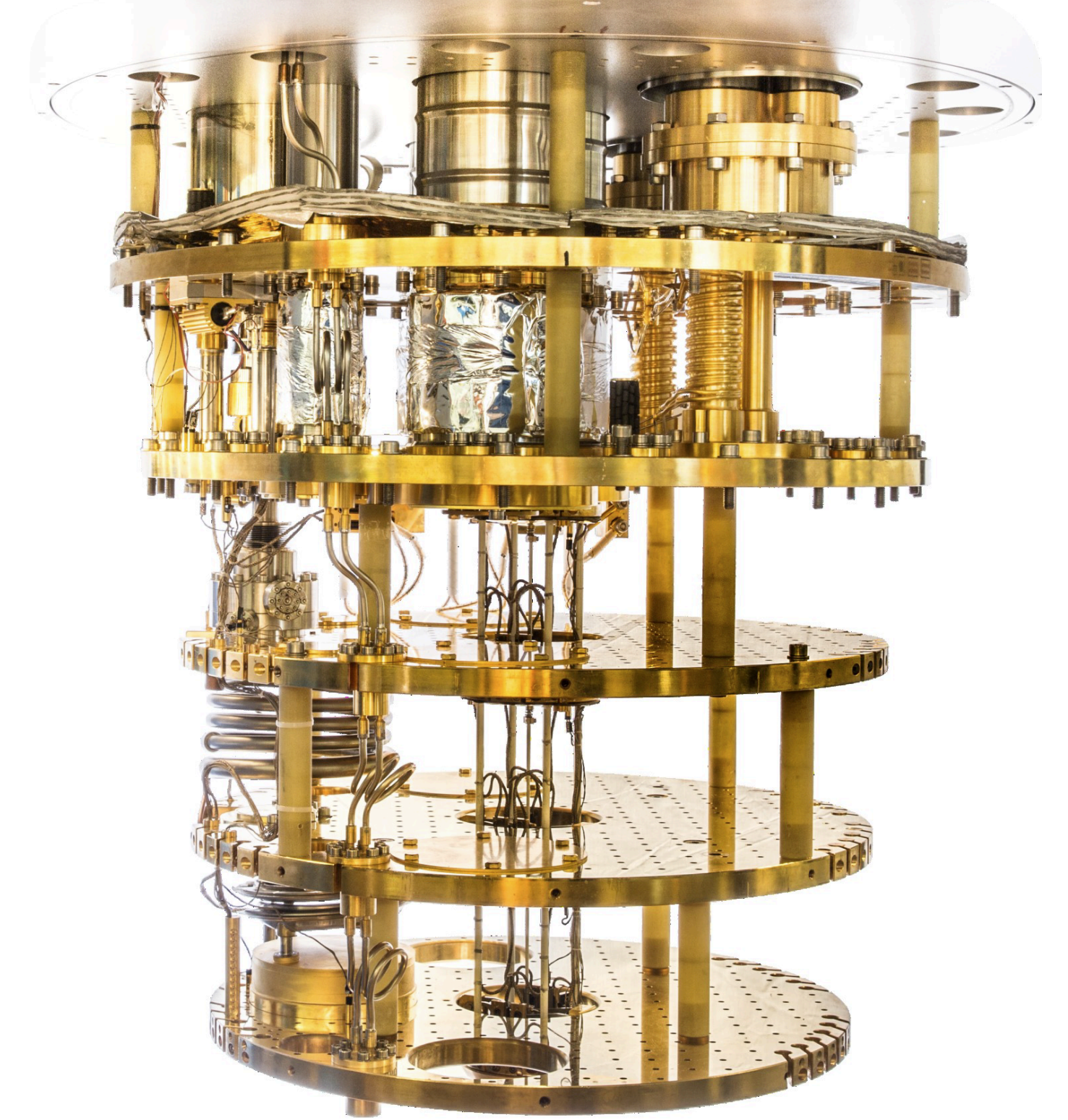
1962: H. London, G. R. Clarke, and E. Mendoza, *Phys. Rev.* **128**, 1992

1964: First Dilution Unit (DU) in operation (Leiden)

1967: First commercial DU by Oxford Instruments

Dilution refrigerators are the “workhorse” of mK temperature physics

- Pomeranchuk cooling
- Adiabatic demagnetisation



Today producers

- Oxford Instruments
- Bluefors
- Leiden Cryogenics
- Cryoconcept
- JanisULT

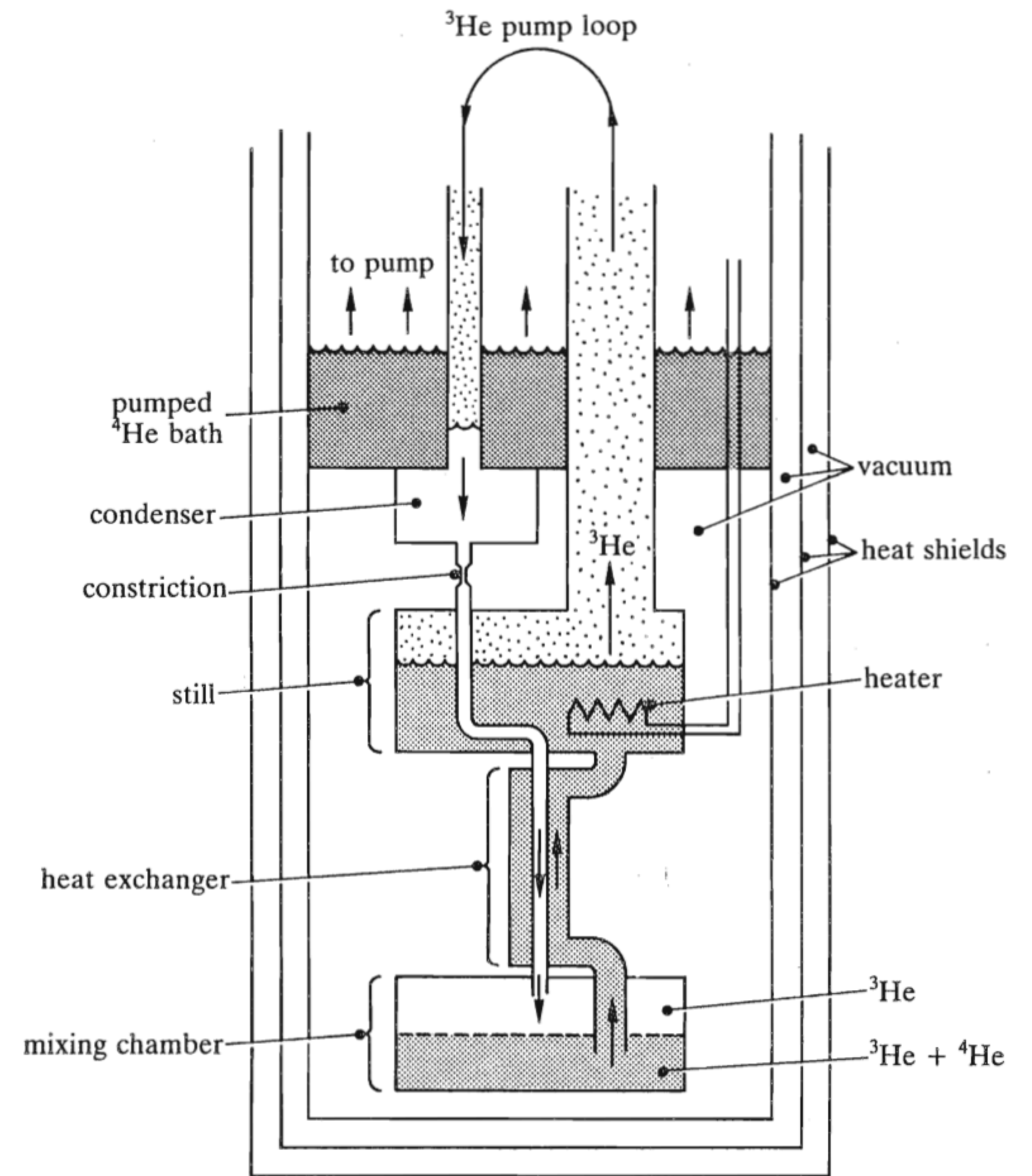
DU concept

Principal parts of a Dilution refrigerator

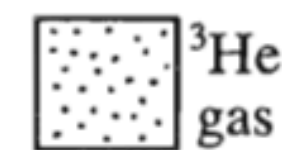
- 4K stage (not drawn)
- 1K stage (pumped LHe bath)
- Still
- Heat exchanger (usually more than one)

Important aspects

- Ultra high vacuum
- Thermometry
- Heat transfer
- Heat sources



key:



^3He gas



liquid ^3He



liquid $^3\text{He} + ^4\text{He}$



liquid ^4He

Enthalpy

- Enthalpy is a fundamental quantity in cryogenics defined as

$$H = U + pV$$

- The pressure–volume term expresses the work required to establish the system's physical dimensions, i.e. to make room for it by displacing its surroundings
- Depends only on the final configuration of internal energy, pressure and volume, not on the path taken to achieve it, therefore is a state function
- It is particularly useful if you want to estimate the amount of heat to be removed (added) to cool-down (heat-up) a mass
- E.g. how much liquid nitrogen is needed to cooldown 1 kg of Aluminum from 300K to 77K?

$H_{300K}^{Al} = 170.4 \text{ J/g}$	$H_{300K}^{N_2 gas} = 462.1 \text{ J/g}$	→	$\Delta H_{300K-77K}^{N_2} = 233.4 \text{ J/g}$
$H_{77K}^{Al} = 8.4 \text{ J/g}$	$H_{77K}^{N_2 gas} = 228.7 \text{ J/g}$	→	$L_{vap}^{N_2} = 199.3 \text{ J/g} = 160.7 \text{ kJ/l}$
↓	$H_{77K}^{N_2 liq} = 29.4 \text{ J/g}$		
$\Delta H_{300K-77K}^{Al} = 162 \text{ J/g}$			

- 1.01 liters using only the latent heat
- 0.41 liters using also the enthalpy to 300K

Cooling with cryogenic fluids

Amount of cryogenic fluid required to cool metals (litres/kg)

Cryogen		N₂	⁴He	⁴He
From		300 K	77 K	300 K
To		77 K	4.2 K	4.2 K
Using only L _{vap}	Aluminum	1.01	3.20	66.6
	Copper	0.64	2.16	31.1
	Stainless Steel	0.53	1.43	33.3
Using $\Delta H + L_{\text{vap}}$	Aluminum	0.41	0.22	1.61
	Copper	0.29	0.15	0.79
	Stainless Steel	0.33	0.11	0.79

- A fast transfer of liquid is highly inefficient (especially for LHe)
- A separate transfer of LN₂ and LHe is advisable

Dilution refrigerator T stages

4.2 K stage

Dilution refrigerator T stages

4.2 K stage

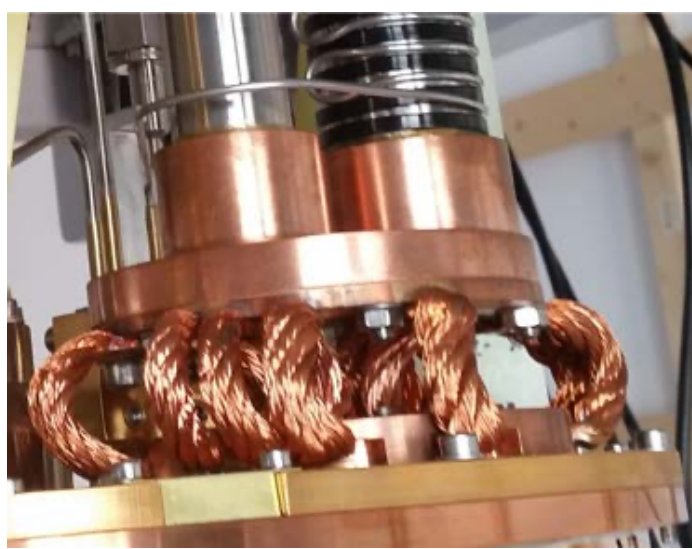
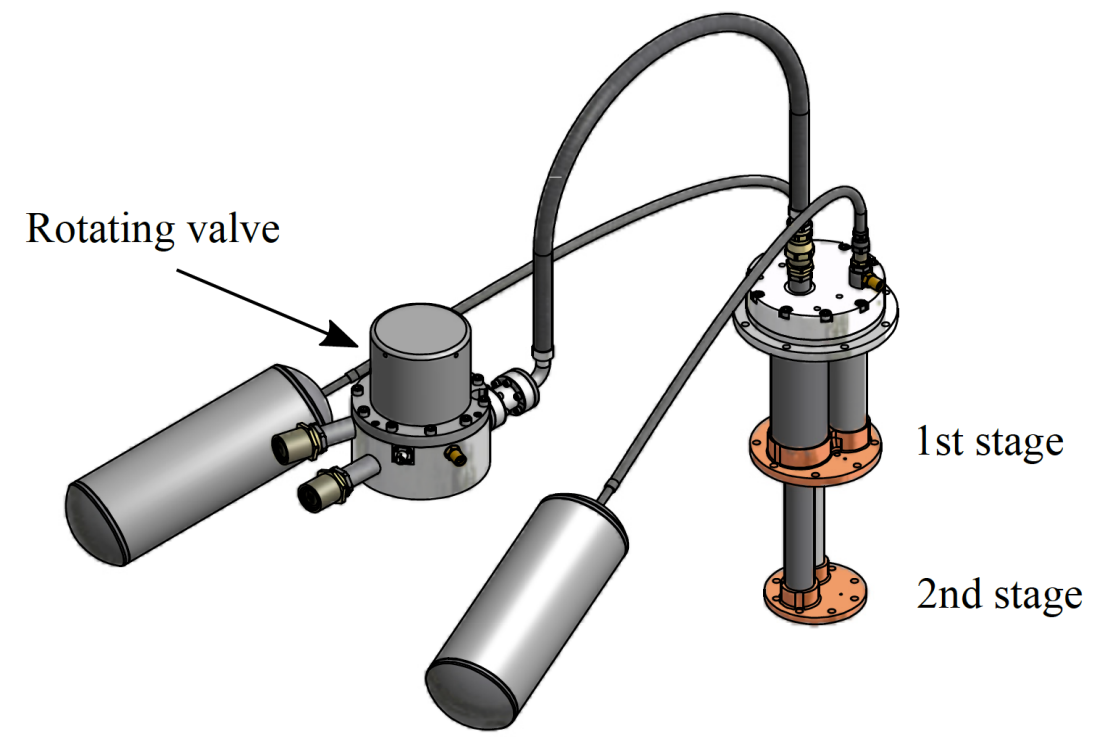
- All dilution refrigerators rely on a stable cold environment at ~ 4 K that can be obtained with a liquid helium bath (boiling point of 4.2 K at atmospheric pressure). A pre-cooling stage with liquid nitrogen bath (boiling point of 77 K at atmospheric pressure)



Dilution refrigerator T stages

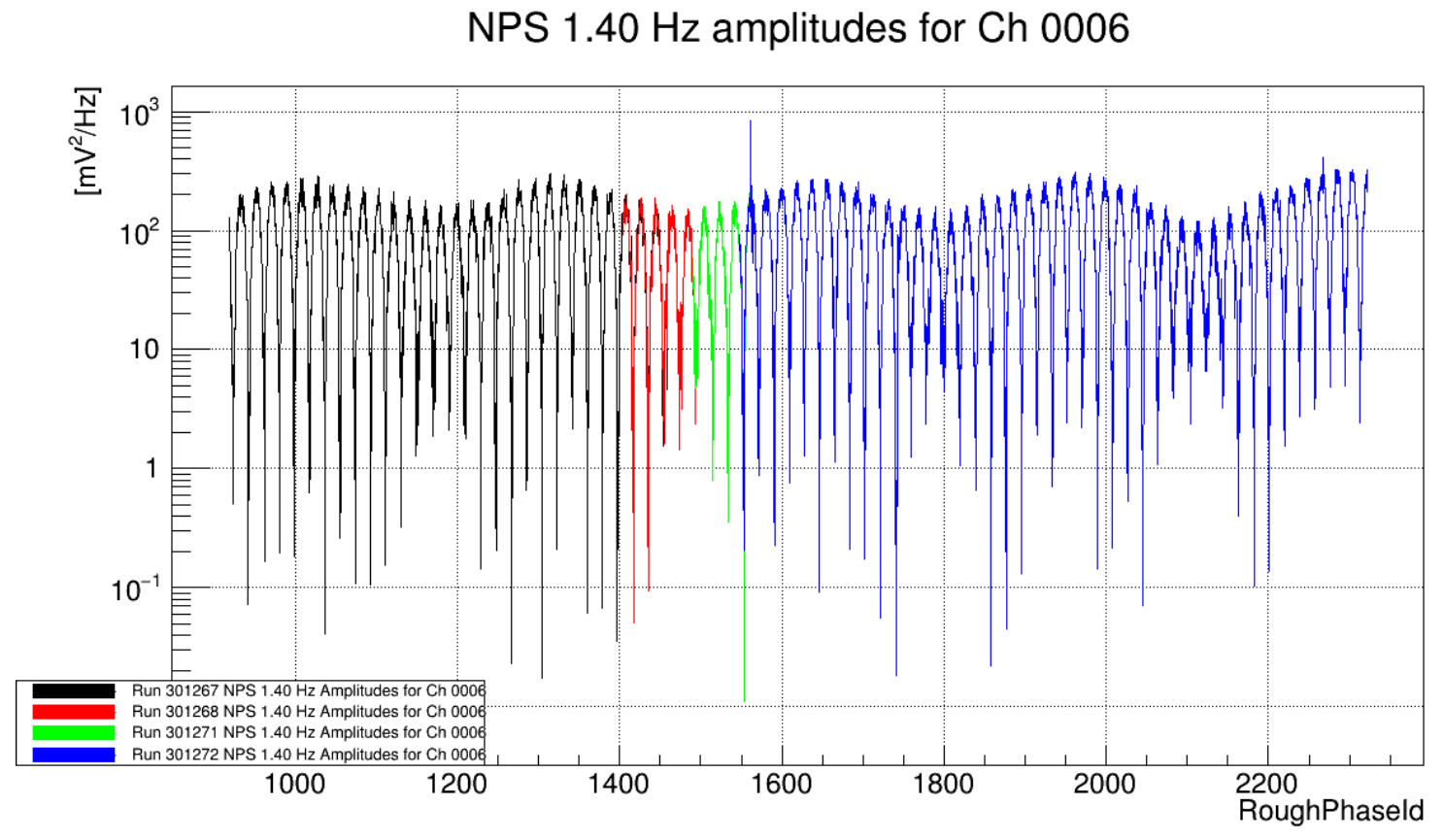
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- In recent years liquid helium bath has been replaced by Pulse Tube cryocoolers due to their fundamental advantages:
 - Operation is greatly simplified
 - Can provide two temperature stages (~ 40 K & ~ 4 K)
 - Liquid helium is getting more and more expensive
 - Less leaks
 - PT cooling power is constantly improving (2.5 W @ 4K)



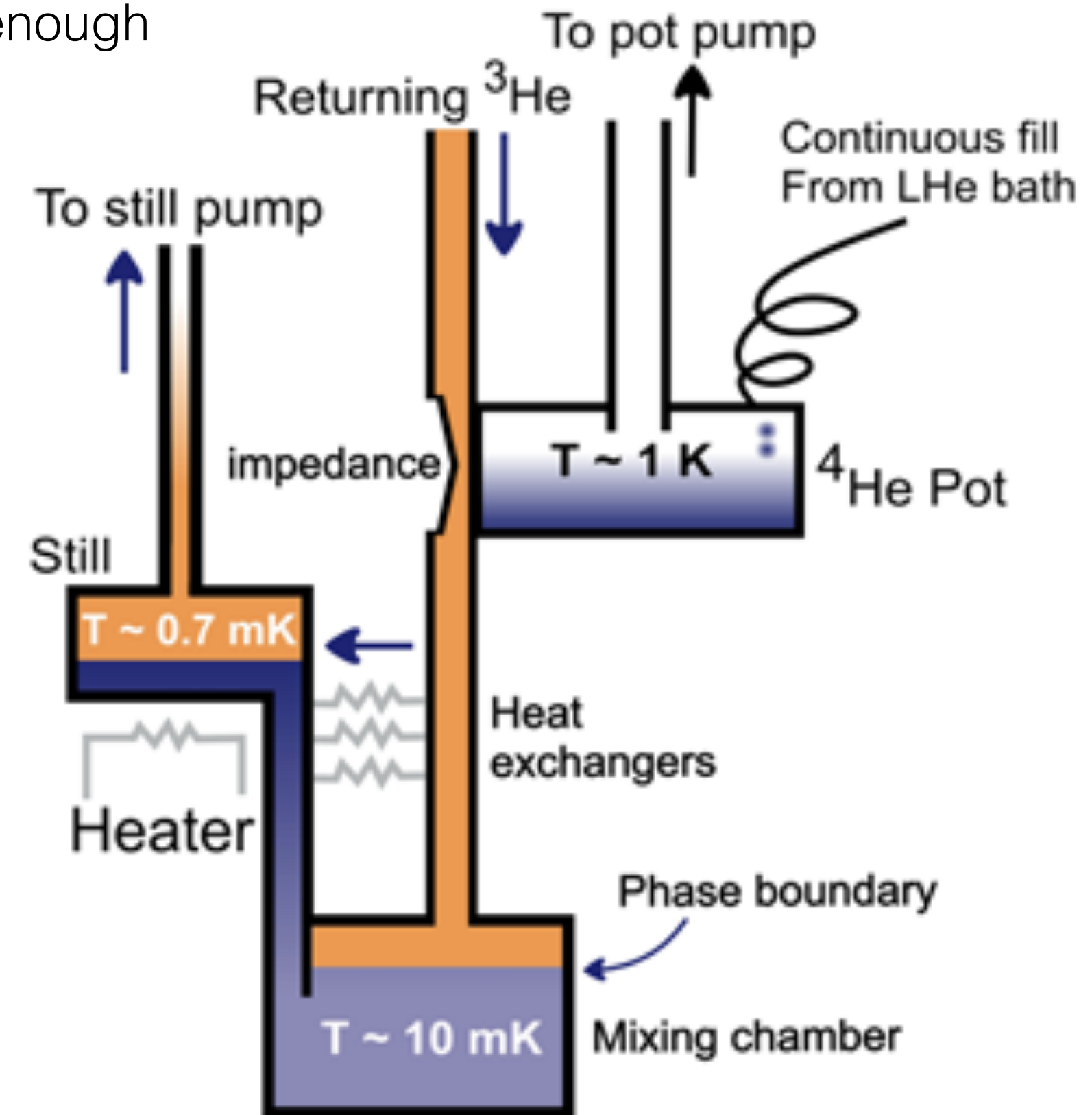
Main drawback is the induced vibrations:

- passive decoupling
- active noise cancellation



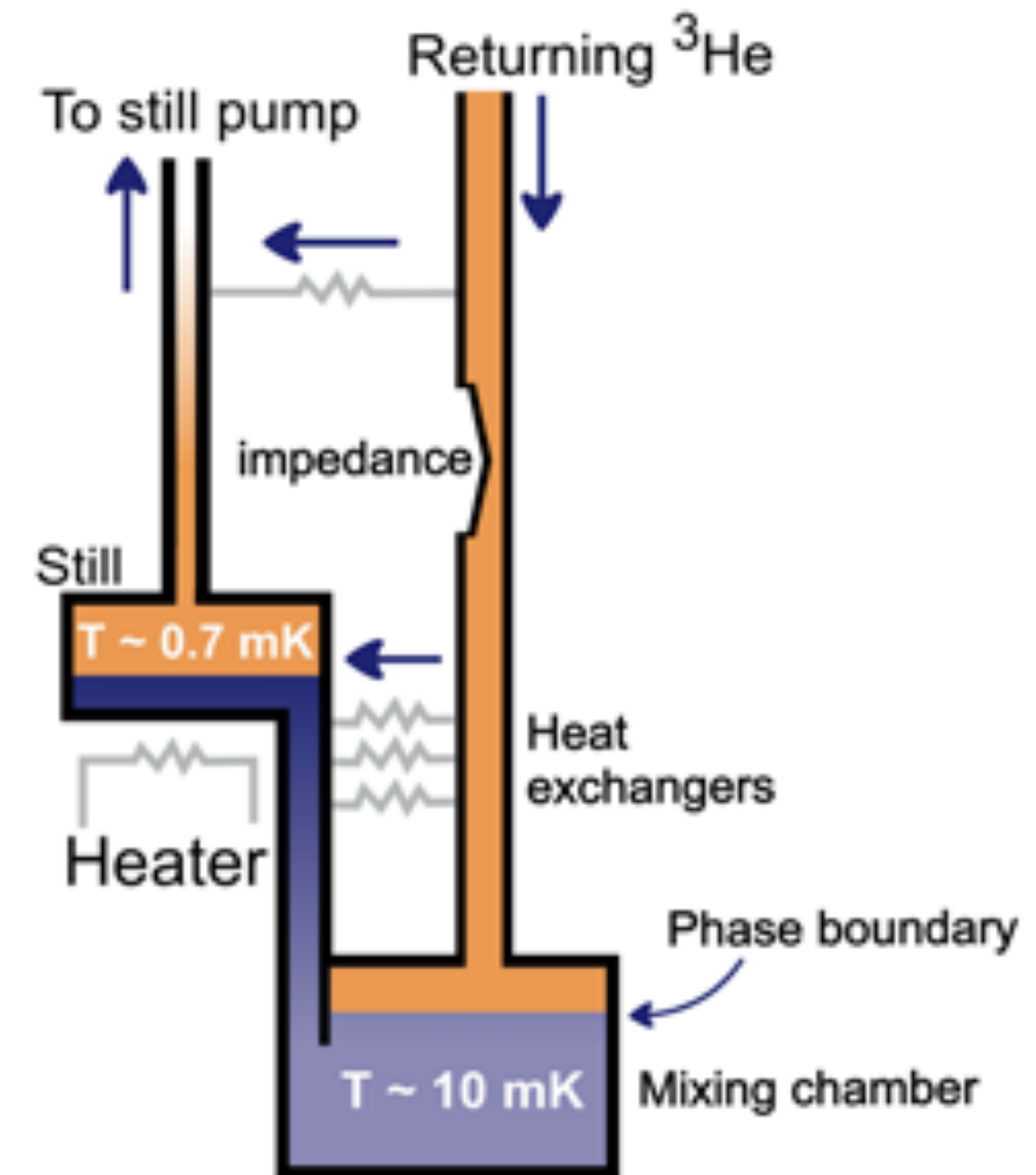
“Wet” DU (with LHe)

- A small amount of liquid helium from the LHe main bath feeds the 1K Pot
- A dedicated pot pump keeps the 1 K pot cold
- An impedance ensures the condensing pressure is high enough (~ 0.3 bar) for the returning ^3He to liquefy



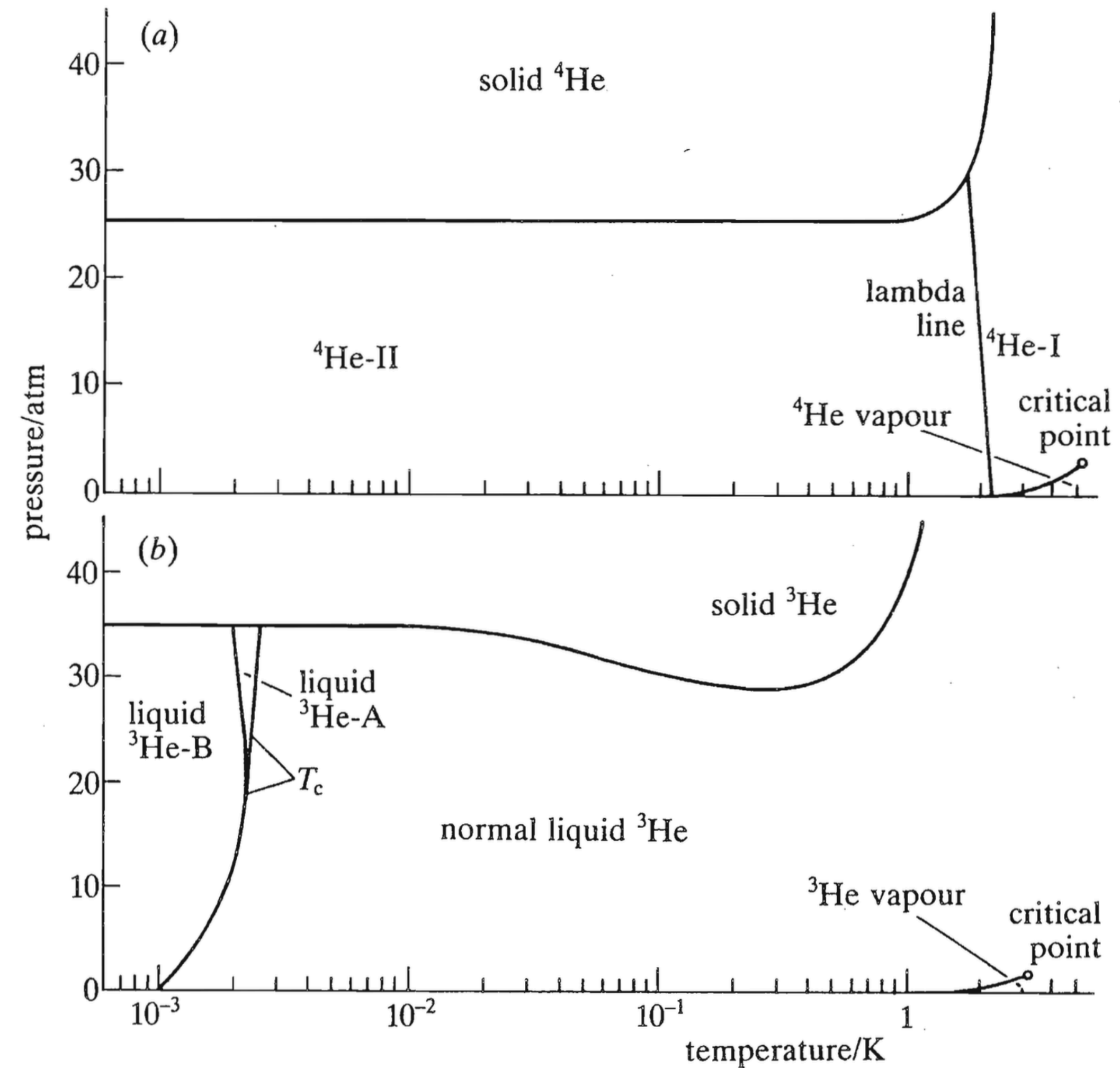
“Dry” DU (with PT)

- The 1 K pot is replaced by an extra heat exchanger located just before the impedance. The returning ^3He is cooled by the outgoing ^3He vapour from the still
- This heat exchanger in combination with the Joule-Thompson (JT) expansion happening in the impedance is enough to condense the gas
- The JT stage is not as efficient as a 1 K pot, so the condensing pressure is higher: typically 2.5 bar during the initial condensation, which drops to ~ 0.5 bar near base temperature where the circulation rate is lower
- The higher condensing pressure means an additional high pressure pump (or compressor) is required when circulation is started. It can be switched off when the system has reached base temperature



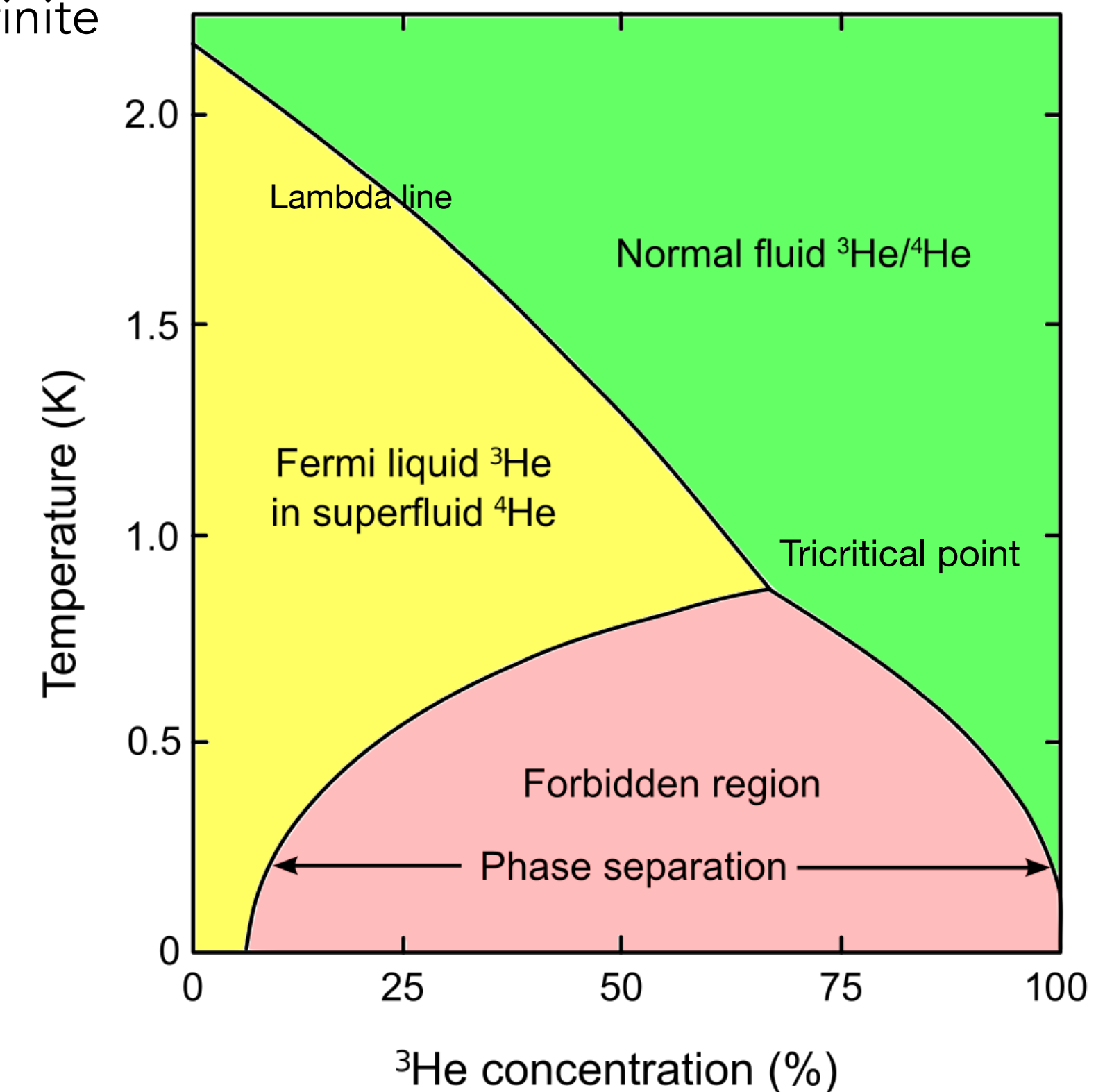
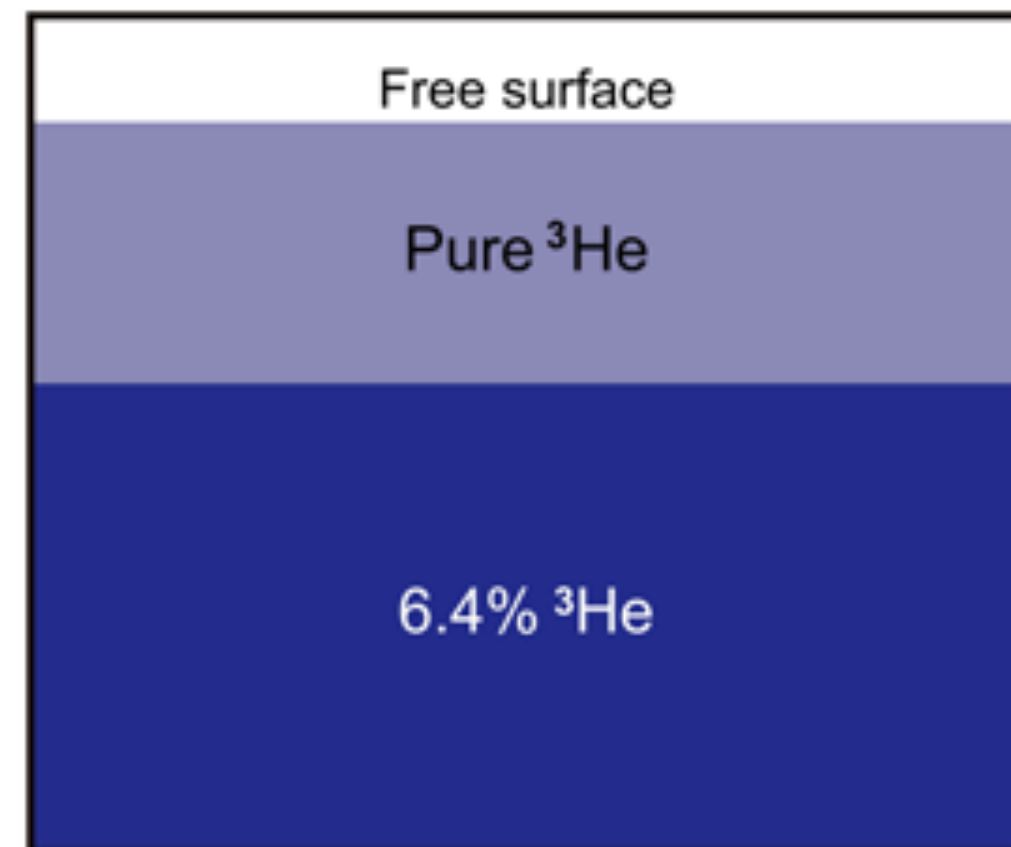
^4He & ^3He phase diagrams

- Pure ^4He , with a nuclear spin of $I = 0$, obeys Boson statistics and undergoes a transition to superfluid at 2.17 K
- Pure ^3He , with a nuclear spin of $I = 1/2$, obeys Fermi statistics and the Pauli Exclusion principle; this prevents ^3He from undergoing a superfluid transition until much lower temperatures at which the spins pair up and then obey Boson statistics



^3He - ^4He mixtures

- The superfluid transition temperature of a ^3He - ^4He mixture depends on the ^3He concentration
- When a mixture is cooled below the lambda line it undergoes a superfluid transition.
- Cooling the mixture further, it separates into two phases with the ^3He -rich phase floating on top of the heavier ^4He -rich phase
- The ^4He -rich phase (so called 'dilute' phase) contains 6.4% ^3He all the way down to 0 K. This finite solubility of ^3He in ^4He is the key to dilution refrigeration

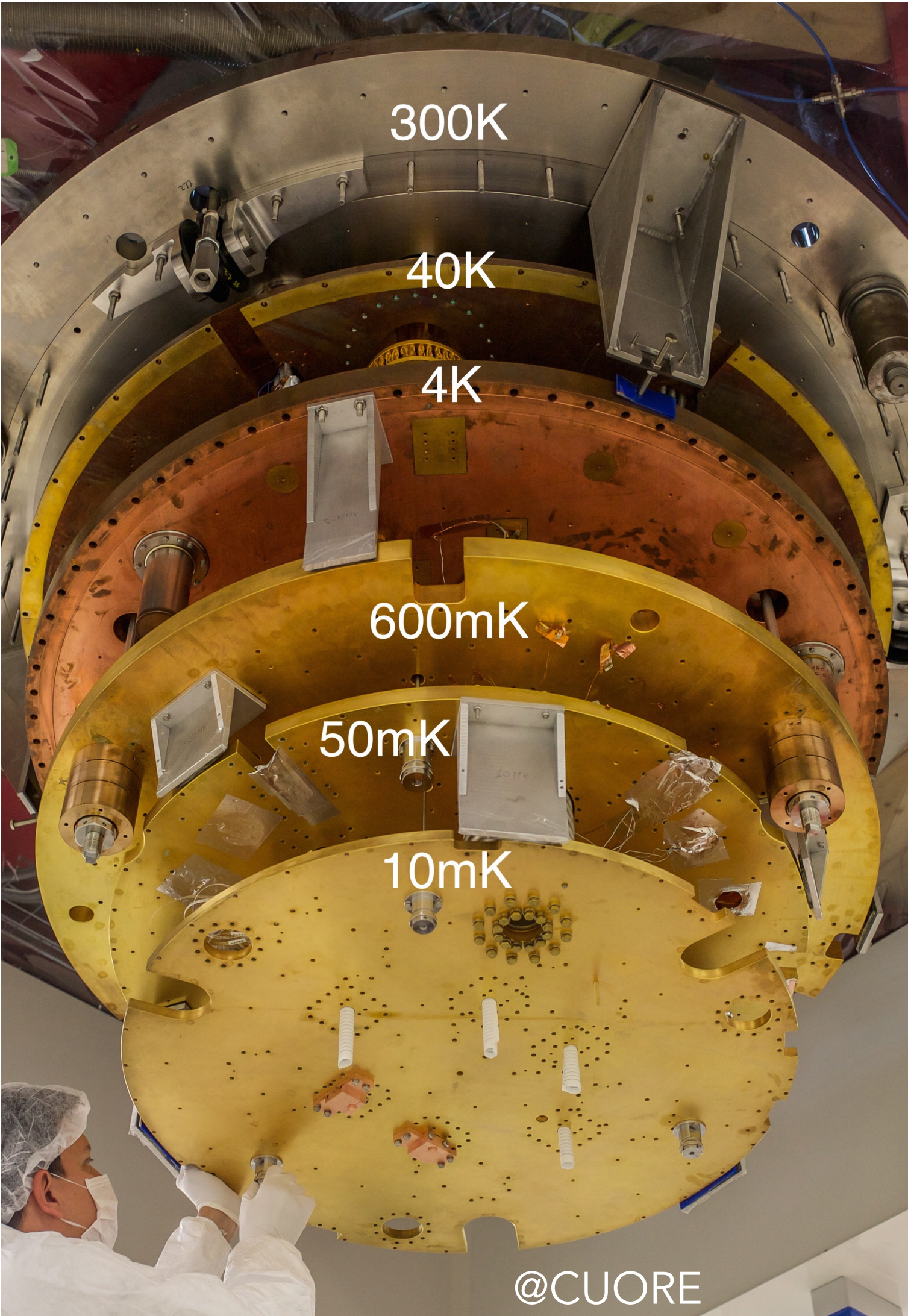


DU design criteria

- Minimise the effect of thermal resistance between liquid helium and metals (Kapitza resistance). This enables efficient heat exchangers and therefore a lower base temperature
- Minimise the effect of viscous heating. This enables a high ^3He circulation rate and therefore a higher cooling power
- Limit the superfluid film flow in the still. This ensures about 90% pure ^3He is being circulated
- Minimise the amount of ^3He required for operation
- Remain leak tight for many years



Dilution Refrigerators

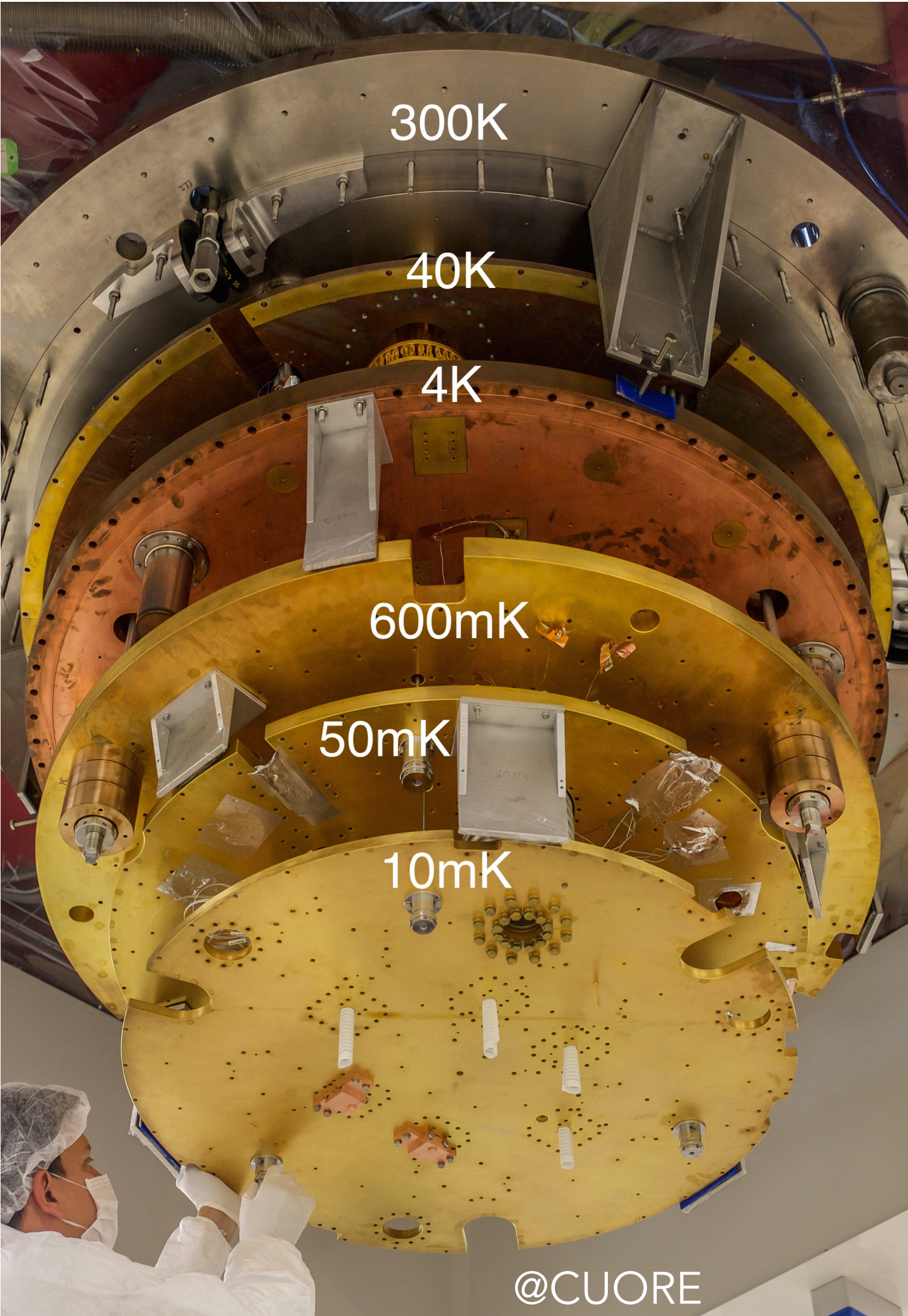


- 300 K
- 35 K
- 3.5 K

- 800 mK
- 50 mK
- 7 mK

Nowadays DR offer solution to host LTDs for many different application. The CUORE cryostat have paved the way to new generation fo tonne-scale cryogenic project, capable to operate steadily for years, and proved that PT vibrations can be controlled.

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Quantum computing requests for new, larger, and more performing DR has strongly boosted the field offering now plug and play solution for LTDs operation.

Phonon sensors

Phonon Sensors

A phonon sensor is a device that collects phonons and generates or modulates an electrical signal, proportional to the energy contained in the collected phonons. If the PMD is operated as a perfect calorimeter, the phonon sensor works as a thermometer.

In practical devices, there are **two classes** of phonon sensors extensively employed:

- Semiconductor Thermistors (ST)
- Transition Edge Sensors (TES)

There are in addition other devices that can be used as phonon/temperature sensors:

- Kinetic Inductance Detectors (KID)
- Magnetic Micro-Calorimeters (MMC)
- ...

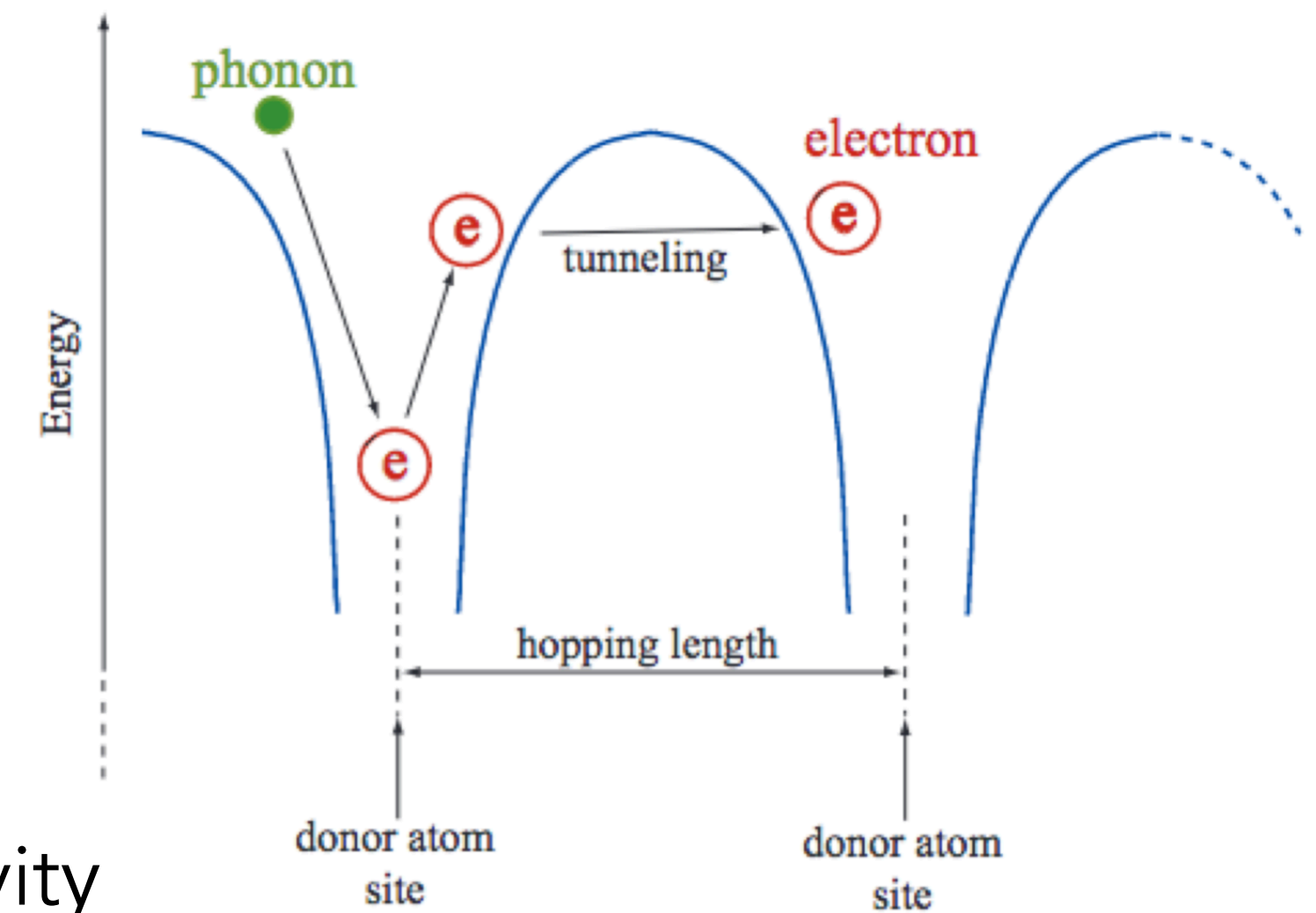
Semiconductor Thermistors

Doped semiconductors close to the Metal to Insulator Transition (MIT)

At low temperatures ($< \sim 10$ K), the resistivity is given by:
(Variable Range Hopping with Coulomb gap conduction regime)

$$\rho(T) = \rho_0 \exp \left[(T_0/T)^{1/2} \right]$$

T_0 depends on the doping level \rightarrow it fixes ρ_0 and the sensitivity



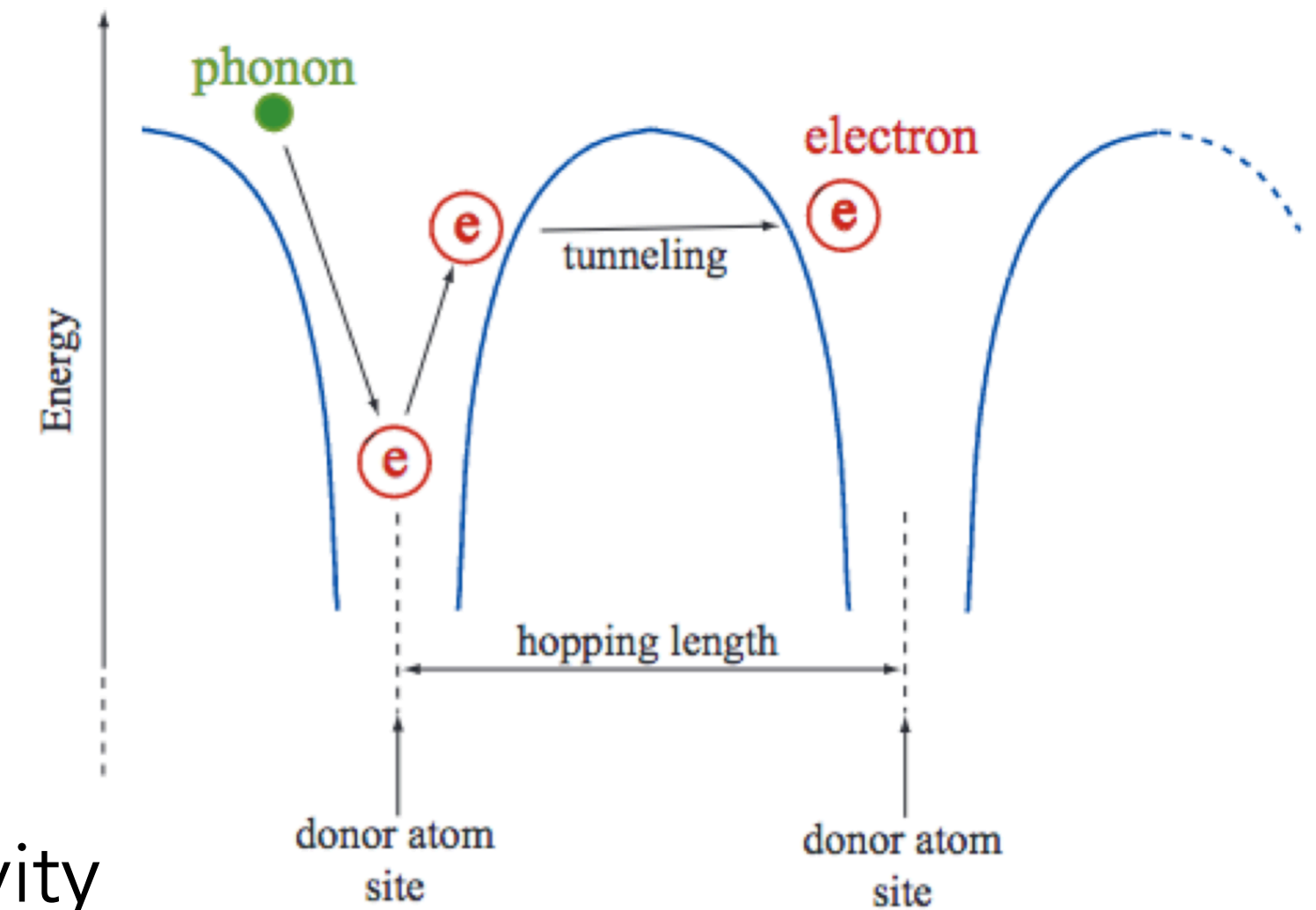
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Two main types:

① **Neutron Transmutation Doped** (NTD)
Ge thermistors

- Ge crystal exposed to neutron bombardment
- Neutron capture and subsequent β and EC decays produce p and n doping.
- Neutron dose fixes net doping.
- MIT: $6 \times 10^{16} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

② **Si-implanted** thermistors;

- Standard microelectronic technology
- Implantation of P, As (n-doping), B (p-doping)
- MIT (Si:P): $3 \times 10^{18} \text{ cm}^{-3}$

Characteristics of Semiconductor Thermistors

Characteristics of Semiconductor Thermistors

- Read-out: a current I is flown in the thermistor
- in case of thermal phonons

Signal: $\Delta V = I \Delta R = I (\partial R / \partial T) \Delta T$

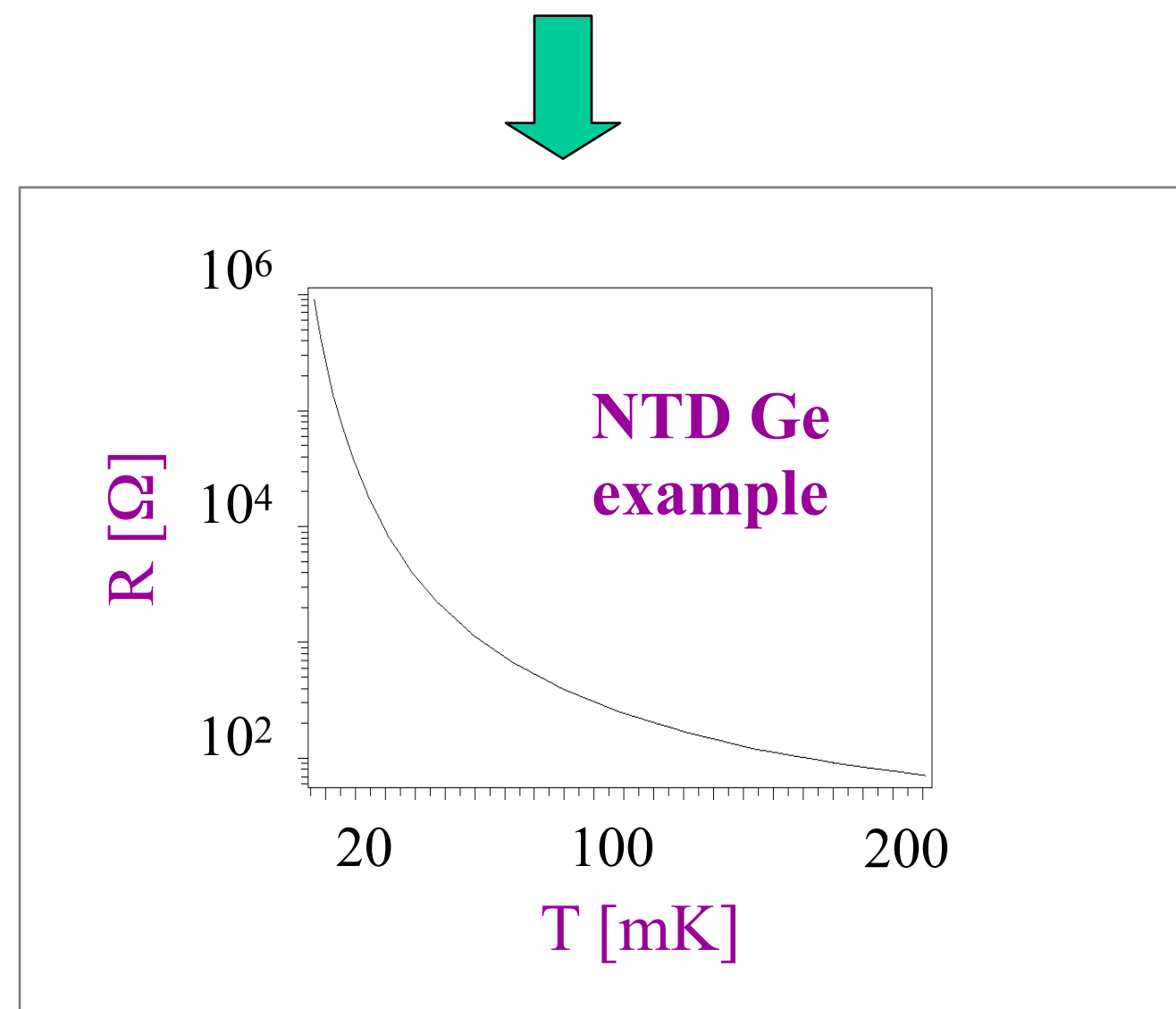
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High impedance ($1 \text{ M}\Omega - 1 \text{ G}\Omega$):

- ⇒ Standard electronics can be used
- ⇒ Quite sensitive to spurious noise sources

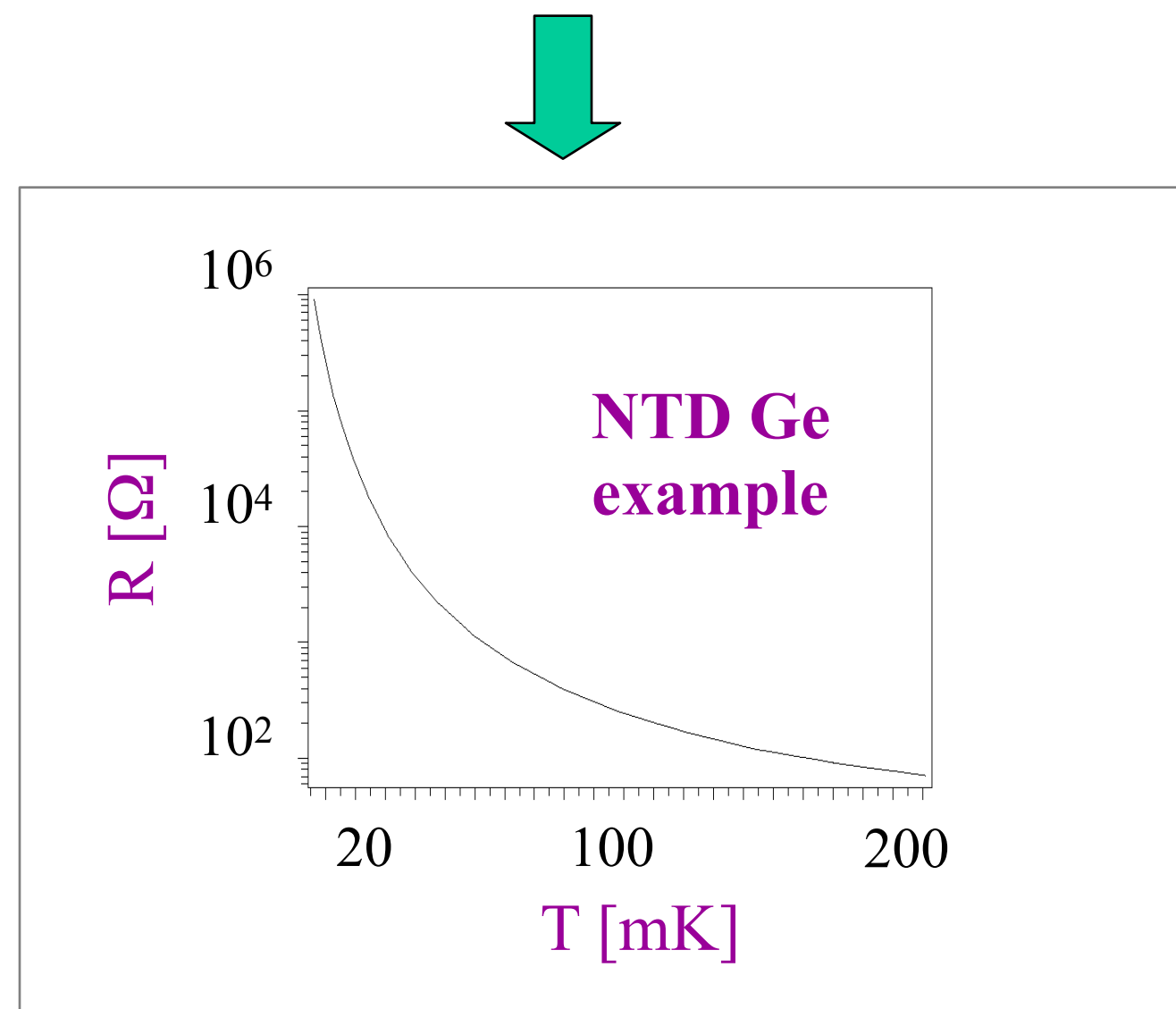
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- Ge and Si STs are:

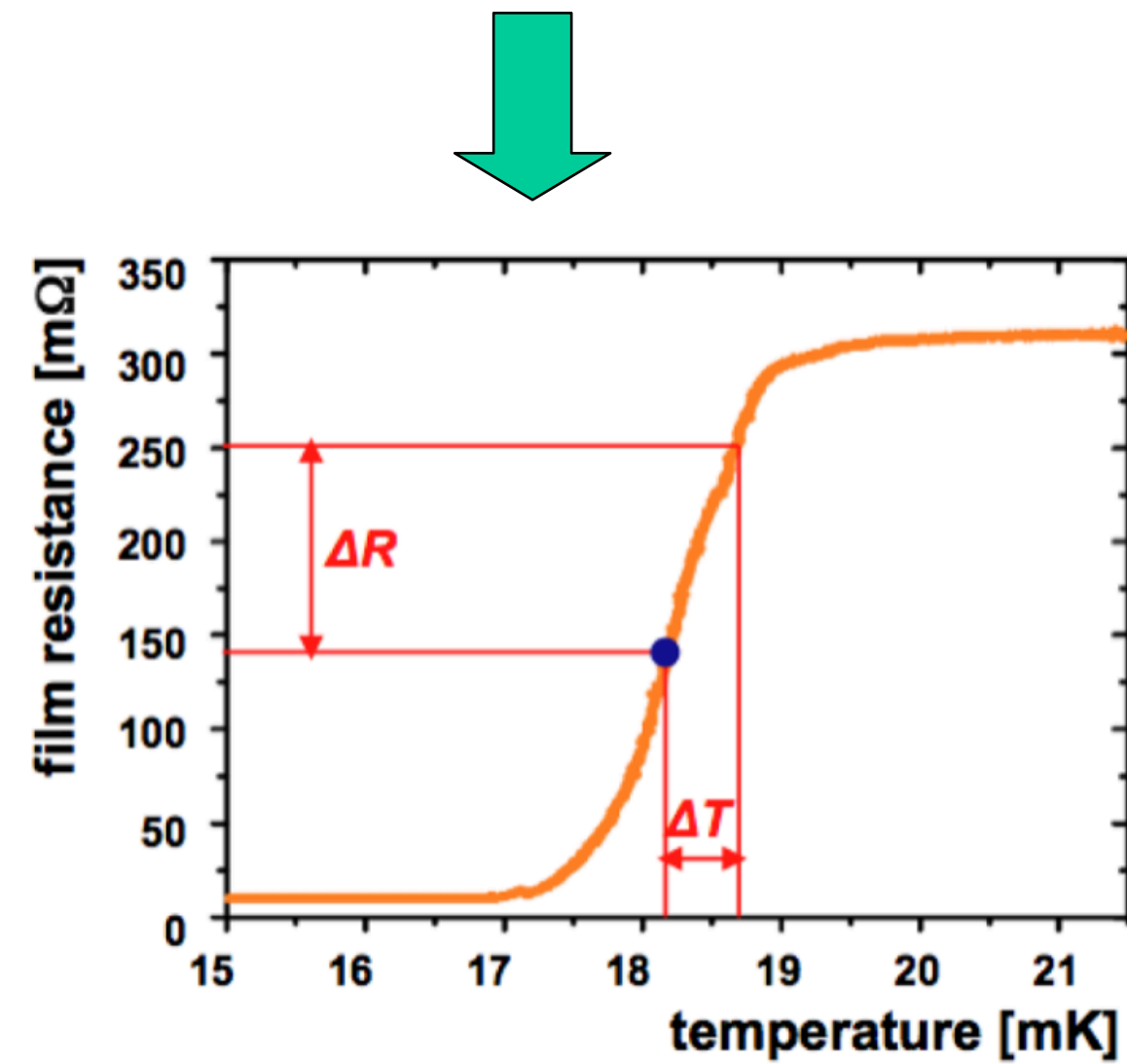
- ⇒ Easy to handle (usually epoxied at the energy absorber)
- ⇒ Scarcely sensitive to athermal phonons

Transition Edge Sensors

- TES is a **superconductive film** kept around T_c

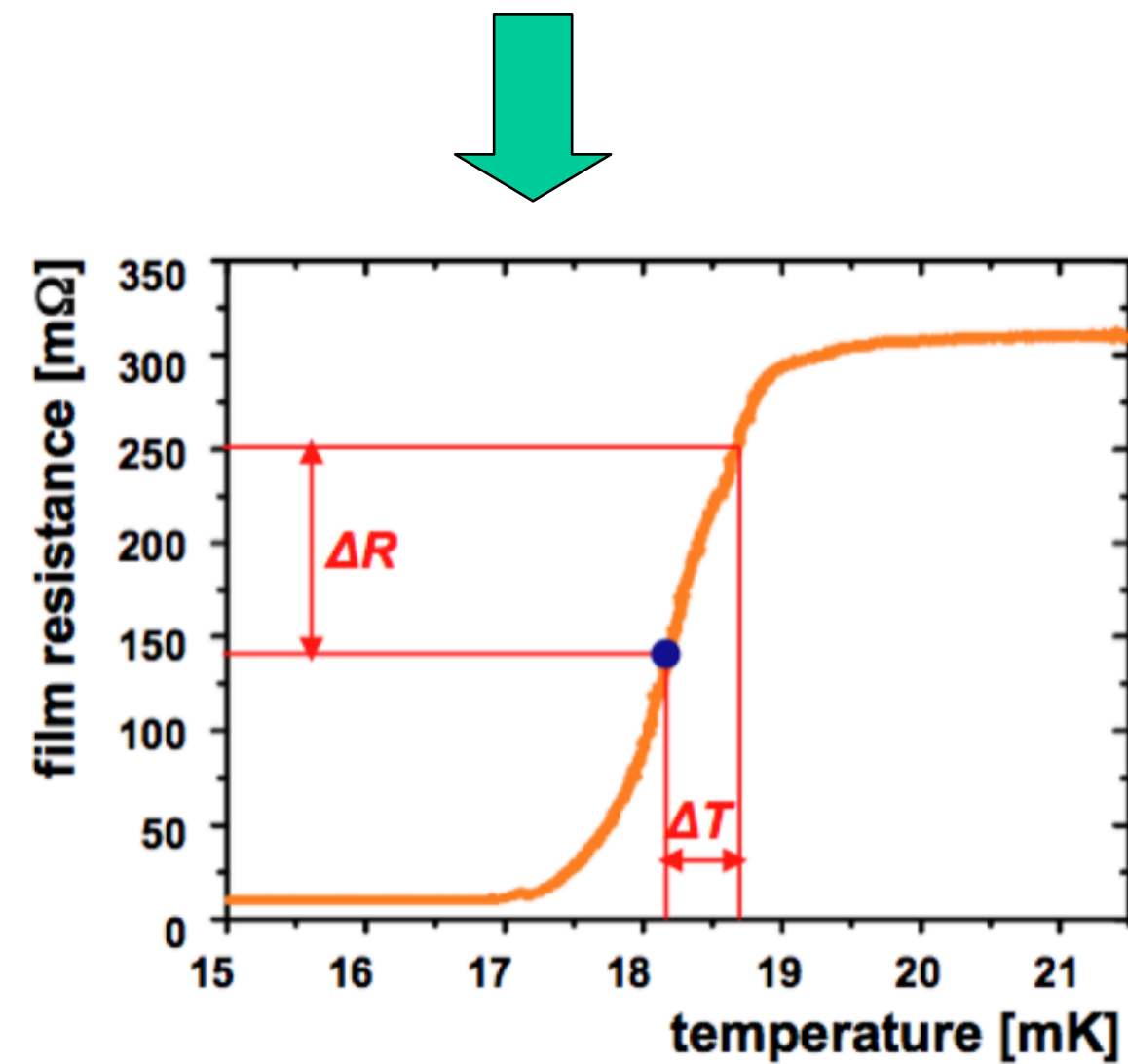
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if we define the **sensitivity** as

$$A \equiv \left| \frac{d \log R}{d \log T} \right|$$

$$A \approx 10 \text{ for ST}$$

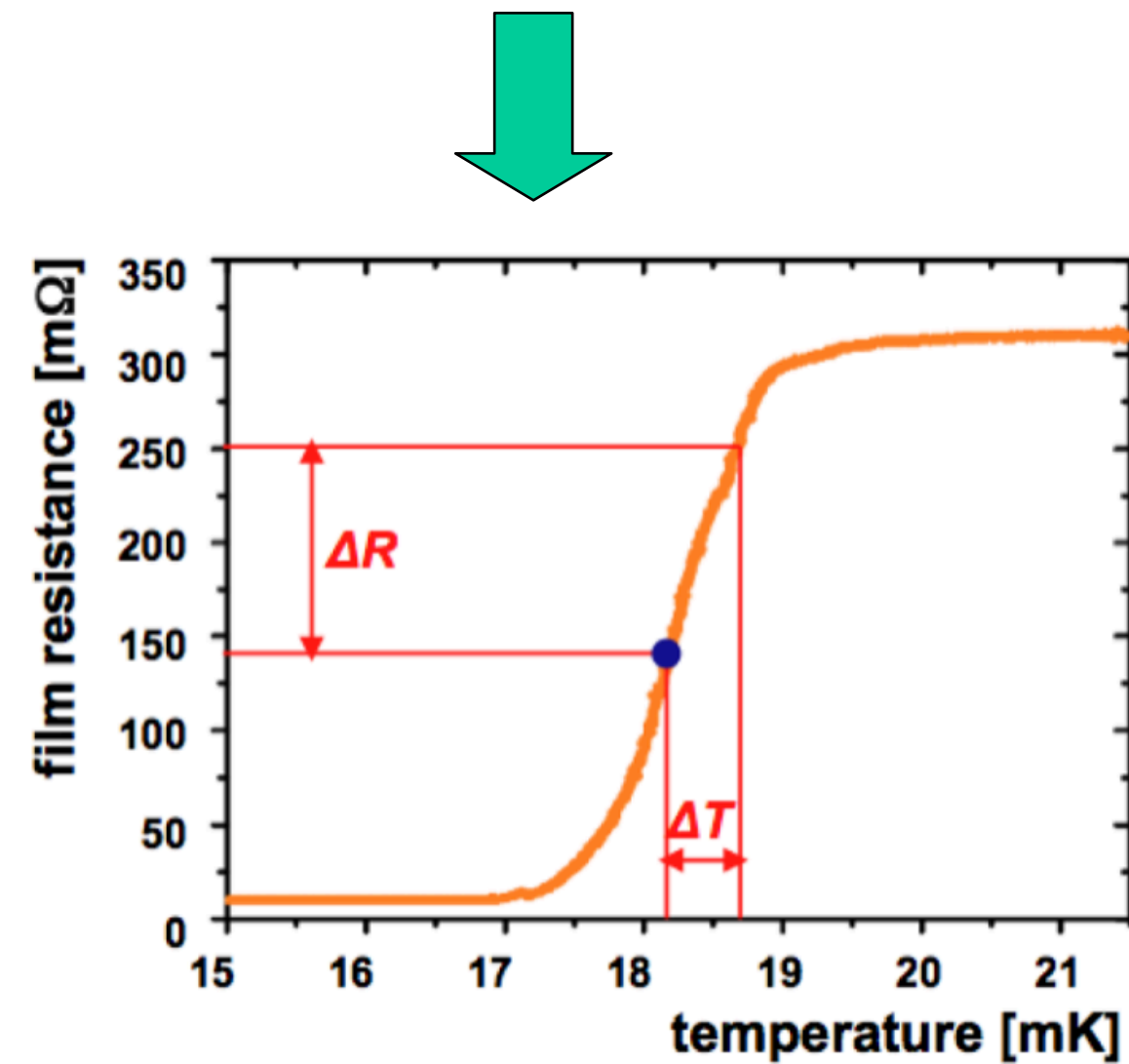


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Low impedance thermistors \Rightarrow SQUID readout

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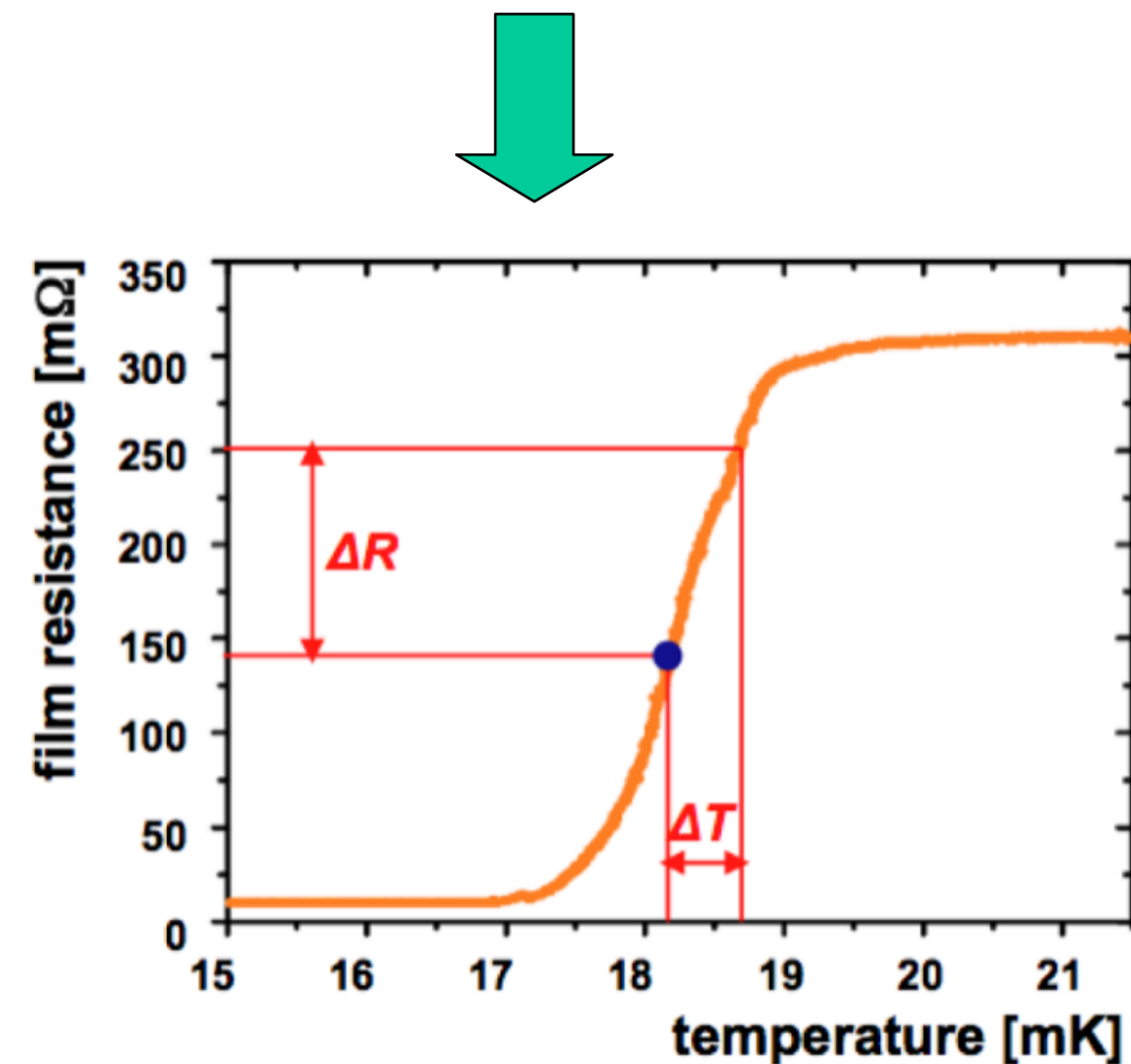
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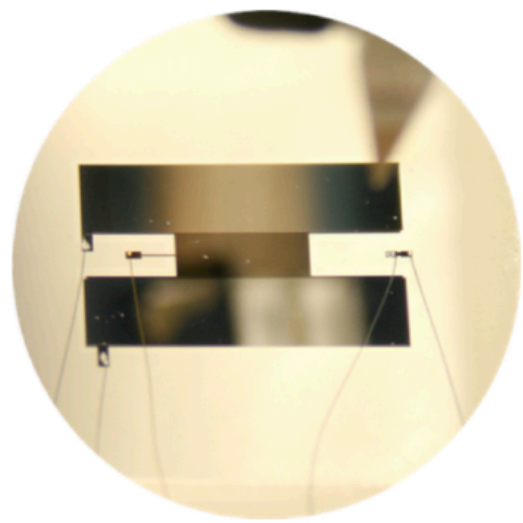
Much higher **S/N ratio** with respect to ST

- Film is deposited on the energy absorber:
 - \rightarrow sensitive to **athermal phonons**
 - \rightarrow fast response

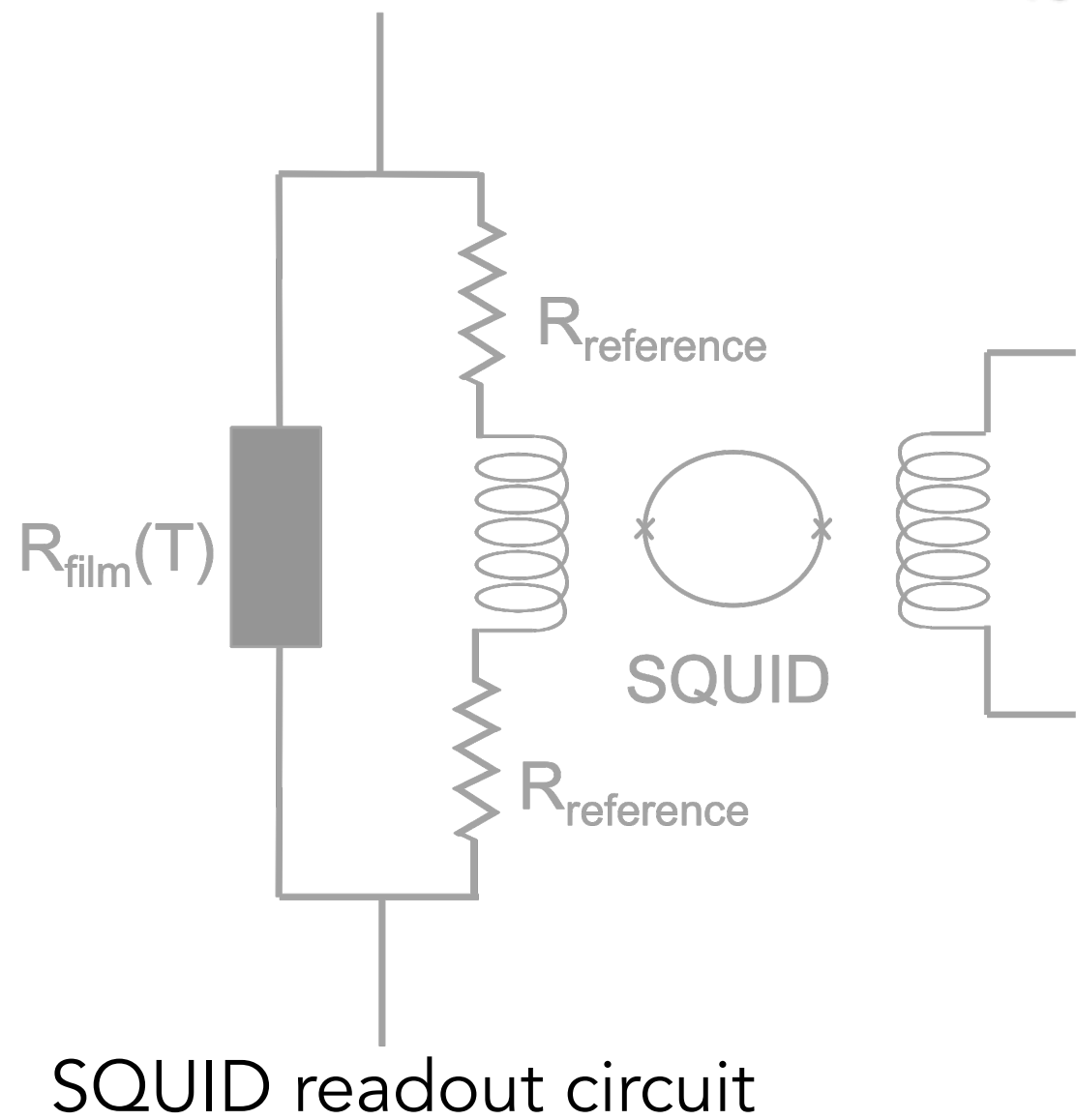
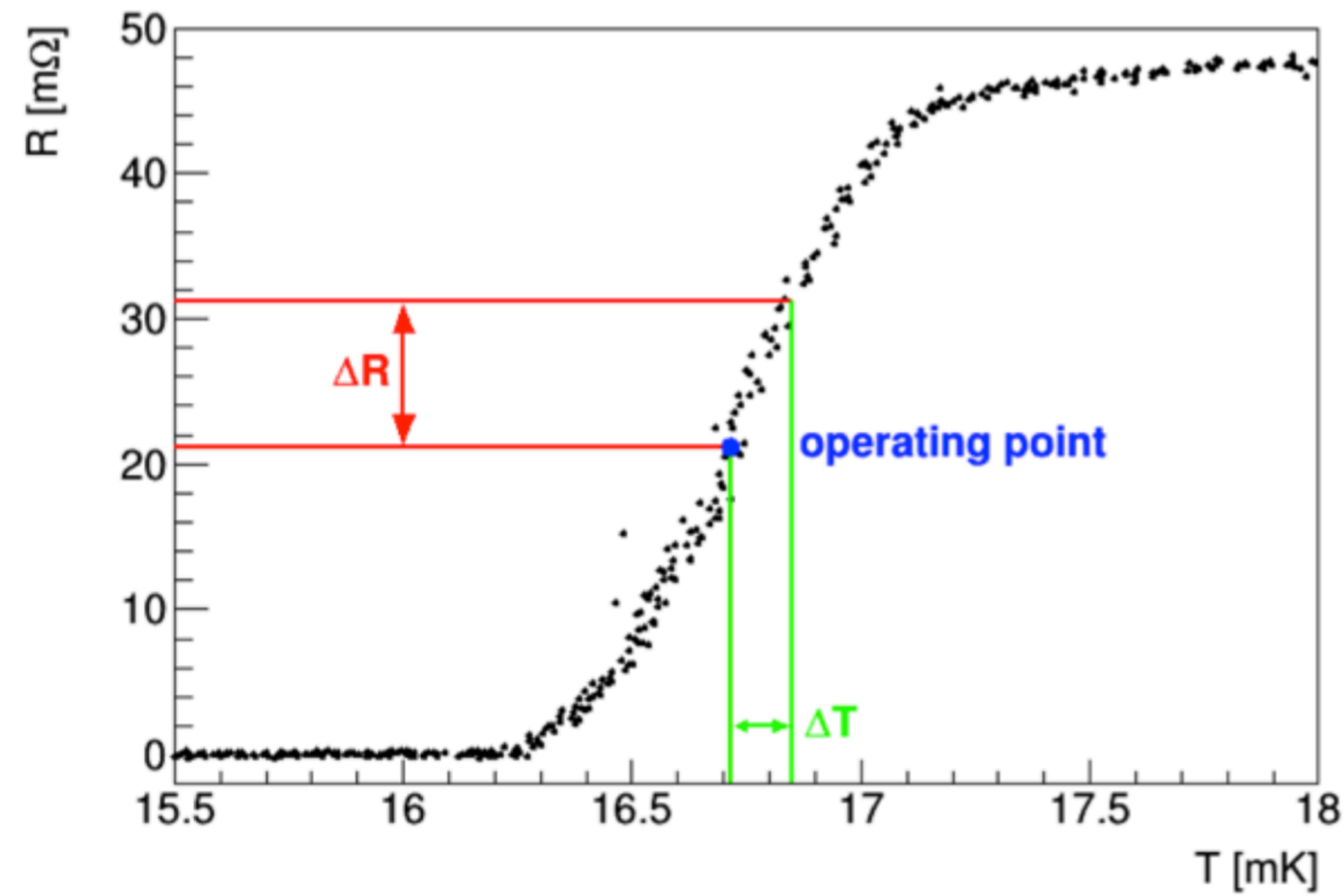
BUT not easy and not always reproducible procedure

W TES

Superconducting tungsten thin films:



W – TES, CRESST



$$\alpha = \frac{d \log R}{d \log T}$$

$$= \frac{T}{R} \frac{dR}{dT}$$

TES is a resistor
 → Johnson noise

$$I_{\text{Johnson}} \sim \sqrt{\frac{4k_B T_C}{R}}$$

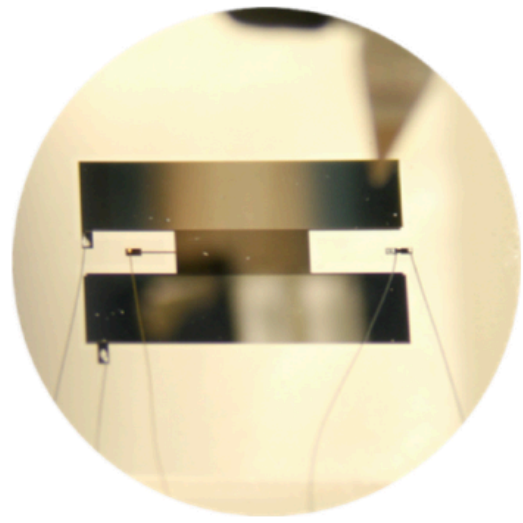
Including both Johnson and the thermodynamic fluctuations noise:

$$E_{\text{FWHM}} \sim 2.355 \sqrt{\frac{4k_B T_C^2 C}{\alpha}}$$

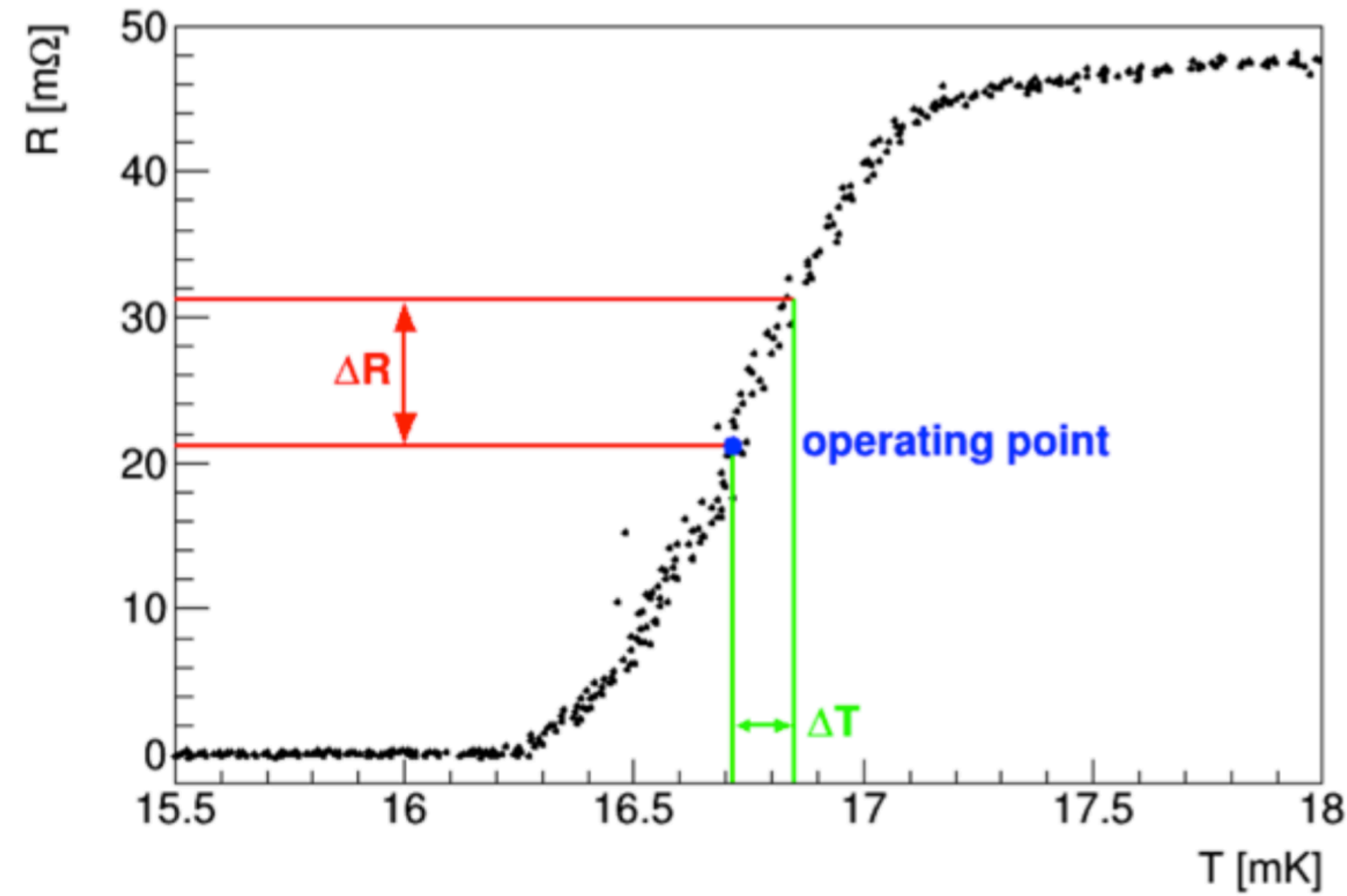
Best ΔE for small T_C and low C

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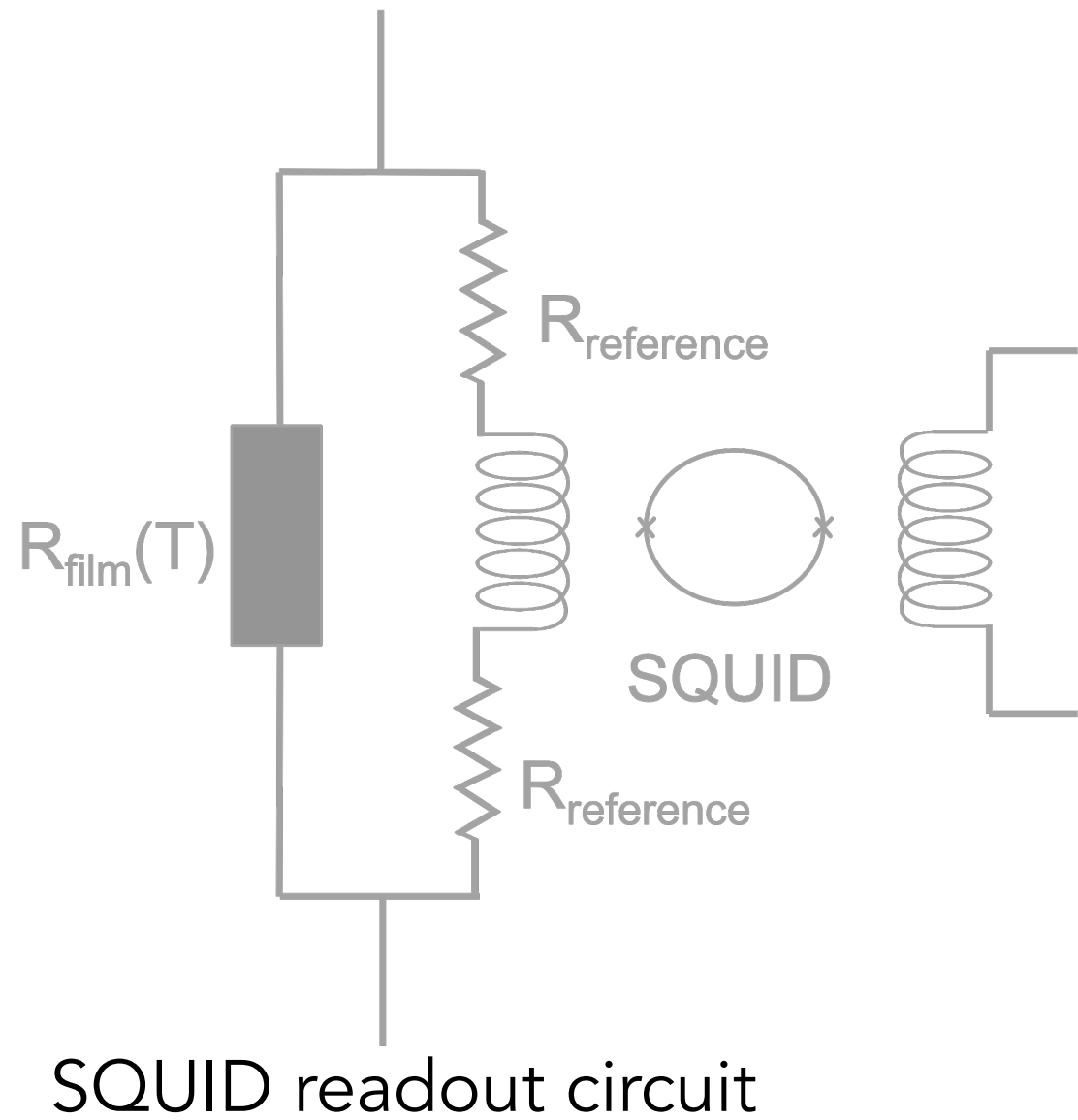


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Energy deposition in absorber
~keV

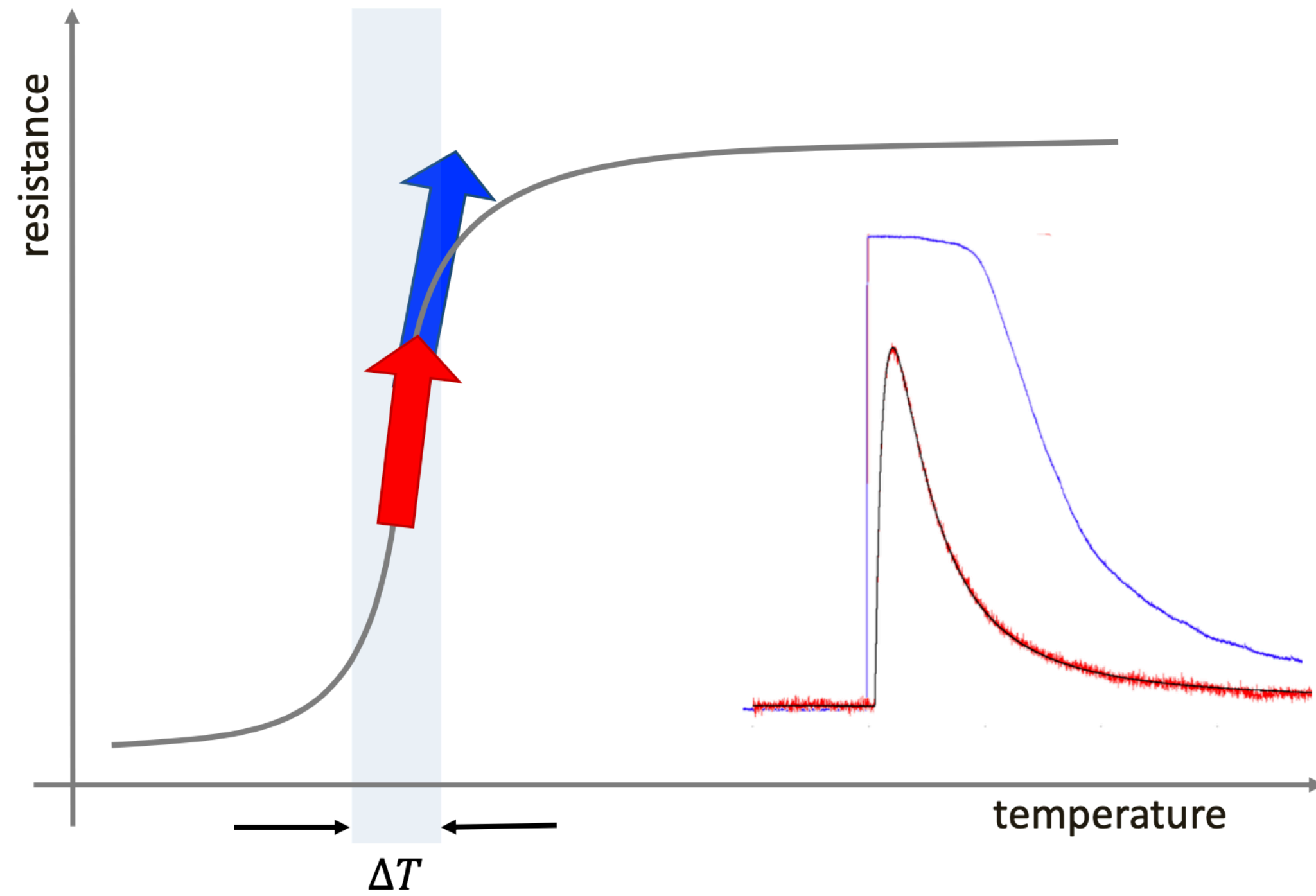


Temperature rise in TES
~ μK



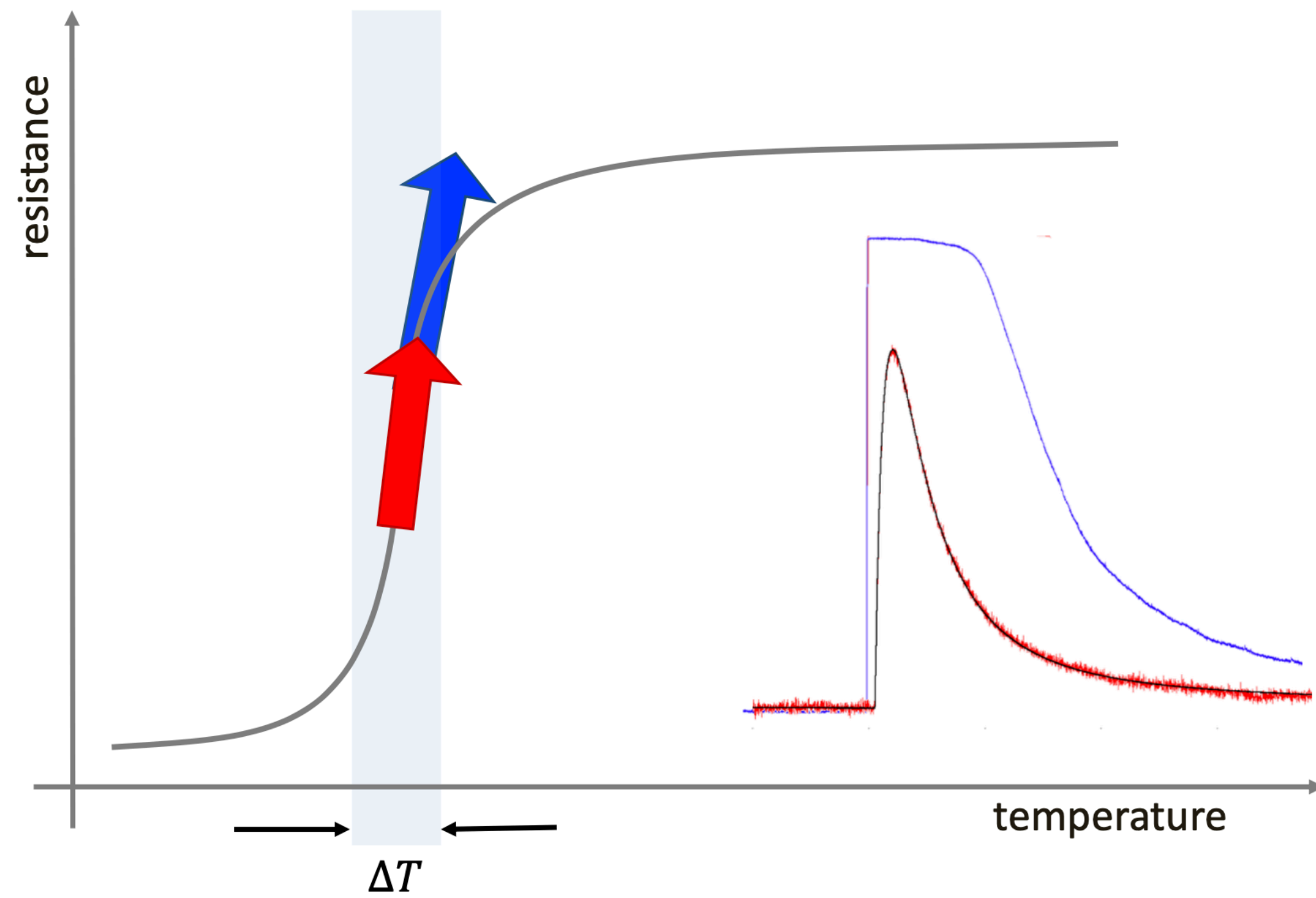
Resistance change
~m Ω

TES dynamic range



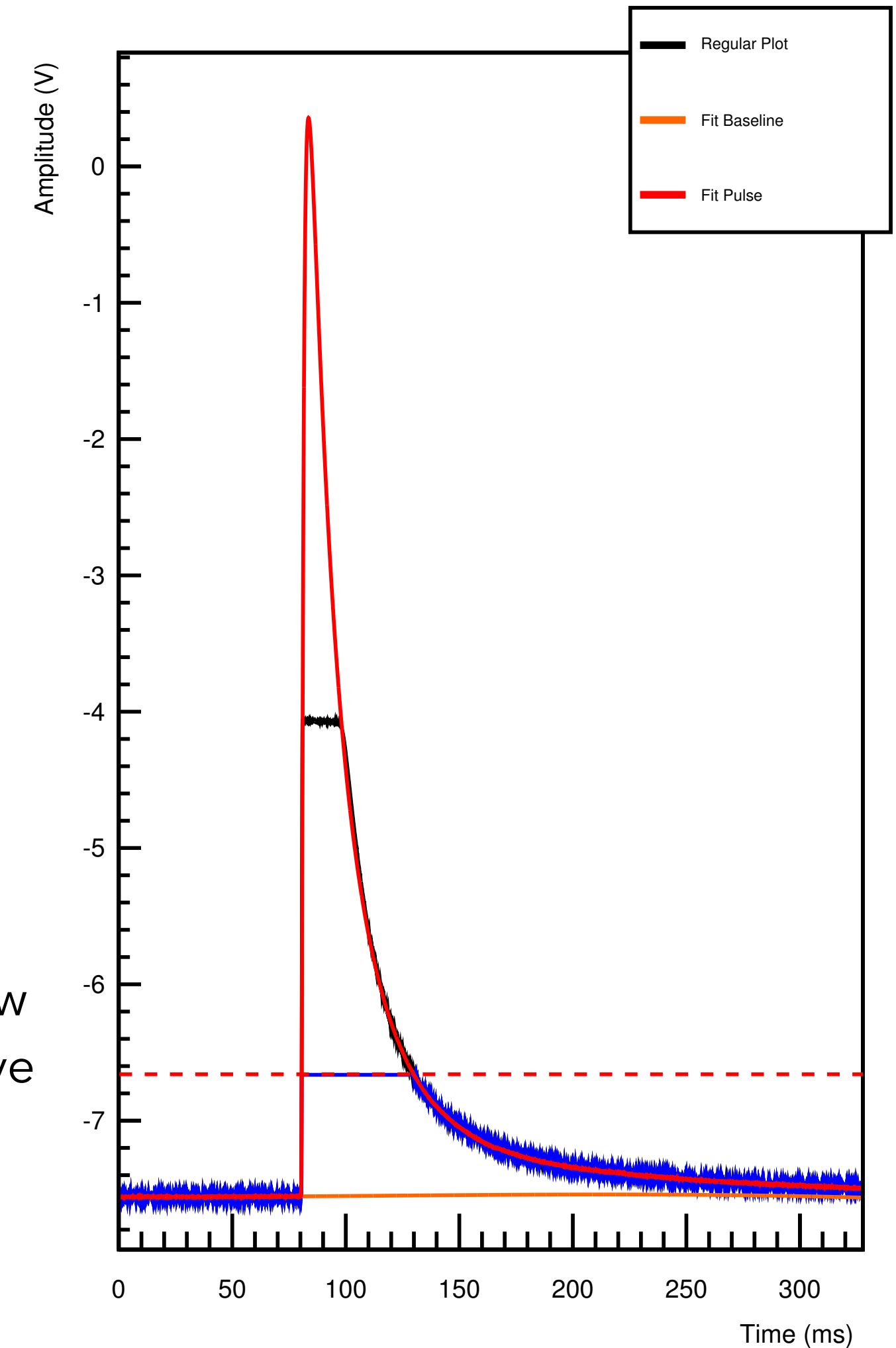
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Once $\Delta T >$ transition width
→ Dynamic range exceeded
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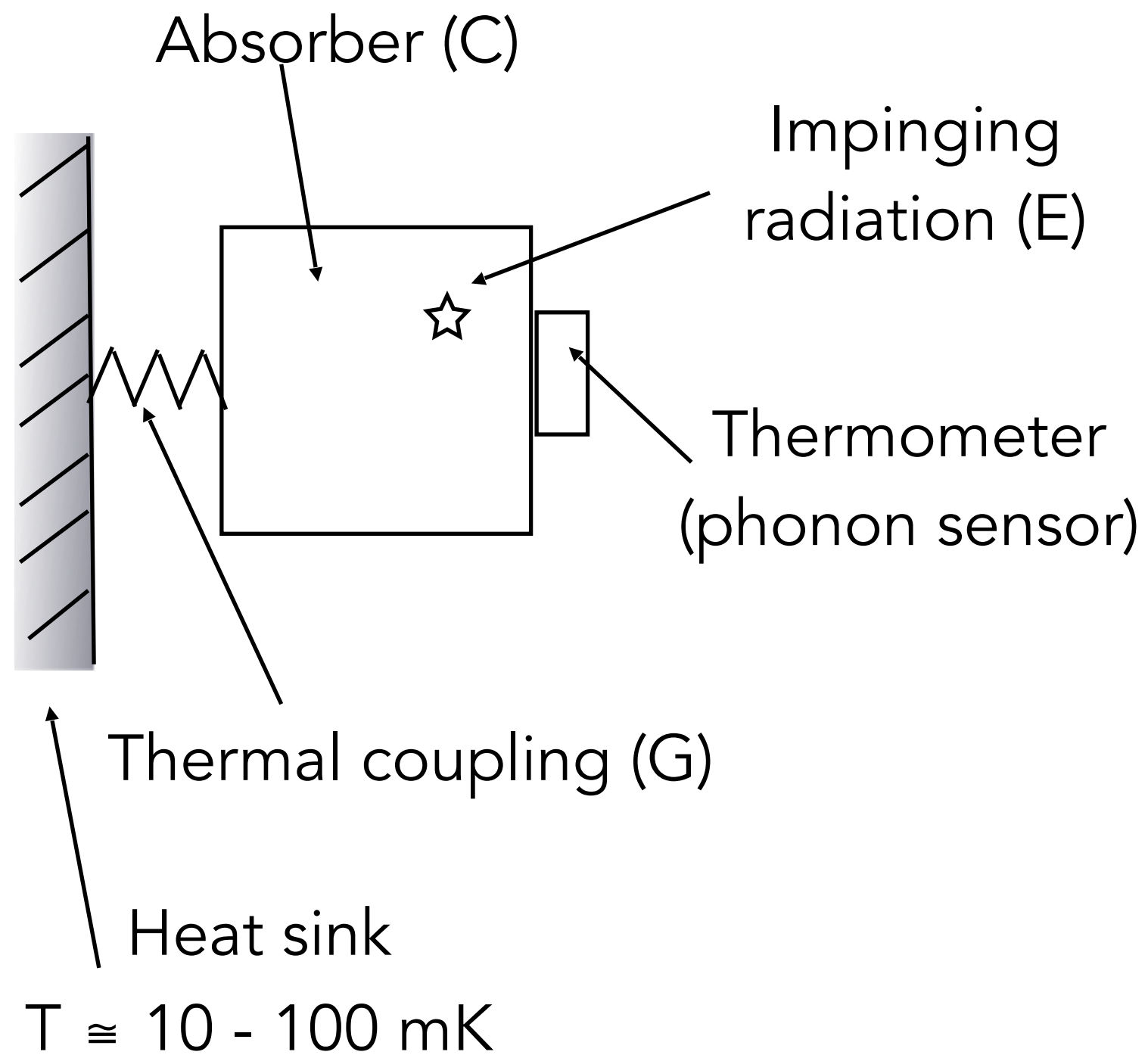


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Template based Pulse reconstruction allow extension of the dynamic range well above the transition dynamics (e.g. from 200 keV to several MeV)

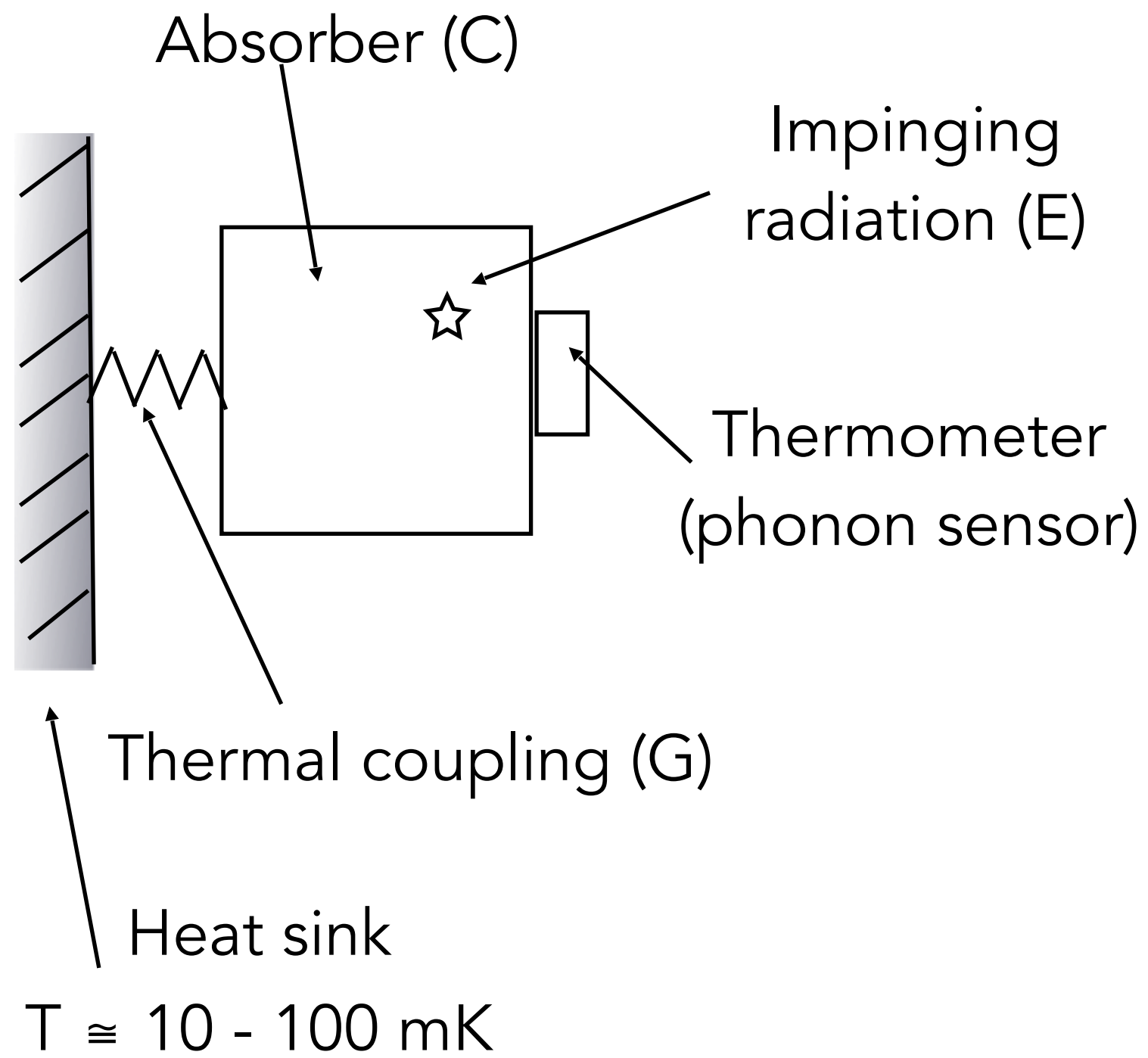


Background features of LTDs



Any detector application has to face its own specific backgrounds but there are some aspects that are characteristic of cryogenic detectors.

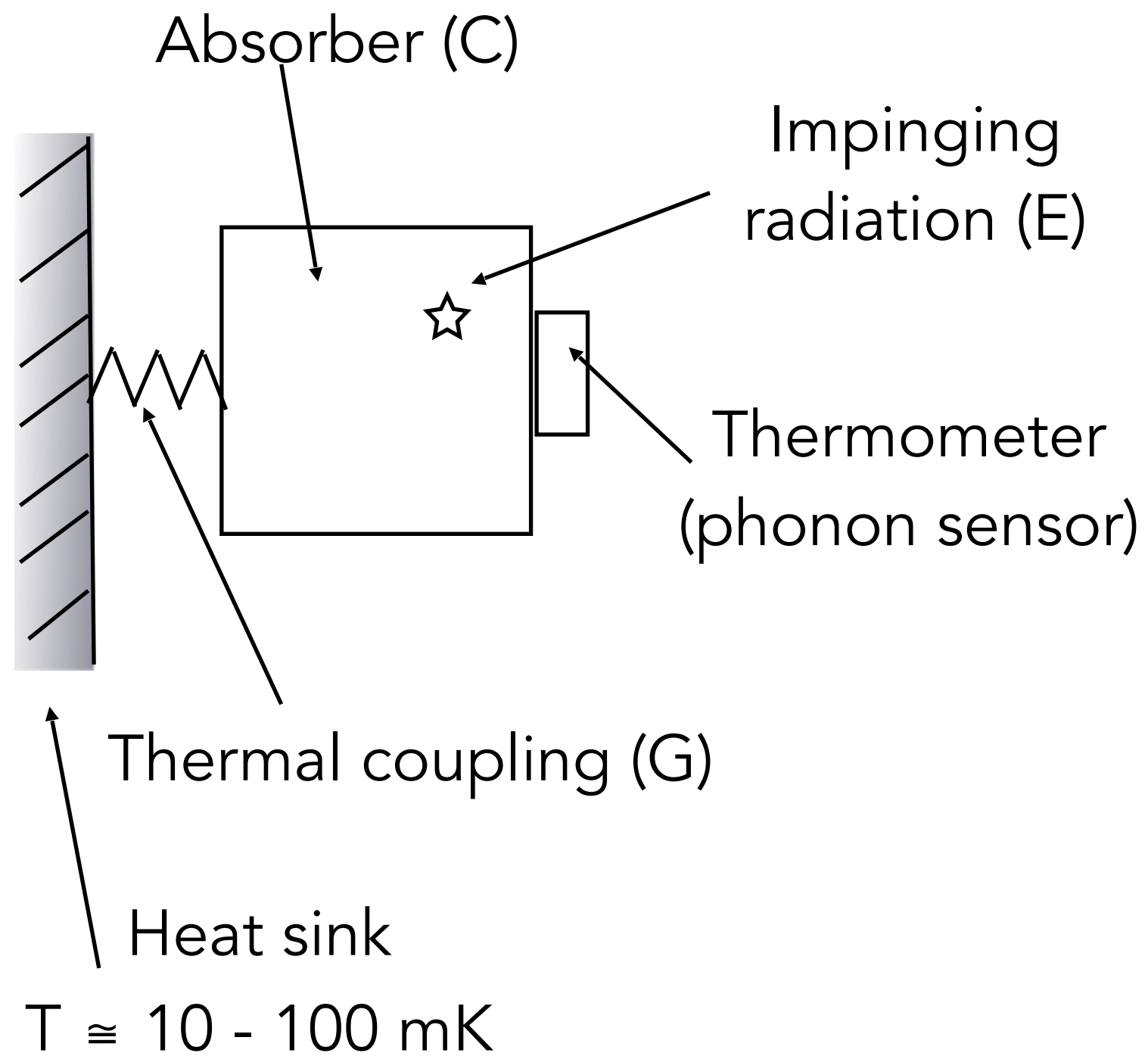
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To guarantee the weak thermal coupling to the heat bath, LTDs must be operated in vacuum. No vetoing or fiducialization of the detector volume is possible in pure cryogenic detectors.

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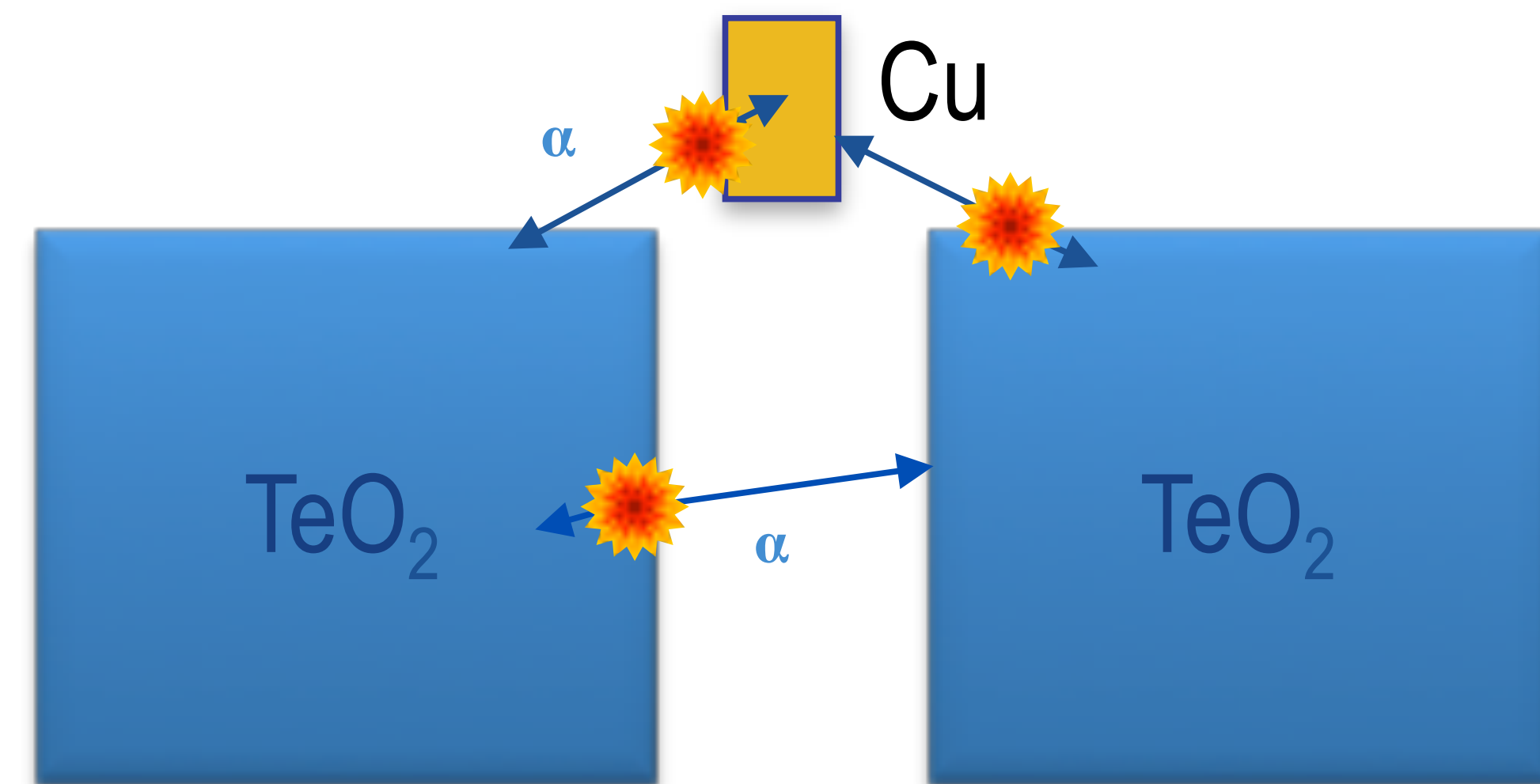


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Radiation emitted near the surface of materials surrounding the active volume can travel through vacuum and reach the detector.

—> Degraded alpha particles

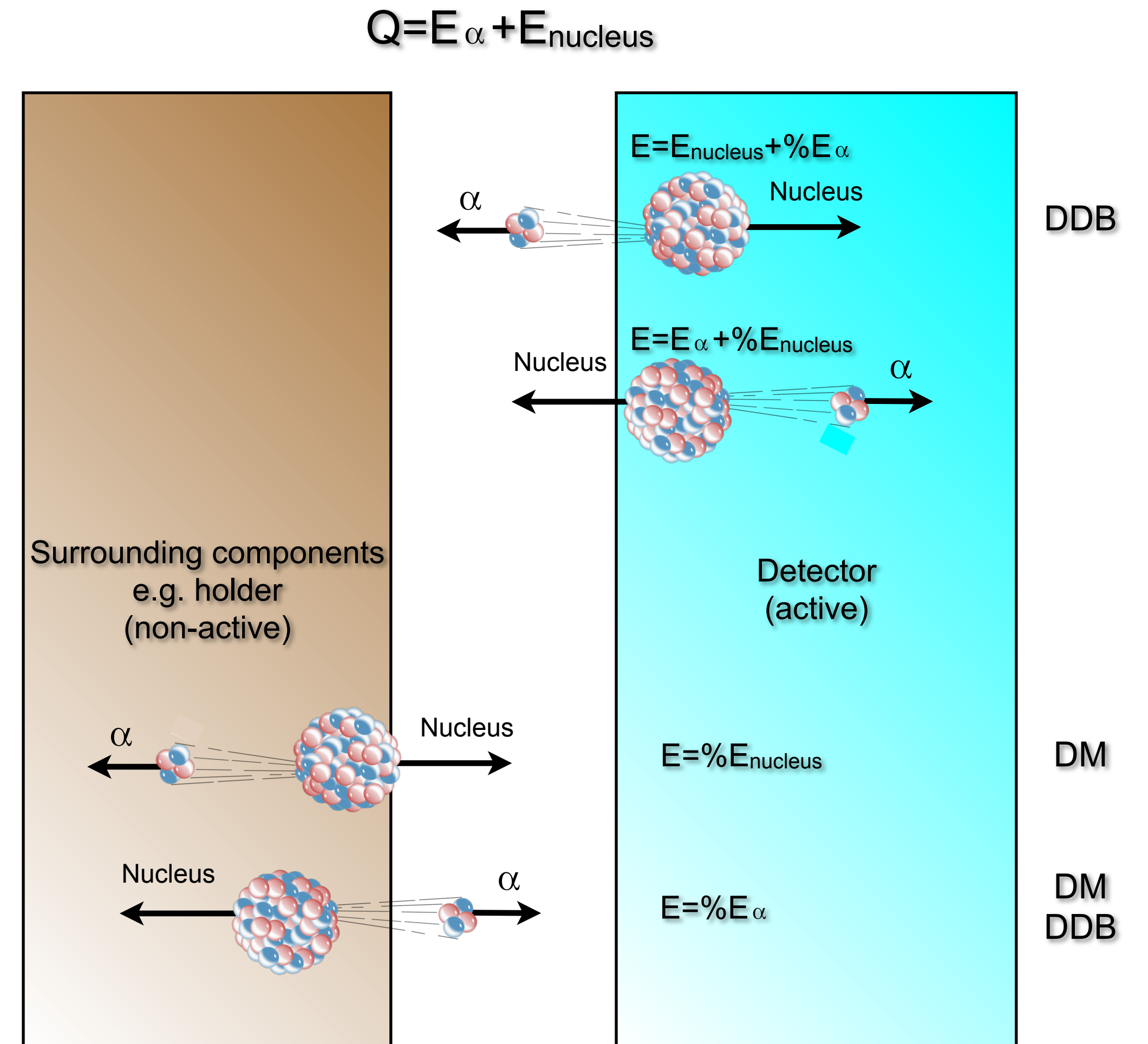


Surface α background

- The background of most thermal detector is dominated by surface alpha background.
- An alpha particle generated near the surface of a detector component will release only a part of its energy before escaping.
- The alpha will eventually hit another component of the detector. If one of the two component is non-active (e.g. copper supports) the alpha energy cannot be reconstructed, generating a continuum bkg at all energies.

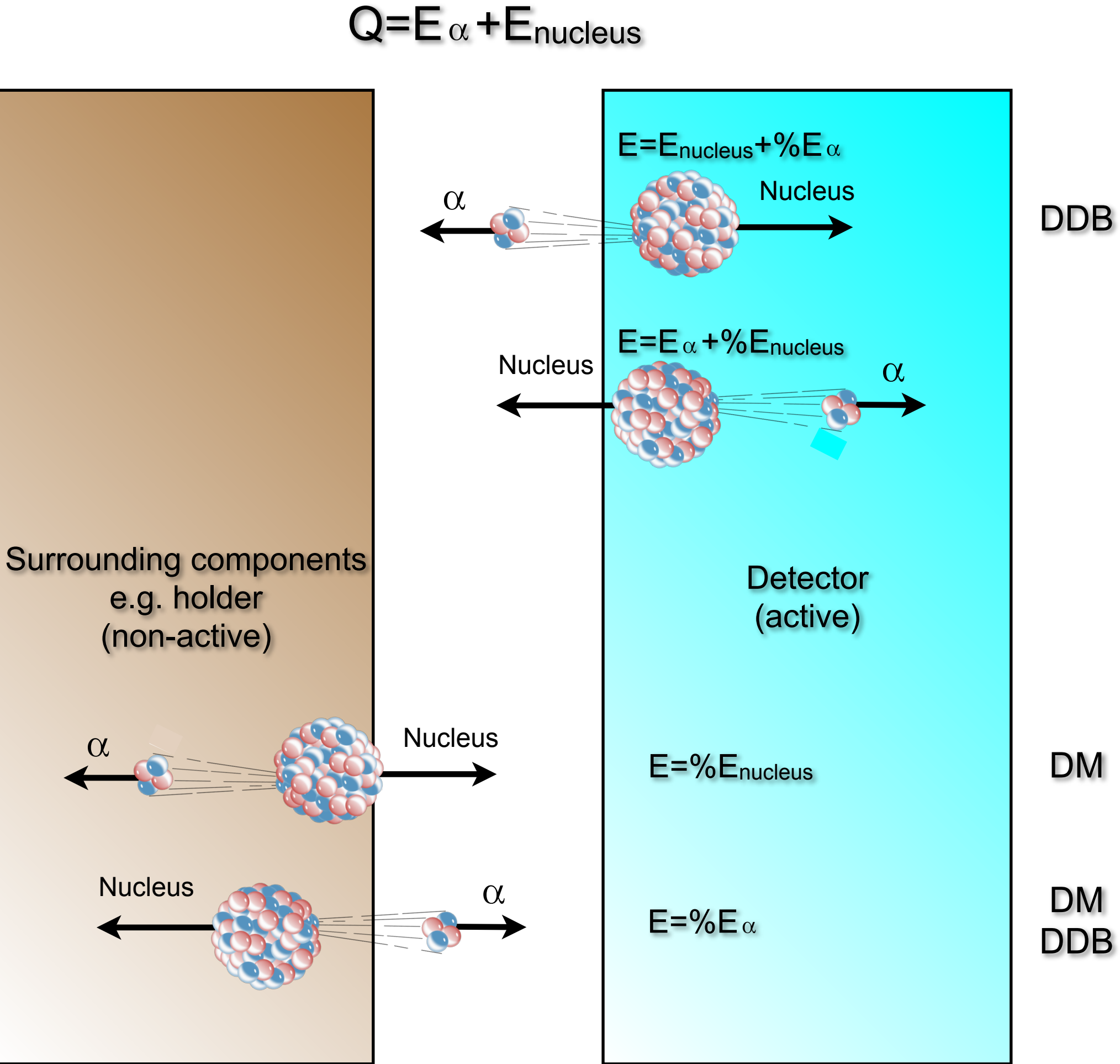
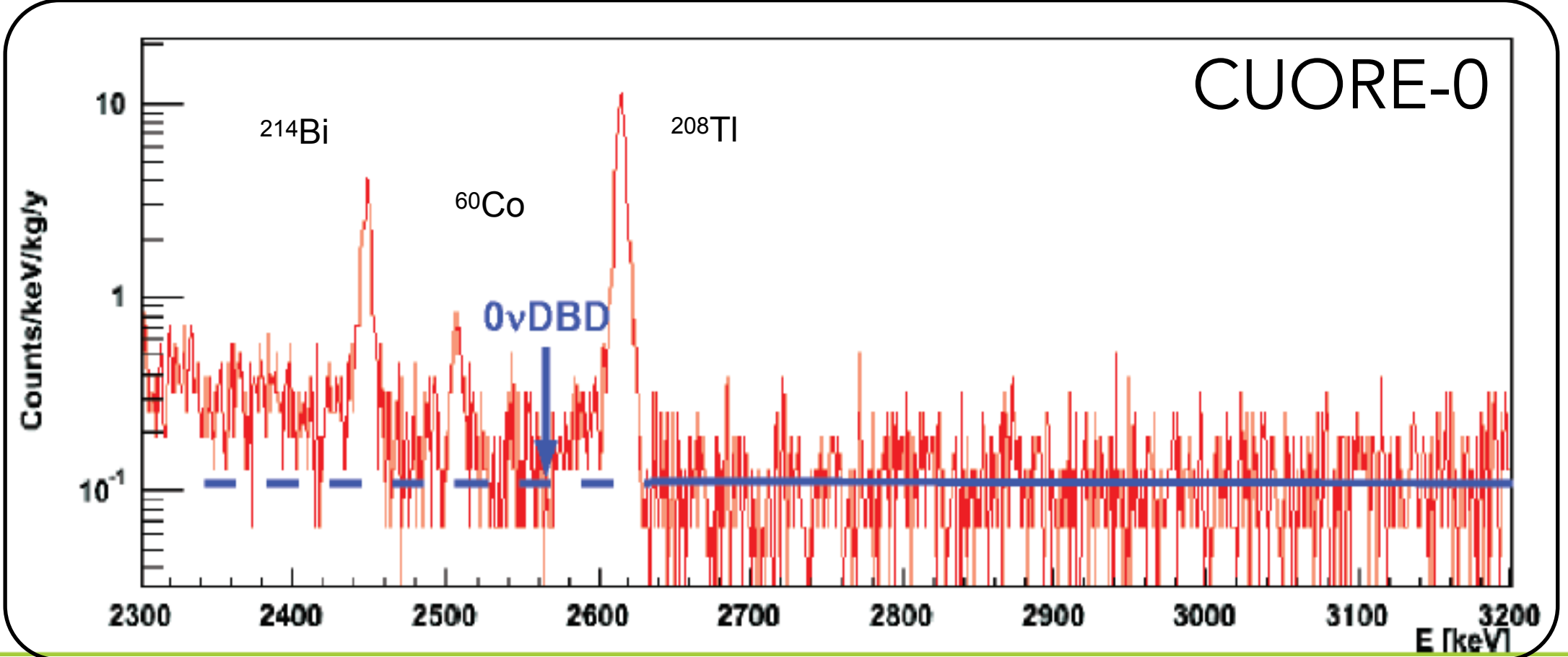
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Composite bolometers

The need of rejecting specific backgrounds in cryogenic detectors and the request of radiation identification capabilities have driven the development of double reading bolometers.

2 main channels have been explored:

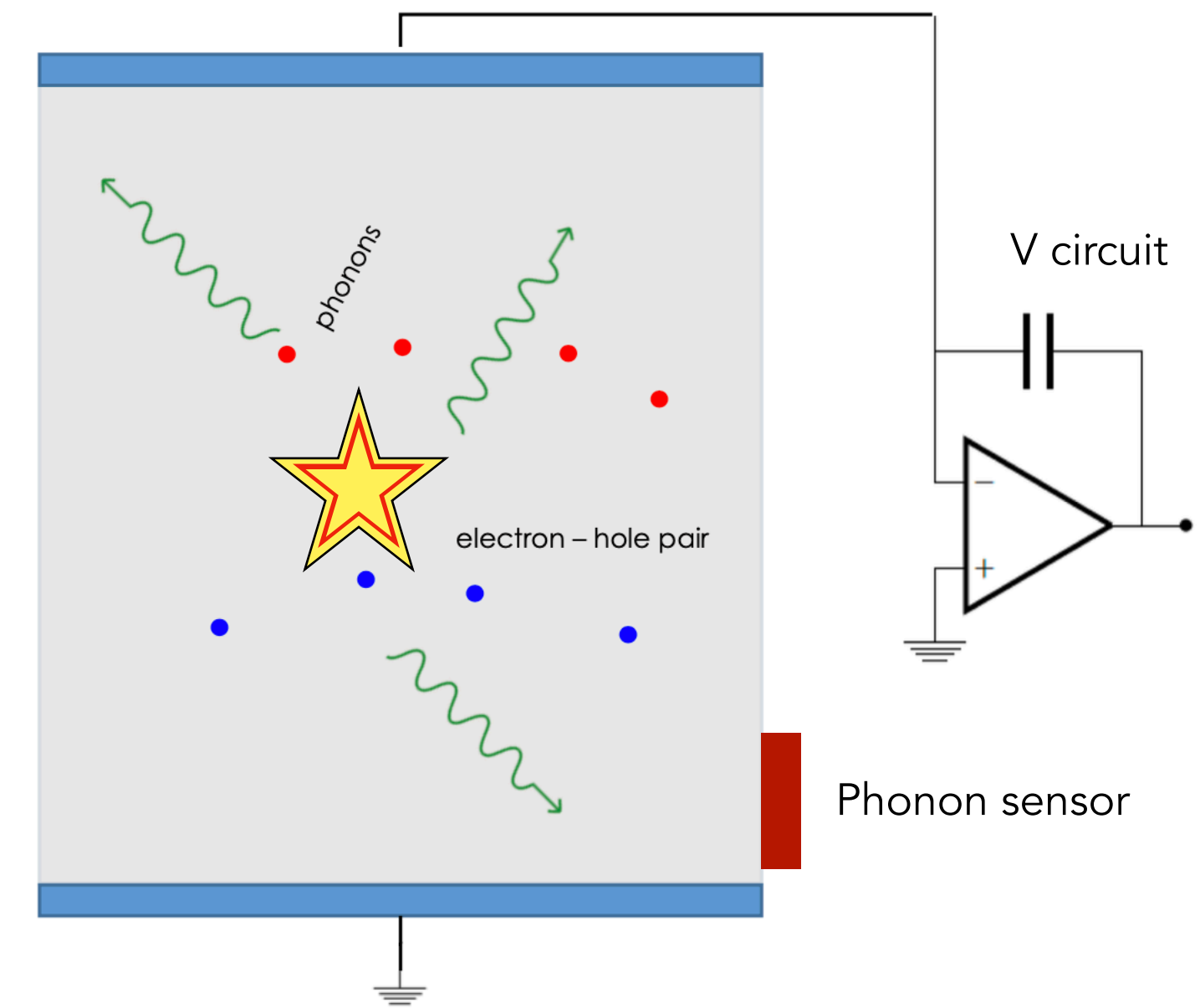
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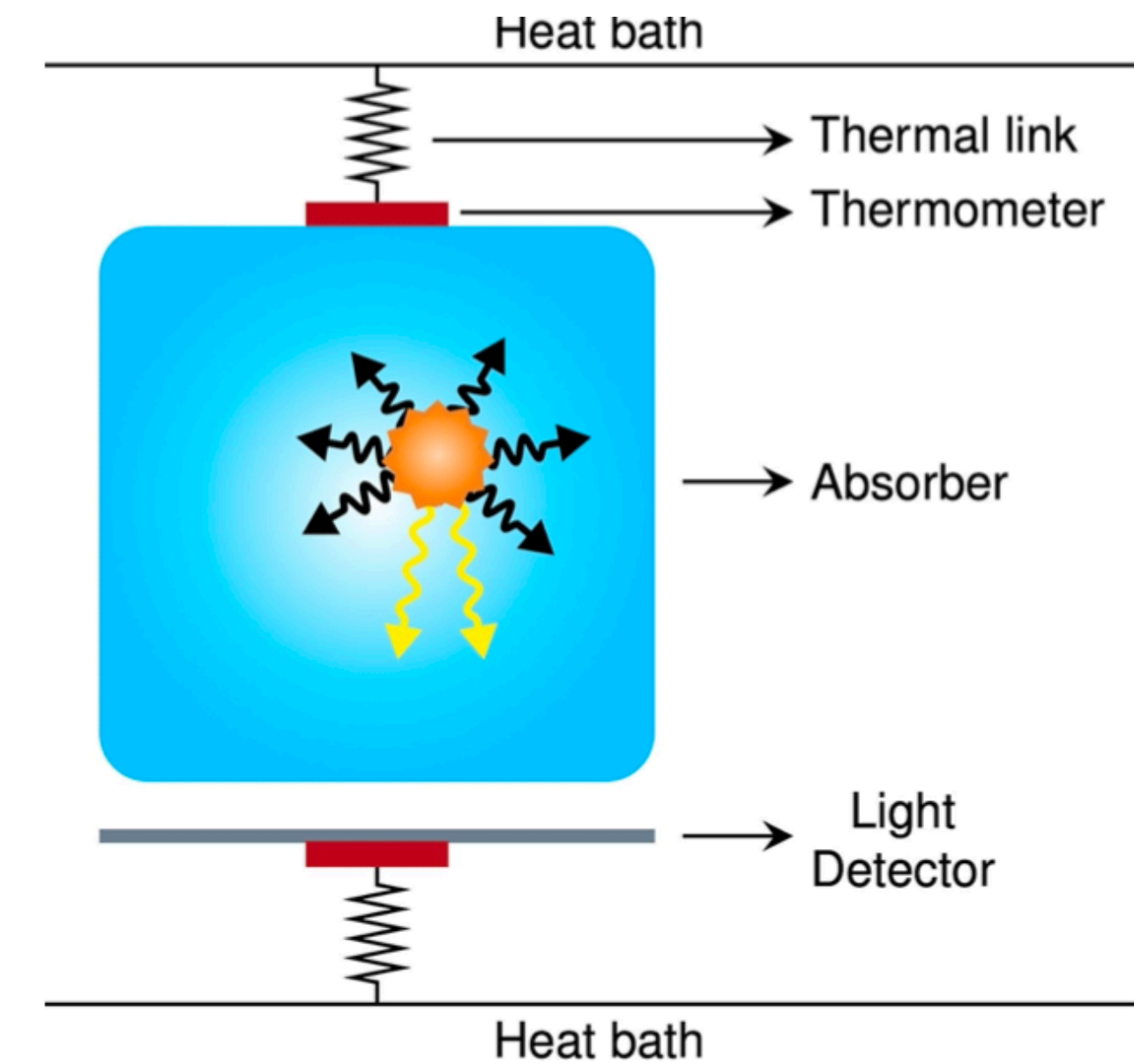
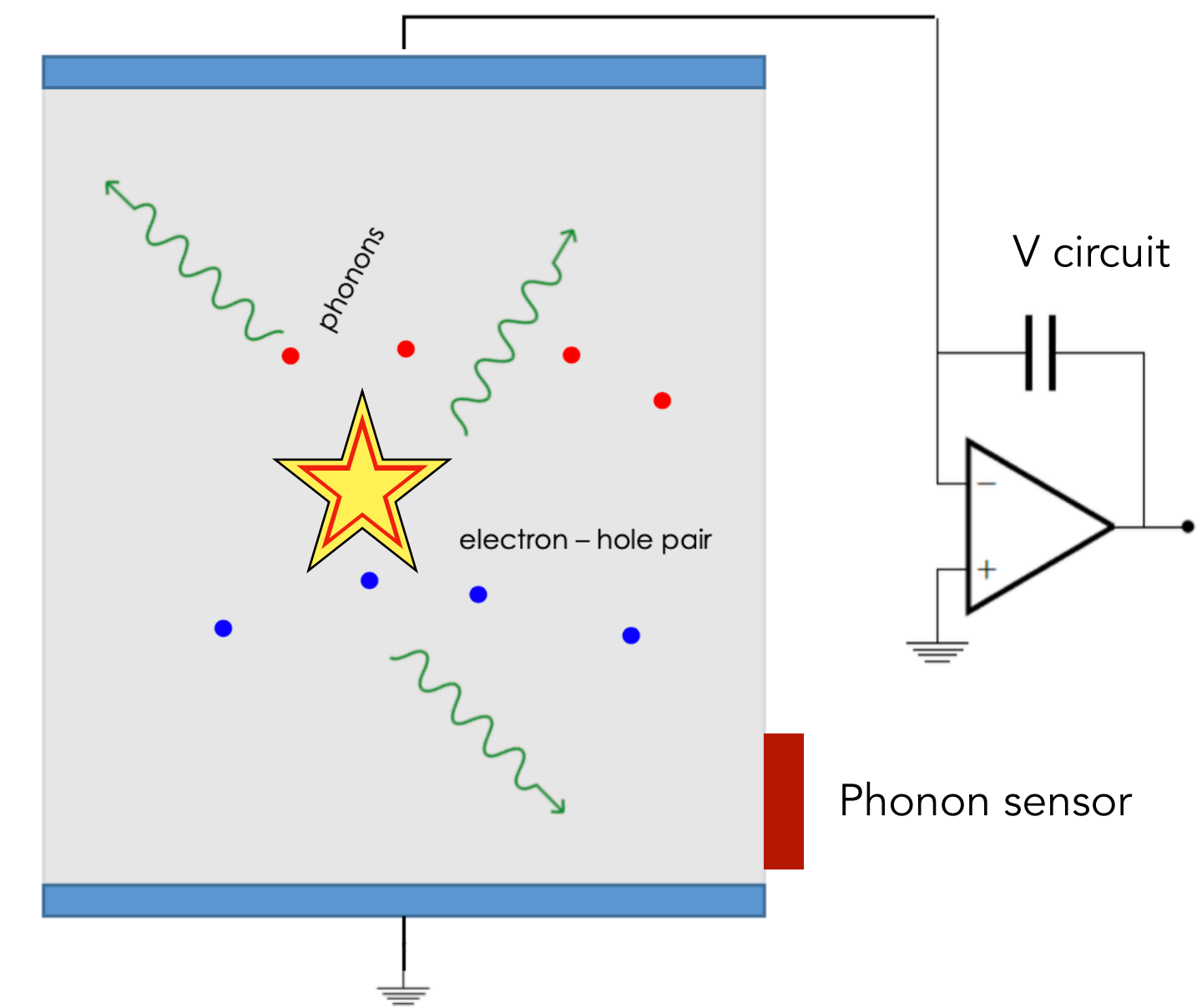


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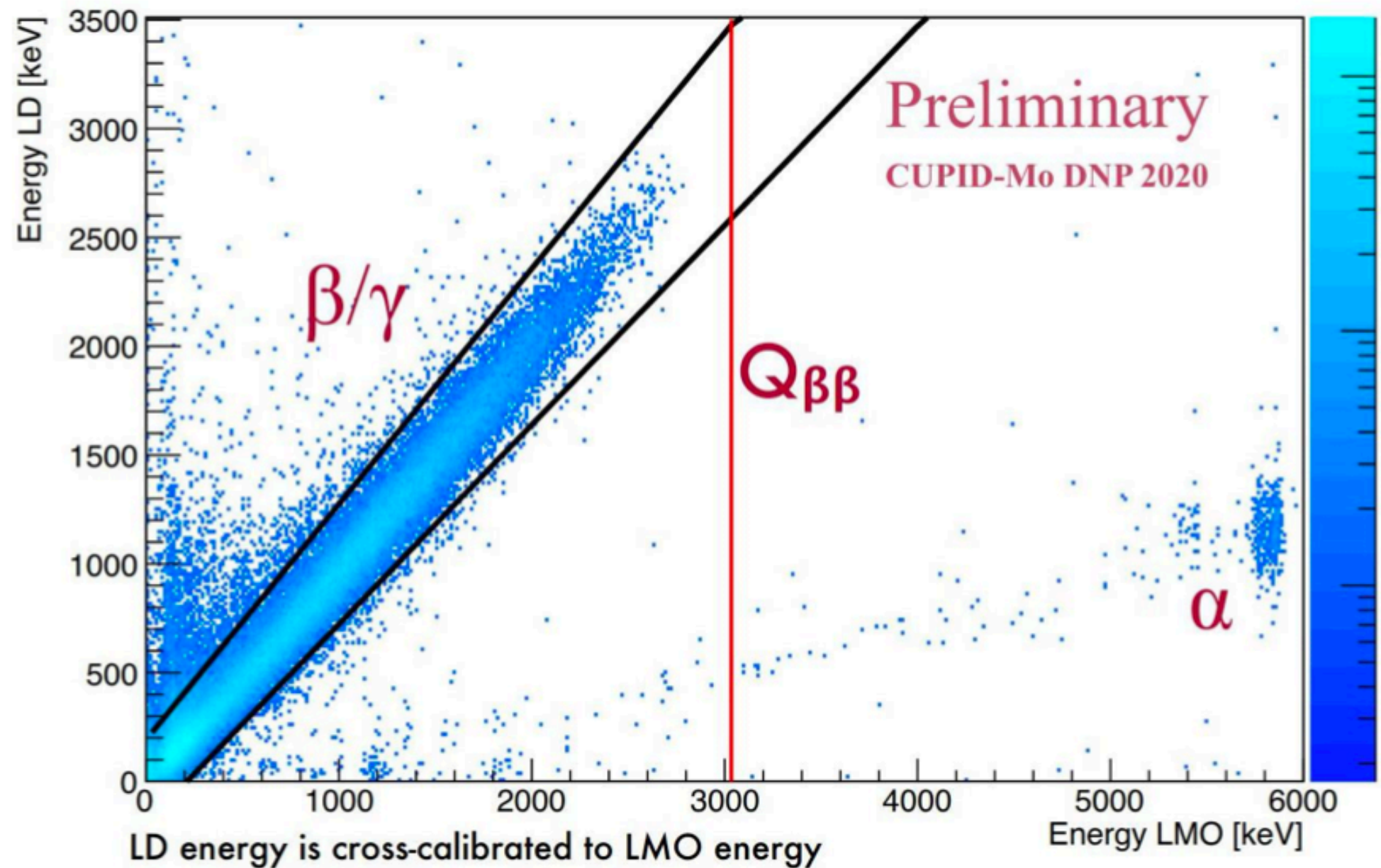


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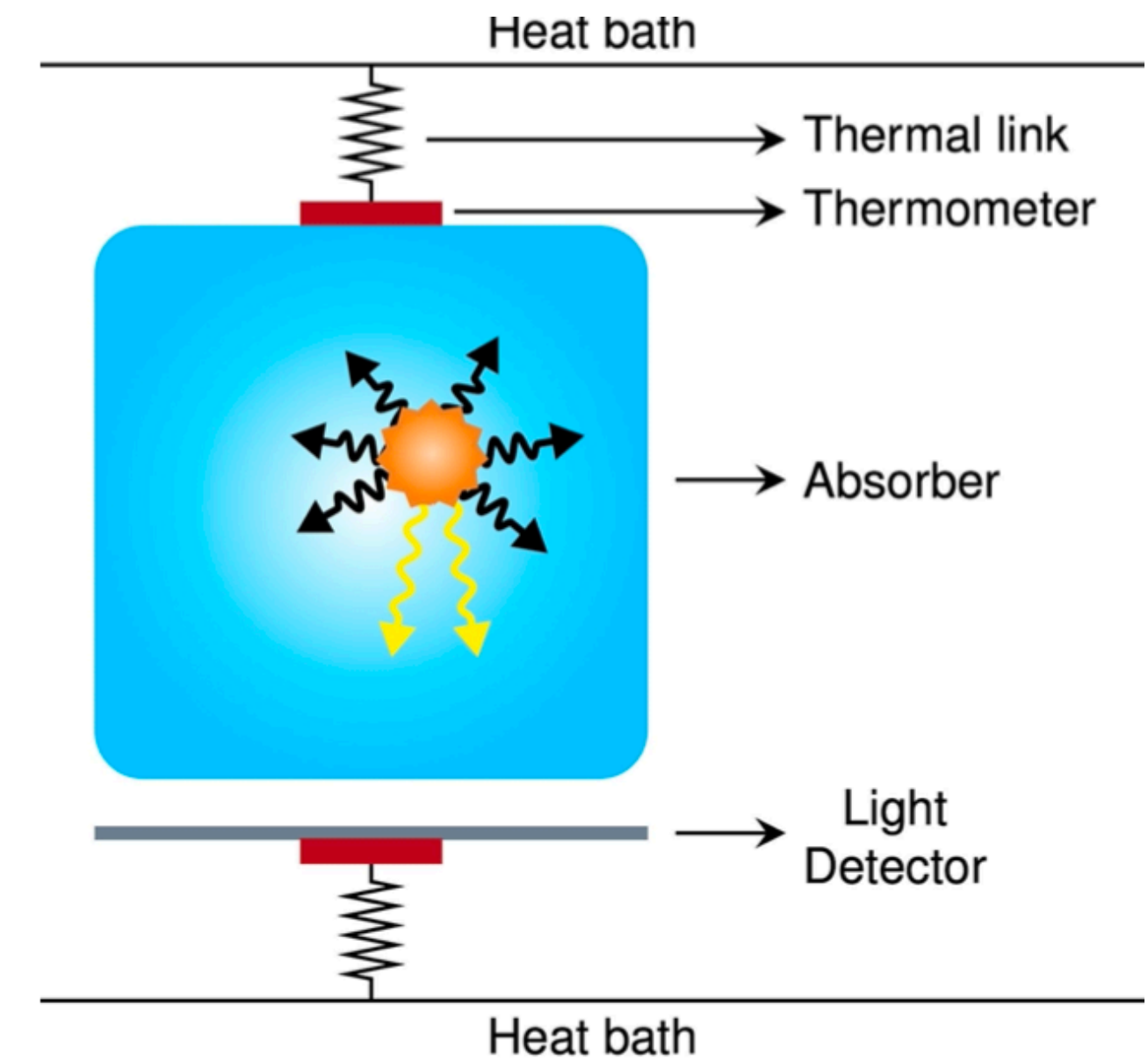
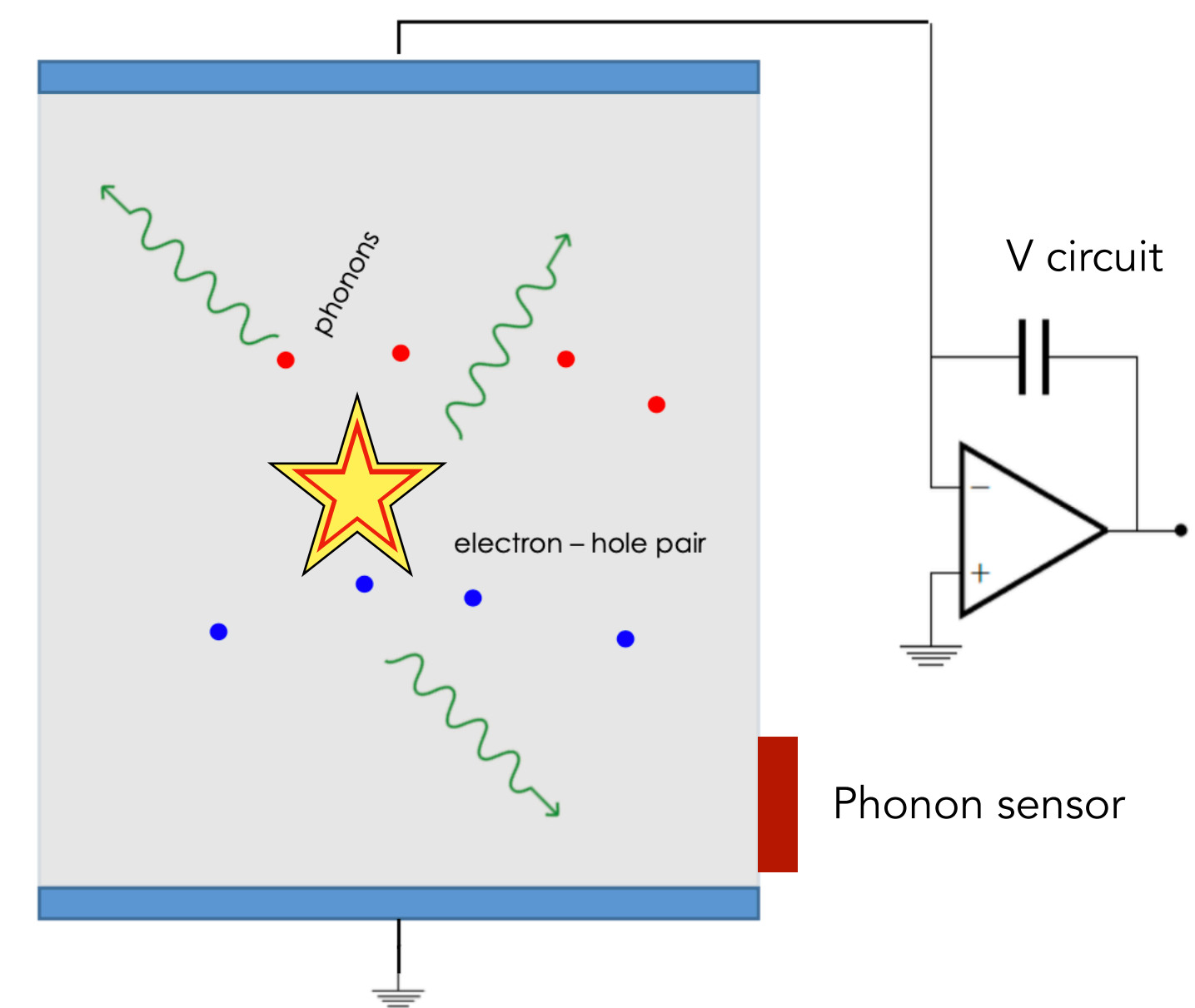
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The basic idea is to use the heat signal to measure E and the additional signal to discriminate radiation type



Part 2: physic applications

(a very incomplete list...)

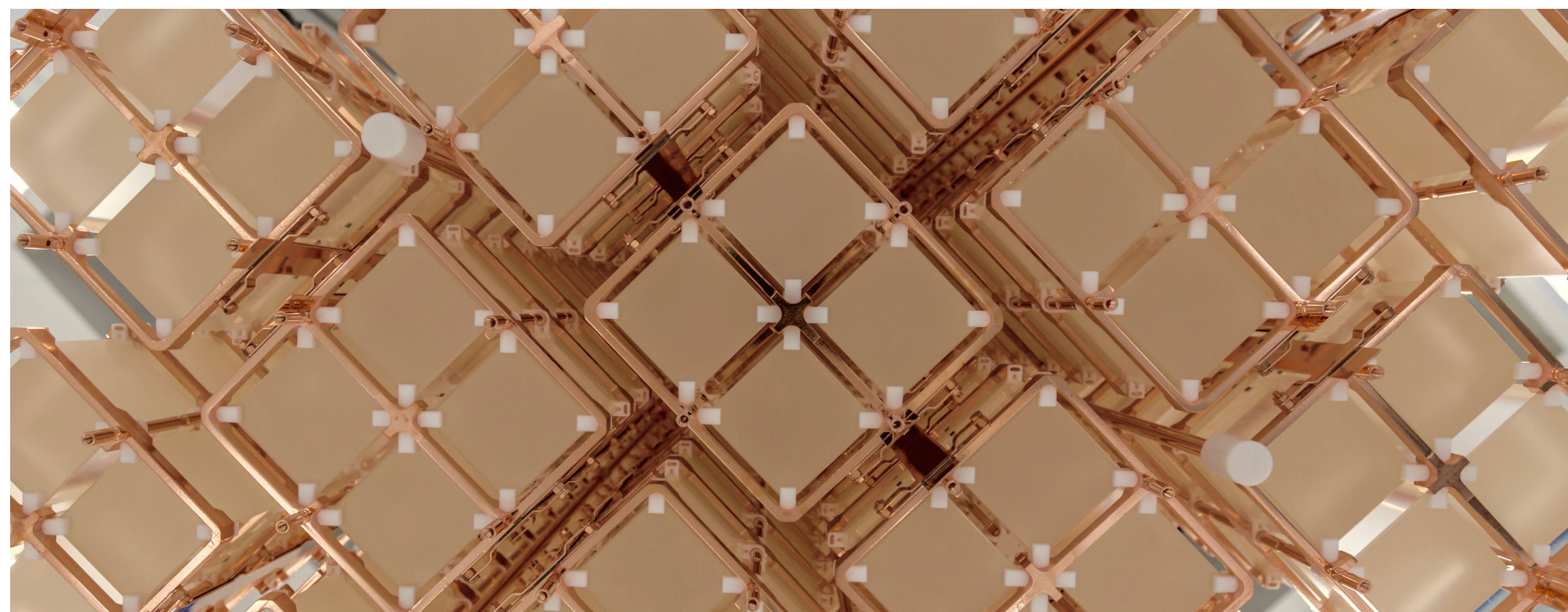


CUORE

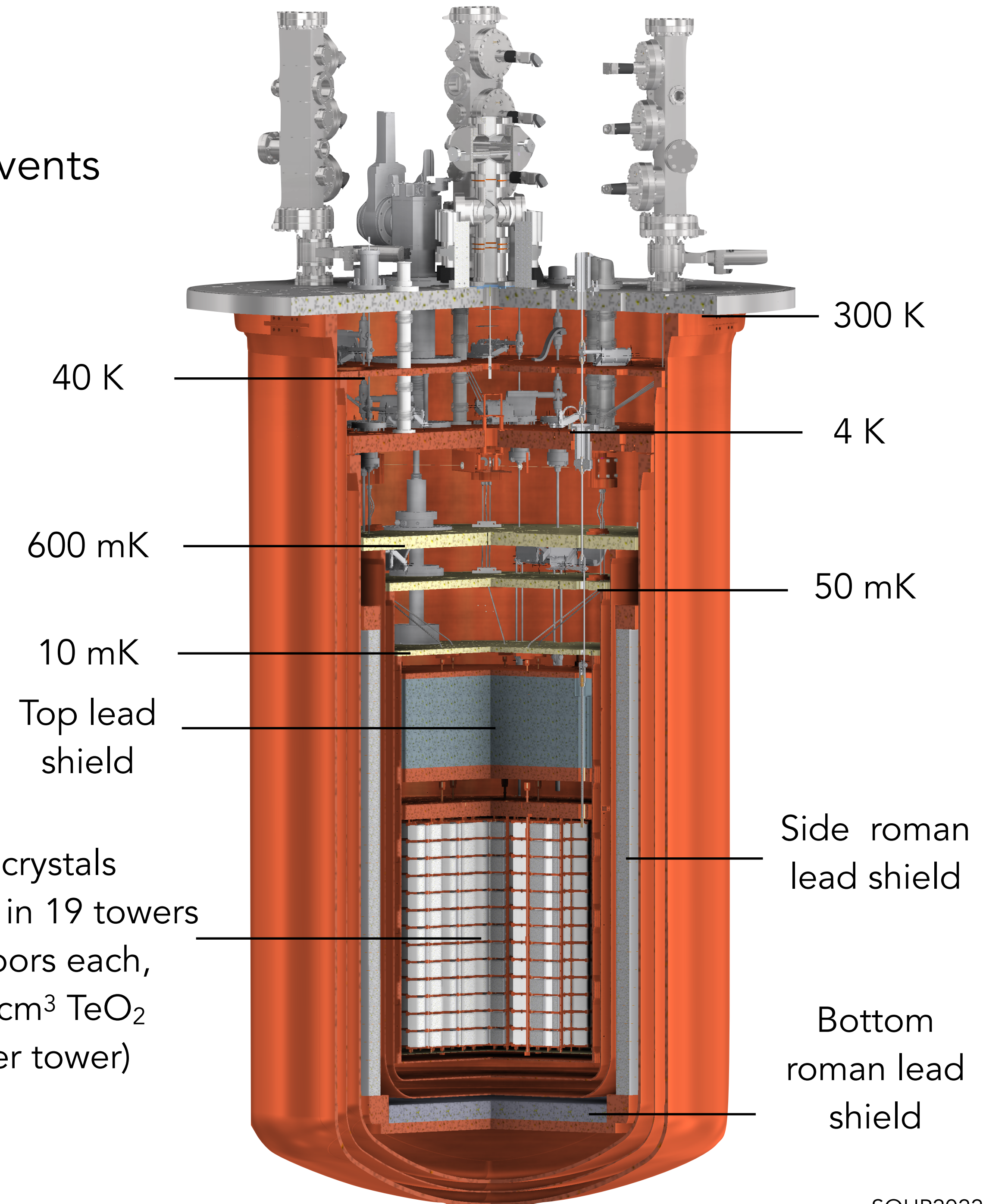
Cryogenic Underground Observatory for Rare Events

Main goal: detect $0\nu\beta\beta$ in ^{130}Te , in cryogenic TeO_2 bolometers, to prove the Majorana nature of the neutrino

- The CUORE detector is hosted in a cryogen-free cryostat (mass < 4K: ~15 tons of Pb, Cu and TeO_2)
- Operating temperature 11 mK (base T~7 mK)
- Designed to guarantee extremely low radioactivity and low vibrations environment
 - Energy resolution: goal of 5 keV at $Q_{\beta\beta}$
 - Low background: goal of 10^{-2} cts/(keV·kg·yr) at $Q_{\beta\beta}$



988 TeO_2 crystals (arranged in 19 towers with 13 floors each, 52 $5\times 5\times 5$ cm³ TeO_2 crystals per tower)



Large masses



Large masses

CUORE demonstrates the feasibility of a tonne-scale experiment employing cryogenic calorimeters (for the search of the $0\nu\beta\beta$ decay) and set a new benchmark for upcoming generation of projects



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Low temperature detectors technology competitive with other techniques in terms of performance (energy resolution, background reduction ...) and scalability, reaching similar sensitivities for $0\nu\beta\beta$ decay search.



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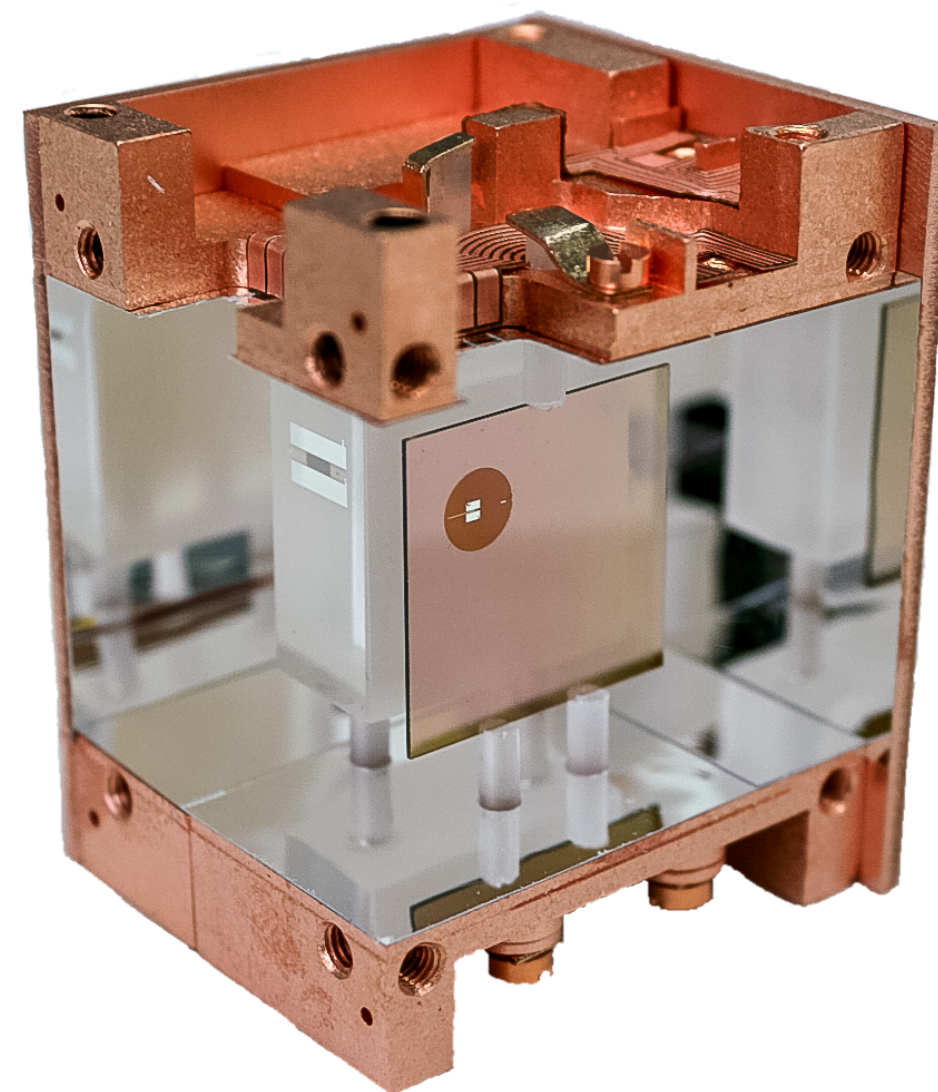
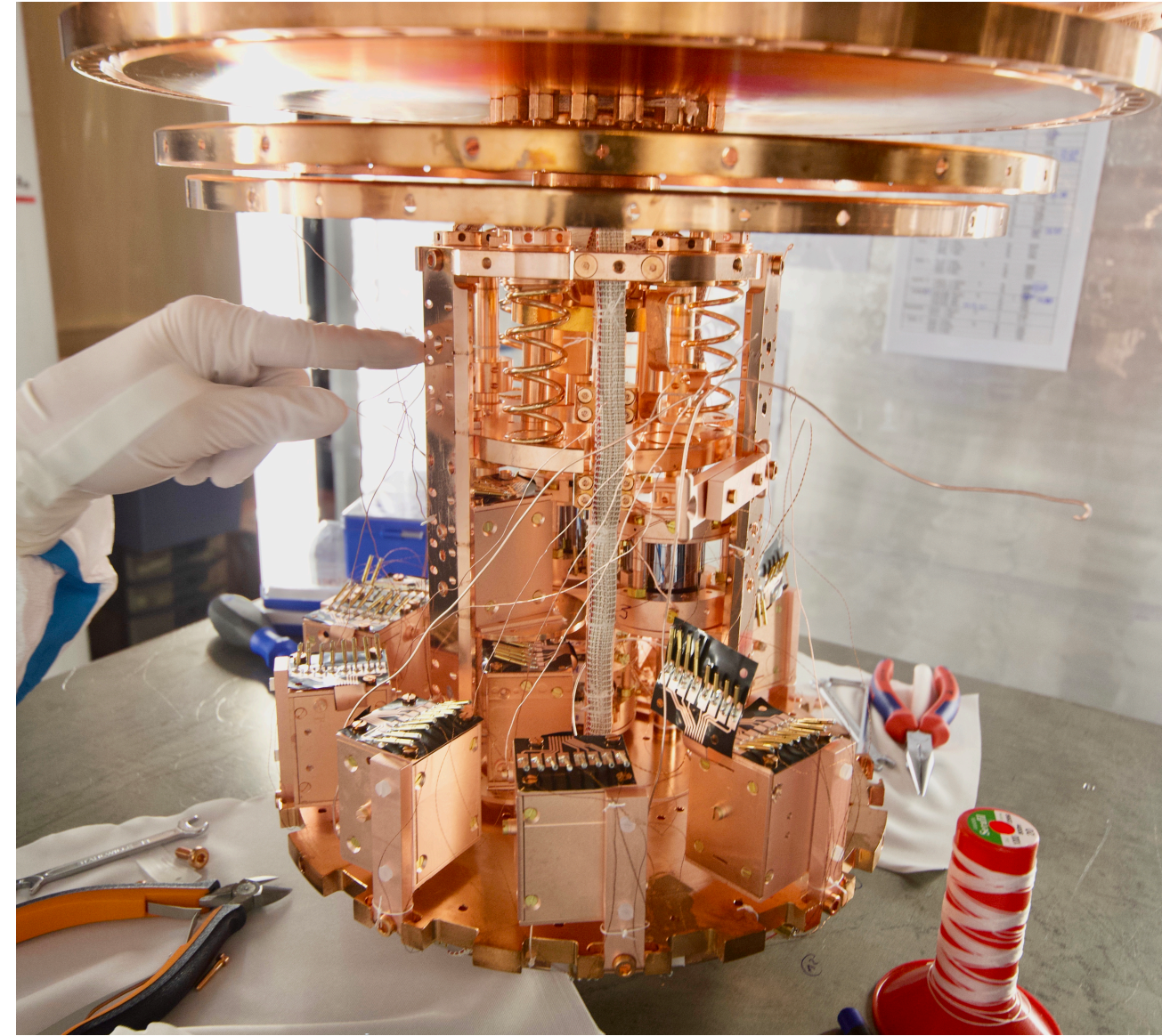
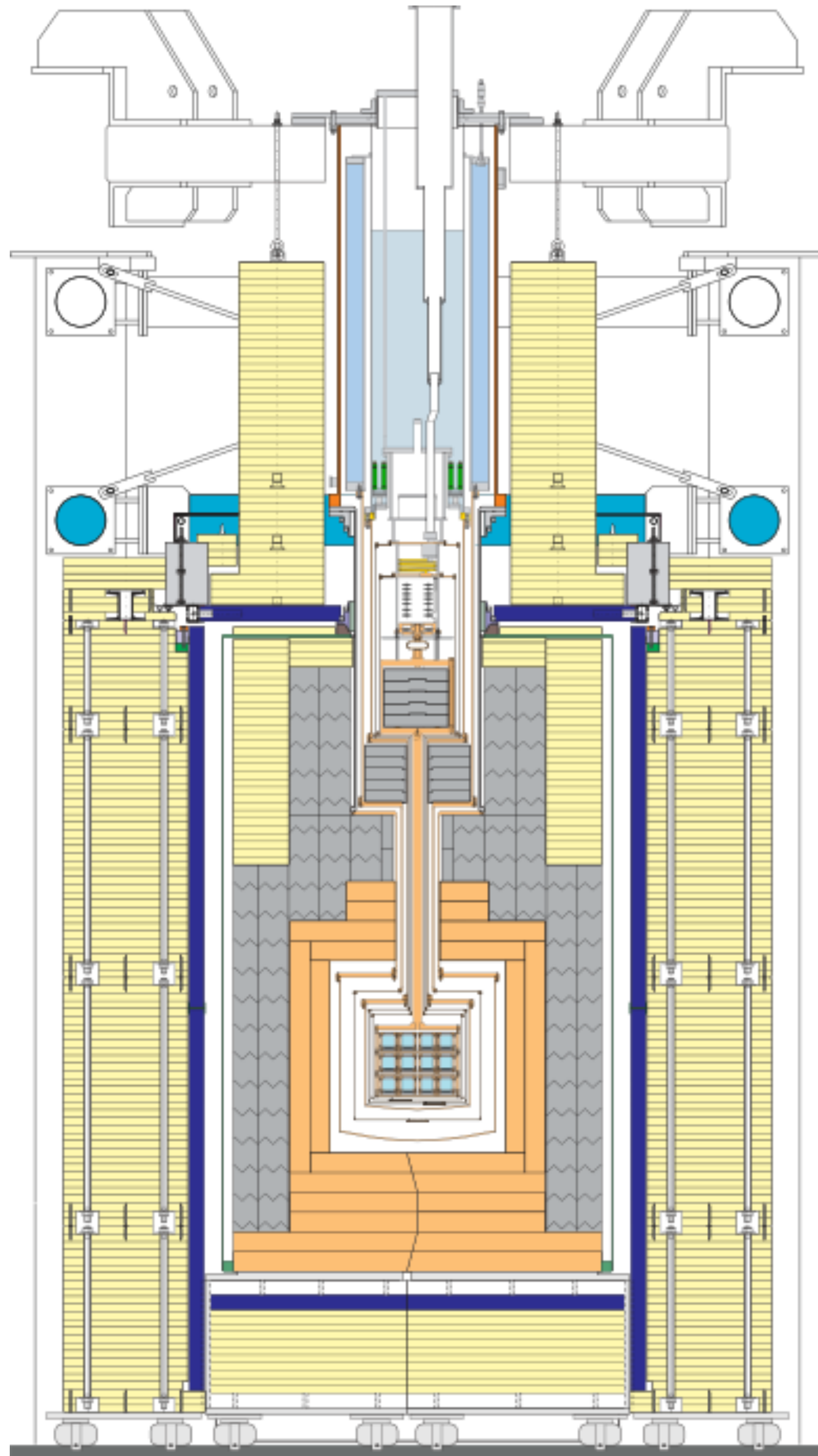
The CUORE data taking is ongoing steadily since 2017 and almost 2 tonne*years of exposure have already been collected.

CUORE granularity offers a crucial tool for specific kind of signatures (e.g. processes with associated gammas) and to reject specific backgrounds.

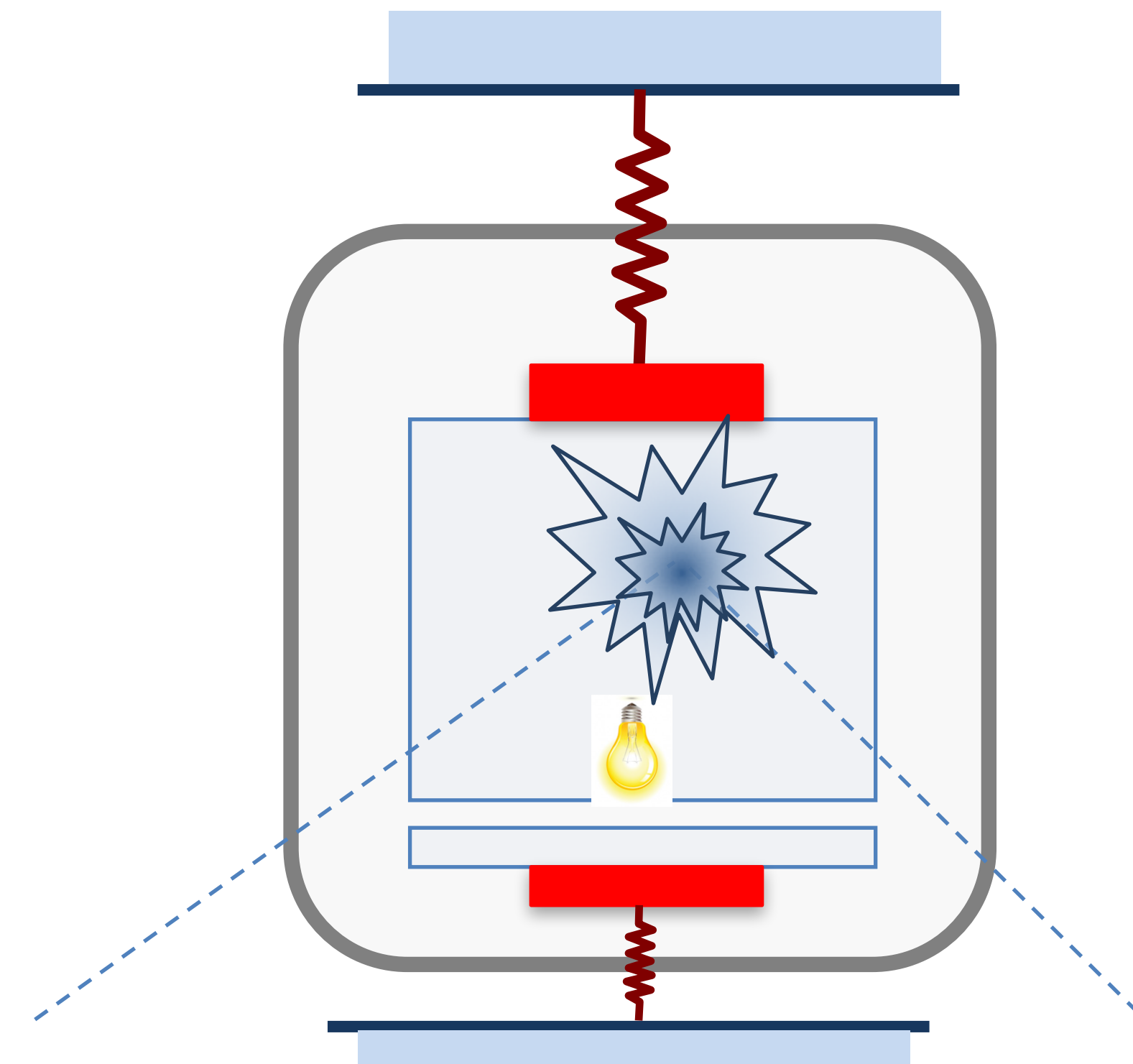


The CRESST Experiment

Cryogenic Rare Event Search with Superconducting Thermometers



Scintillating CaWO_4 crystals as target + Separate cryogenic light detector operated at 15 mK with TES readout

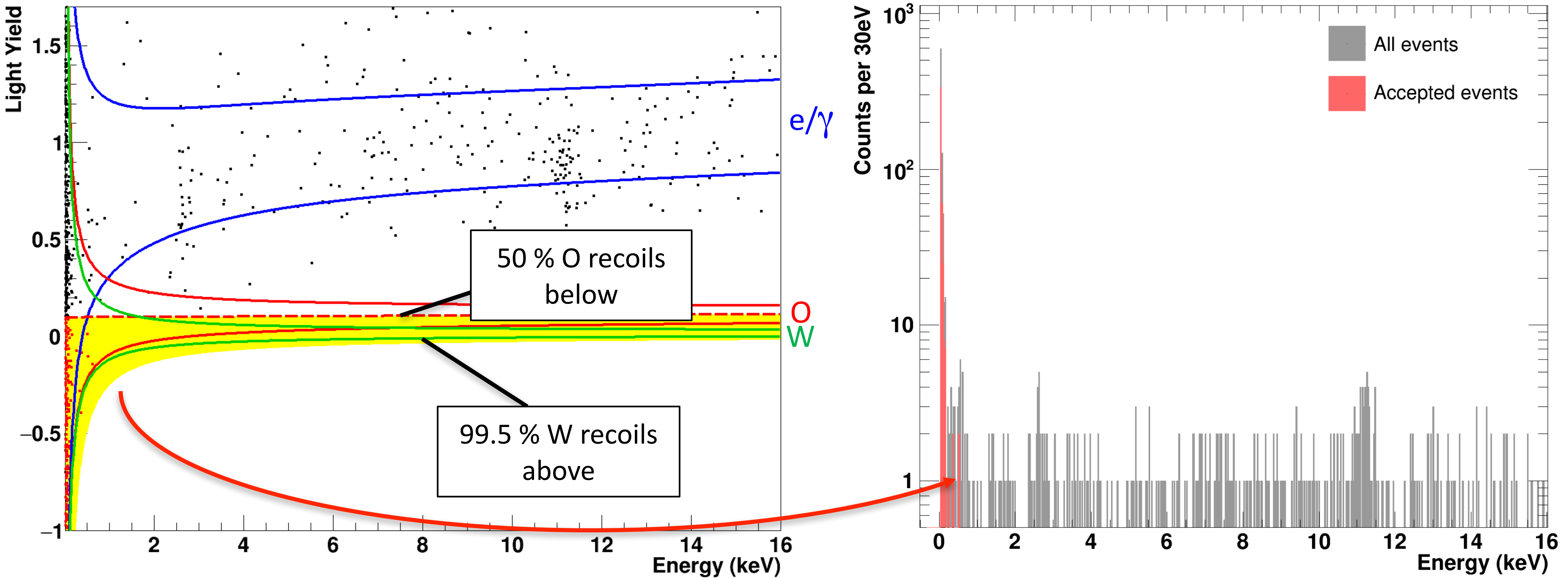


CRESST: DARK MATTER DATA

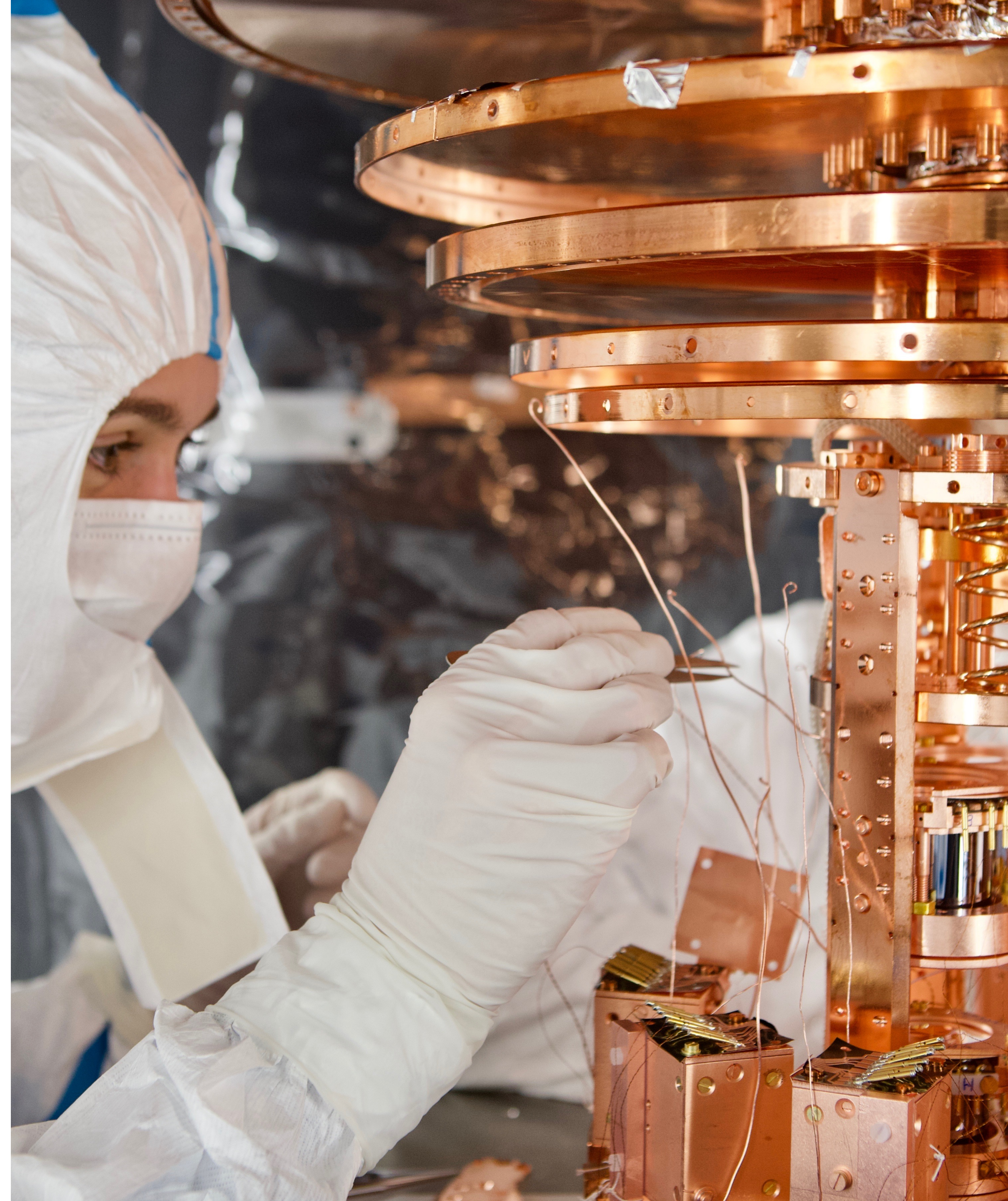
Det A: 24 g, $E_{th} = 31$ eV

Analysis optimized for very low energies: 31 eV \rightarrow 16 keV

Acceptance region fixed before unblinding

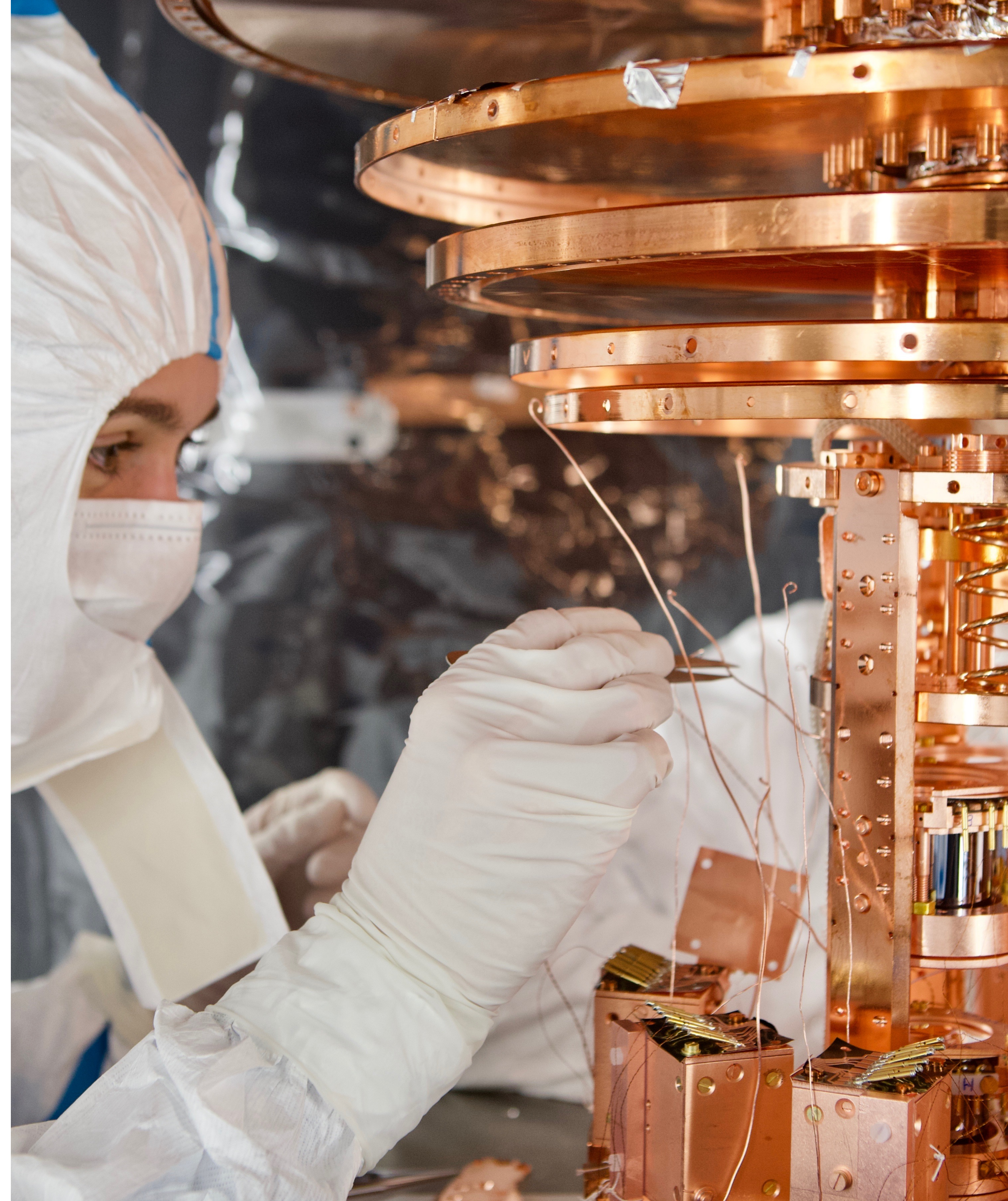


Low threshold



Low threshold

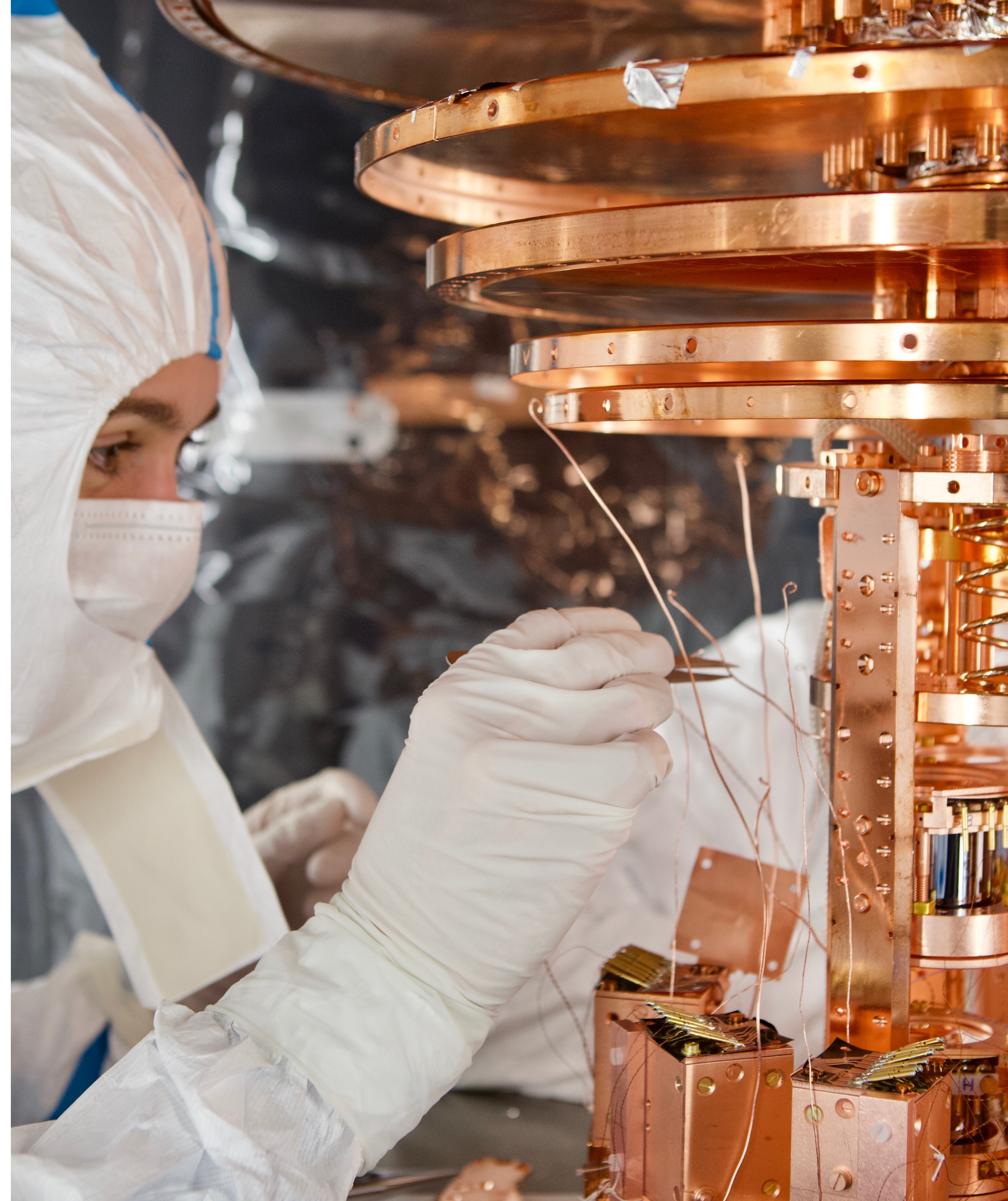
CRESST set a new benchmark for energy threshold in cryogenic detectors. Thresholds as low as 10 eV are the new target for next generation of experiment with detector masses in the O(10 g) scale.



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Low temperature detectors technology is now leading the field in terms of performance (energy threshold), even though scalability to large masses (exposure) is at present a limiting factor due to the complexity of the technique (TES readout).

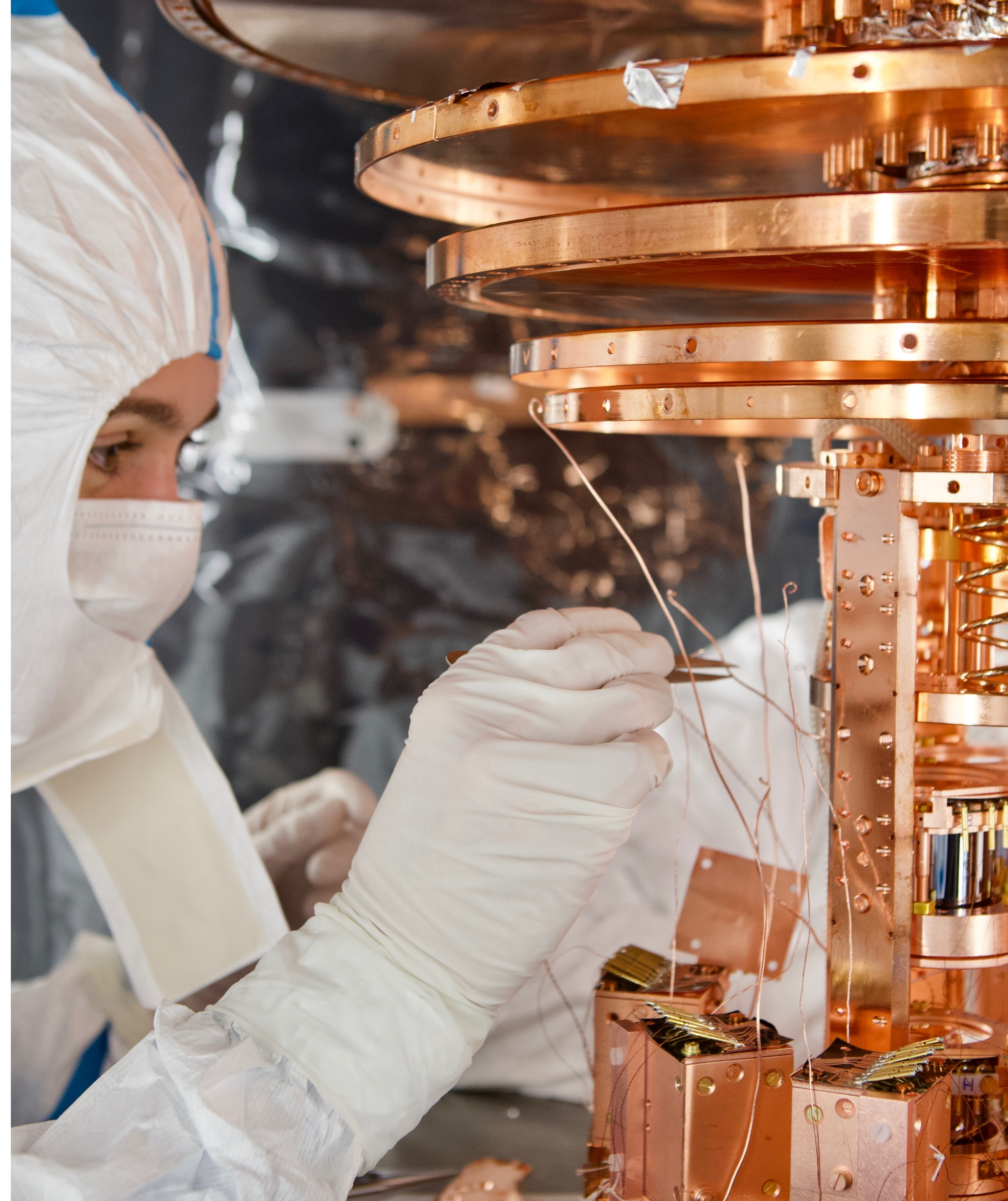


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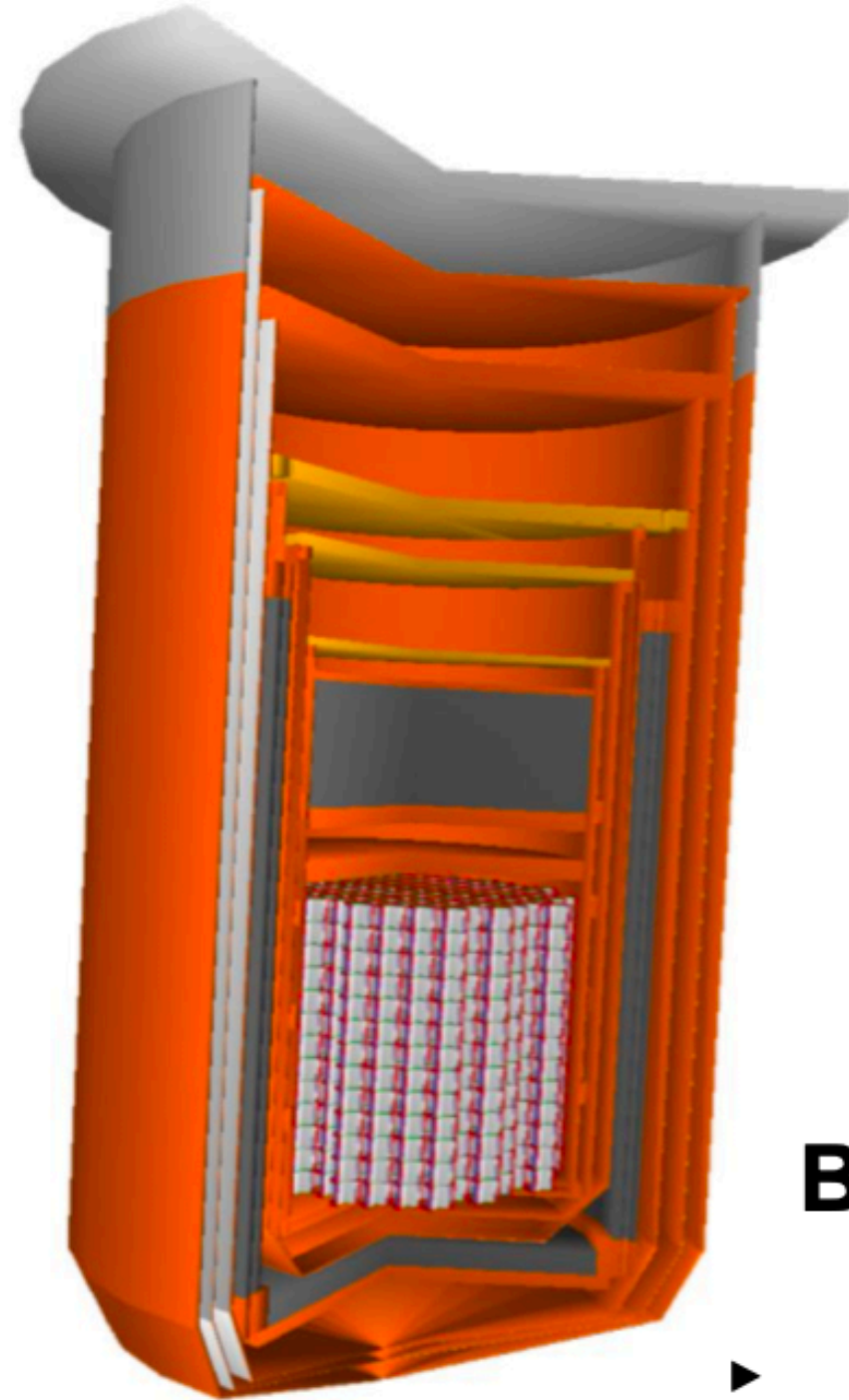
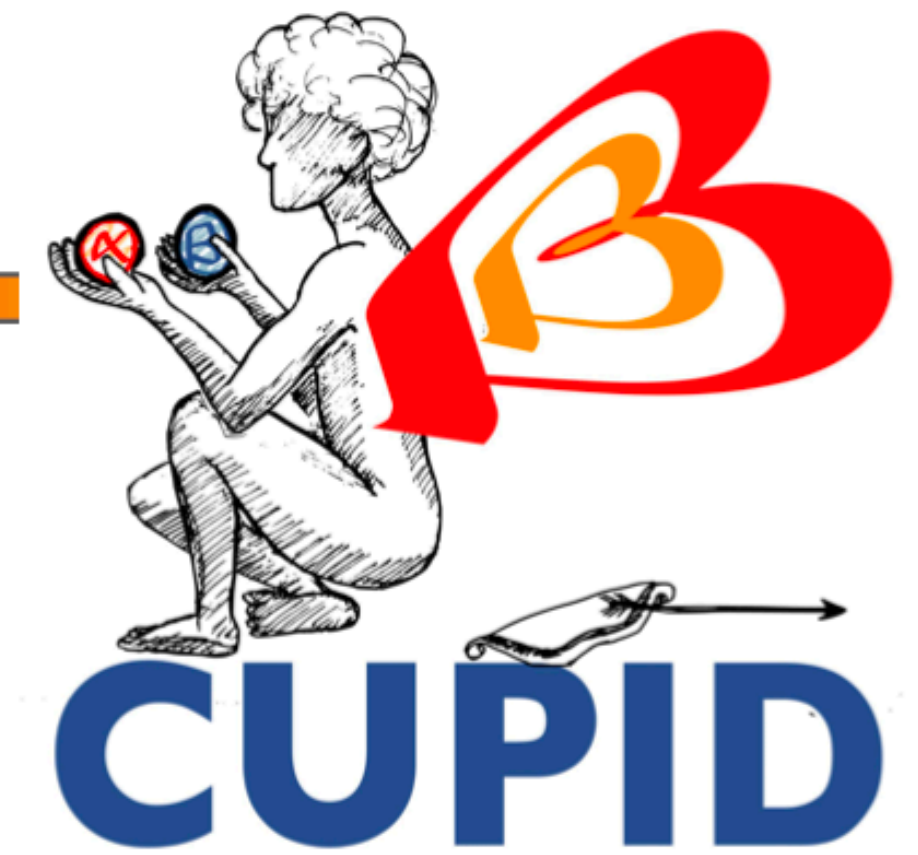
CRESST-like TES are now being used in many different projects exploiting low energy threshold benefits (neutrino physics, D_m search,...).



Many astroparticle physic applications

CUPID

CUORE Upgrade with Particle Identification

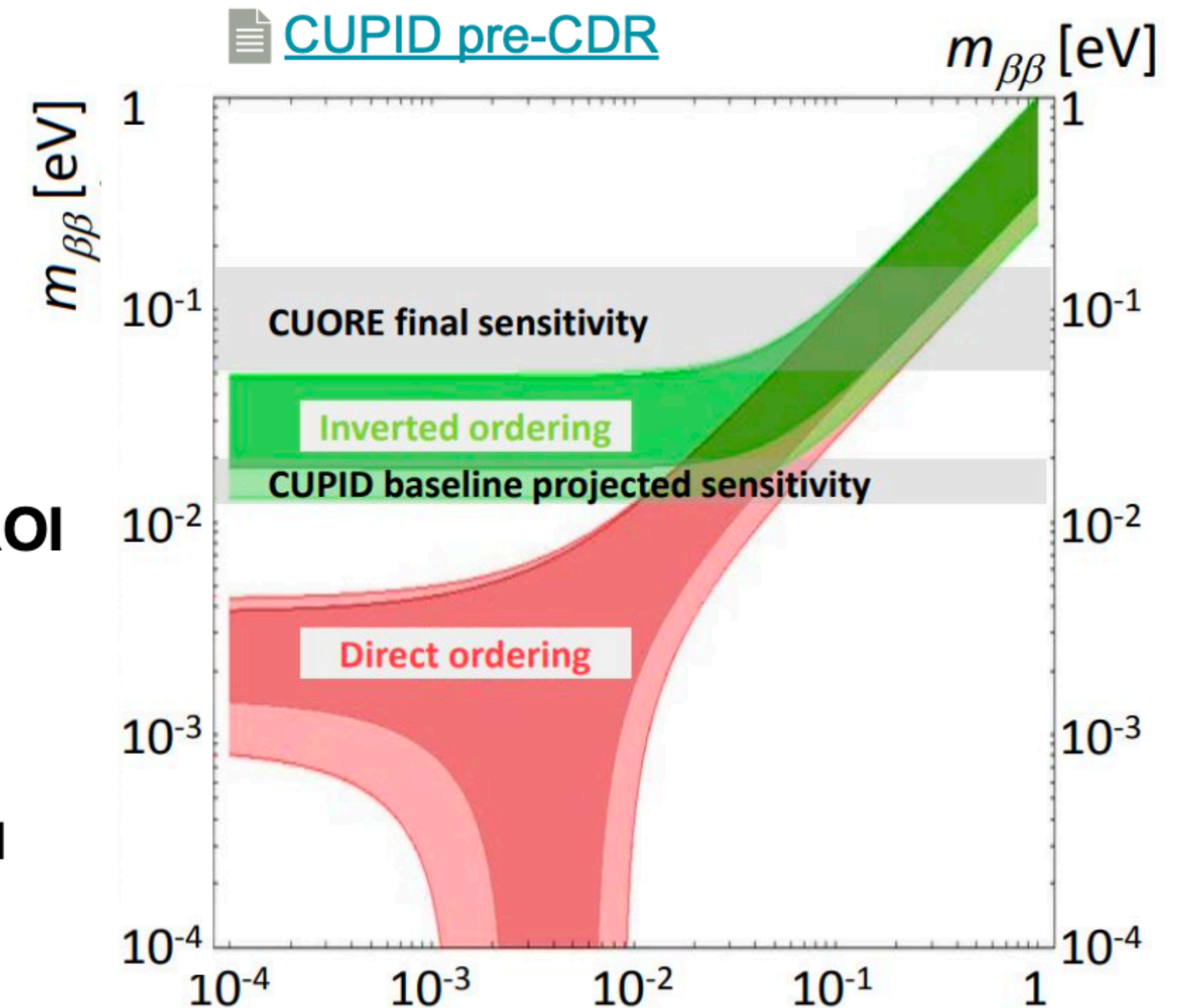


1 tonne of scintillating LiMoO_4 detectors

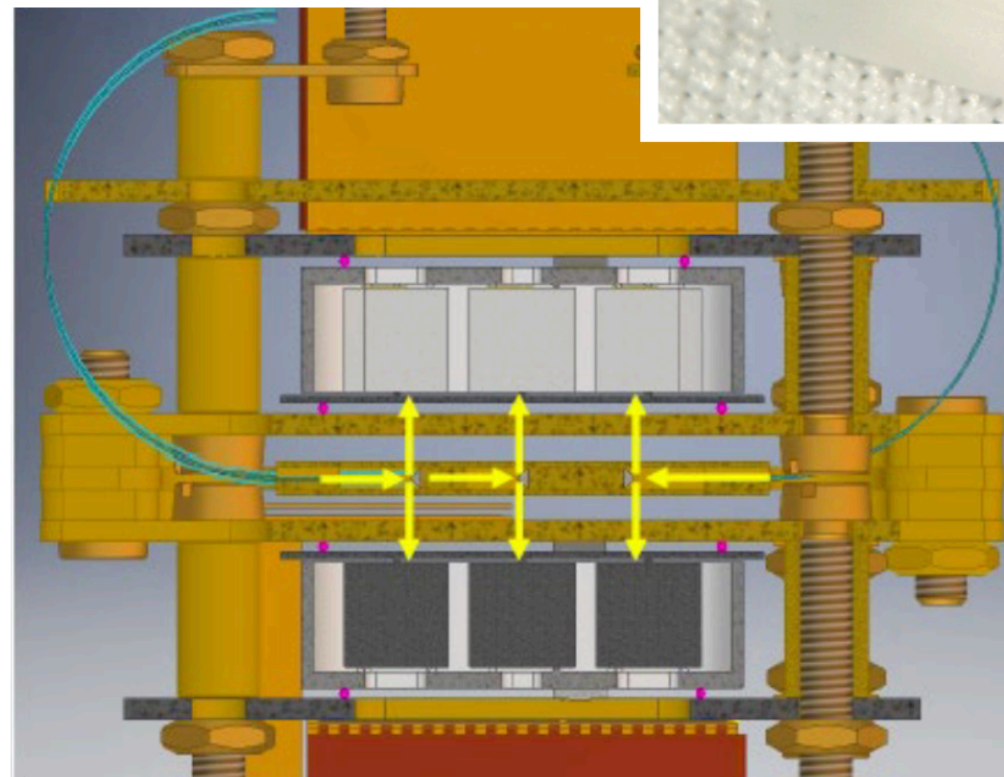
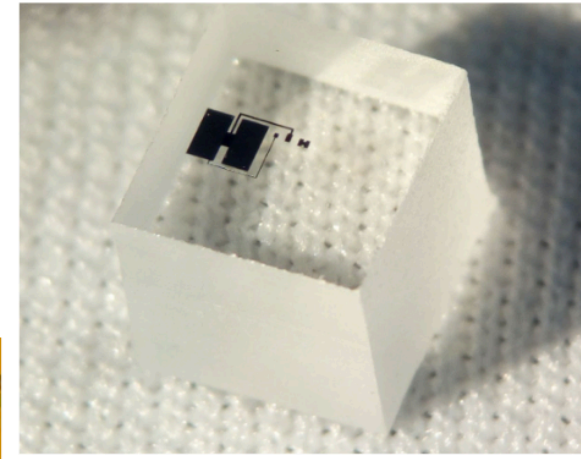
- ▶ ~1500 calorimeters, each cubic crystal ~300g
- ▶ Crystal enriched >95% in ^{100}Mo (~250 kg of ^{100}Mo)
- ▶ Ge light detectors
- ▶ LMO and LD read via NTD
- ▶ CUPID detector hosted in CUORE cryostat

Background goal $B < 10^{-4}$ c/(keV · kg · yr) in the ROI

- ▶ Particle ID (α vs β/γ) with scintillation light
- ▶ Possible discrimination of $2\nu\beta\beta$ pile-up from pulse shape
- ▶ Background reduction: underground location at LNGS, passive shields (Pb/Cu), high-radiopurity in assembly and storage of detectors and materials, muon veto, profit of detector high granularity



Nuclear reactors

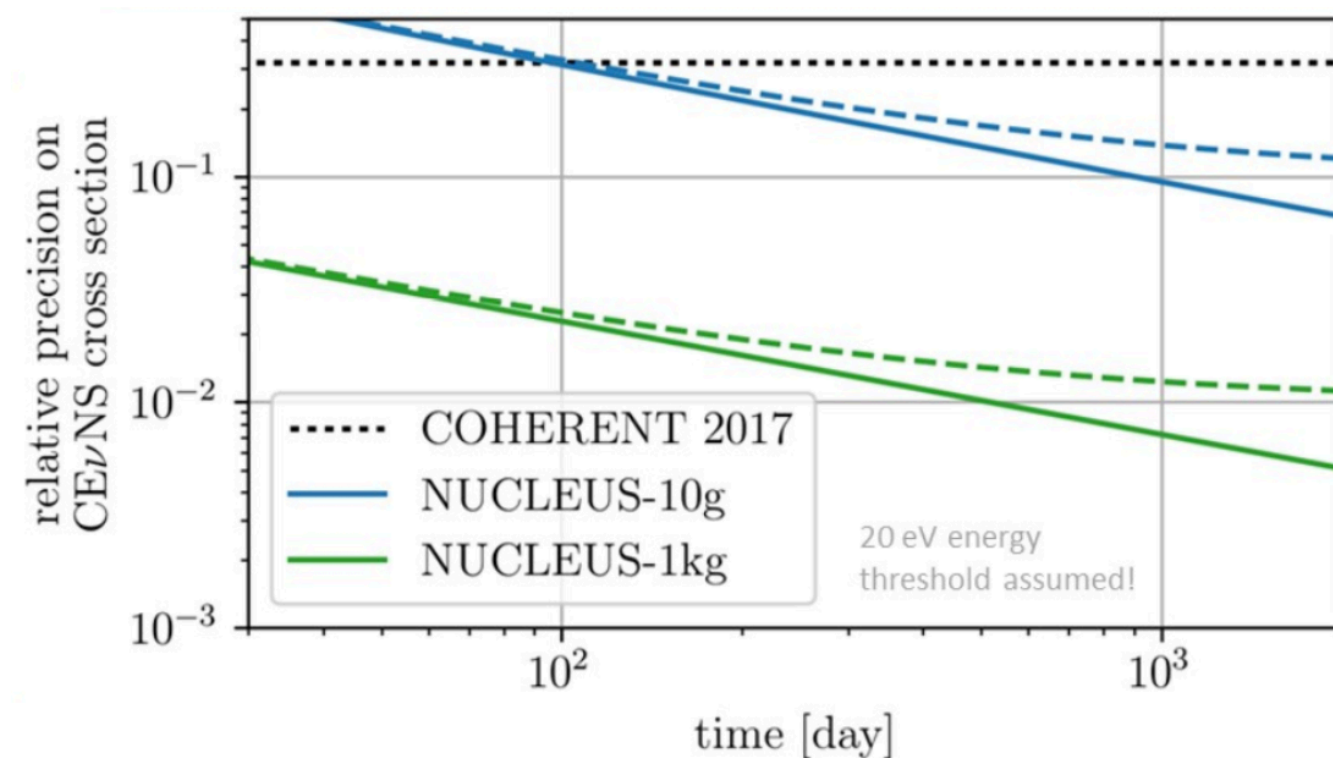


NUCLEUS

- ◆ g-scale CaWO_4 (CEvNS) and Al_2O_3 (Bkg) crystals @ mK temperatures
 - ◆ 2 arrays of 3 x 3 cryogenic crystals (gram scale)
- ◆ Detector threshold ~ 20 eV
- ◆ Target background 100 events/kg/day/keV
- ◆ 102 m & 72 m of 2 reactors of the Chooz-B plant of 4.25 GW each
- ◆ Flux: $1.7 \cdot 10^{12} \bar{\nu}_e \text{ cm}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$
- ◆ Multi-layer passive shield + active vetos
 - ◆ Muon veto with plastic scintillators
 - ◆ 20 cm 5%-borated polyethylene
 - ◆ 4 cm boron carbide
 - ◆ Cryogenic outer veto (COV) – HPGe crystals (4 kg)



NEUTRINO 2022
 XXX International Conference on Neutrino Physics and Astrophysics
 May 30 - June 4, 2022
 Virtual Seoul
 3F Majorana, MT16-158
 6F Dirac, DT06-166
 7F Dirac, DT06-738



- ◆ NUCLEUS 10 g 5σ observation of CEvNS in < 1 year

Background contribution Rates in $\text{kg}^{-1} \text{ d}^{-1}$ (<i>Preliminary</i>)	CaWO ₄ array			Al ₂ O ₃ array		
	10-100 eV	100 eV – 1 keV	1 keV – 10 keV	10-100 eV	100 eV – 1 keV	1 keV – 10 keV
Ambient gammas	1.7 ± 0.2	5.3 ± 0.4	≈ 45	3.9 ± 0.4	10.4 ± 0.6	≈ 90
Atmospheric muons	< 1.9	< 1.9	< 1.9	< 2.9	< 2.9	$0.4 - 2.8$
Atmospheric neutrons (with a factor 5 from VNS building)	≈ 7	≈ 23	≈ 64	≈ 1.5	≈ 15	≈ 44
Total	≈ 10	≈ 30	≈ 110	≈ 6	≈ 30	≈ 140
CEvNS signal	≈ 30	≈ 9	-	≈ 2	≈ 4	-

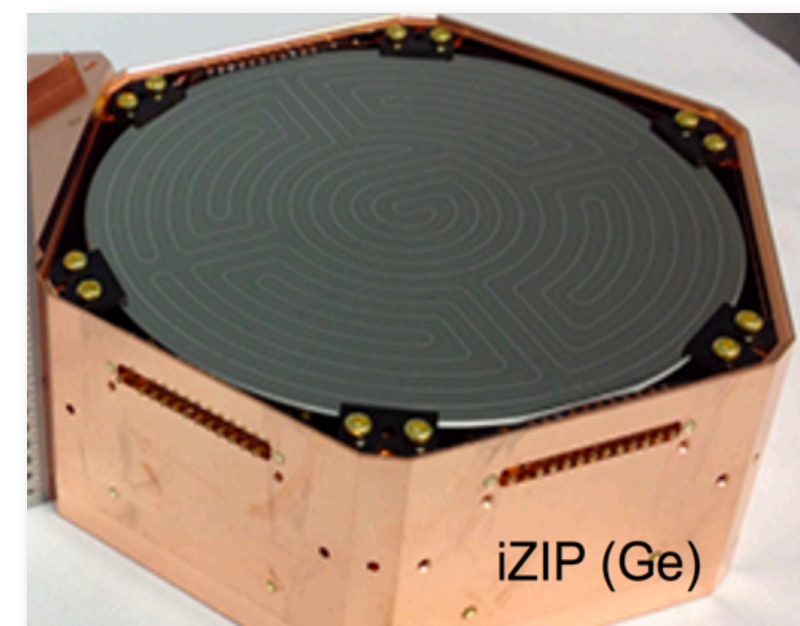
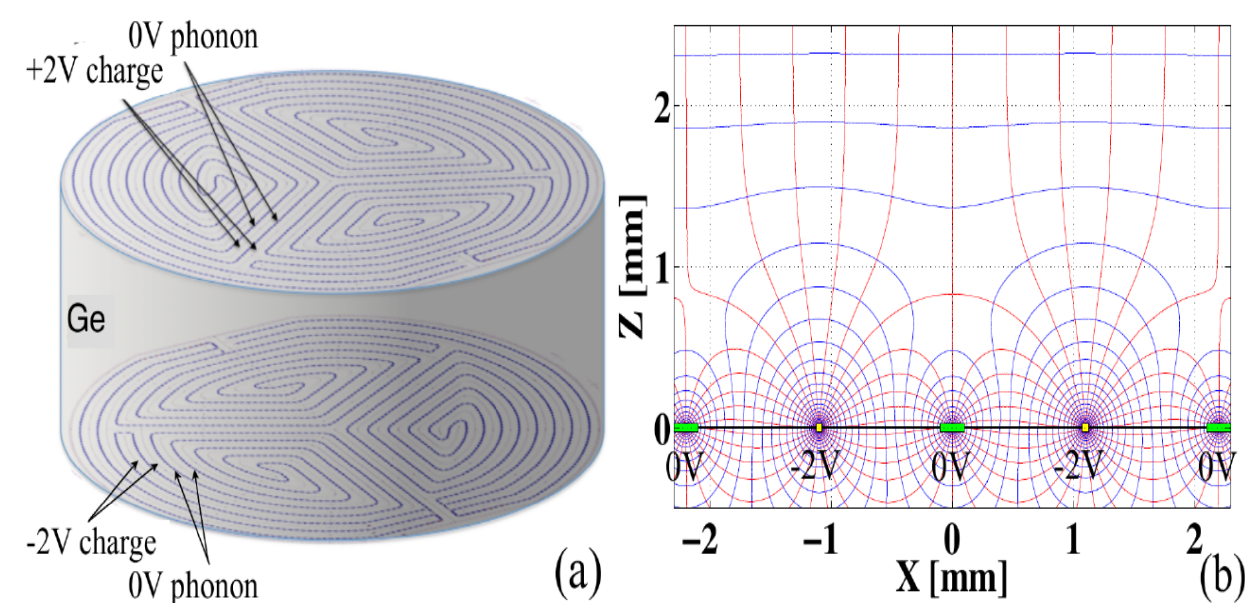
EDELWEISS, SuperCDMS

Phonon + Ionization

- Phonon and charge sensors on the target crystal
- Particle identification via ratio of ionization to primary phonon
- Surface events identified thanks to ID electrodes

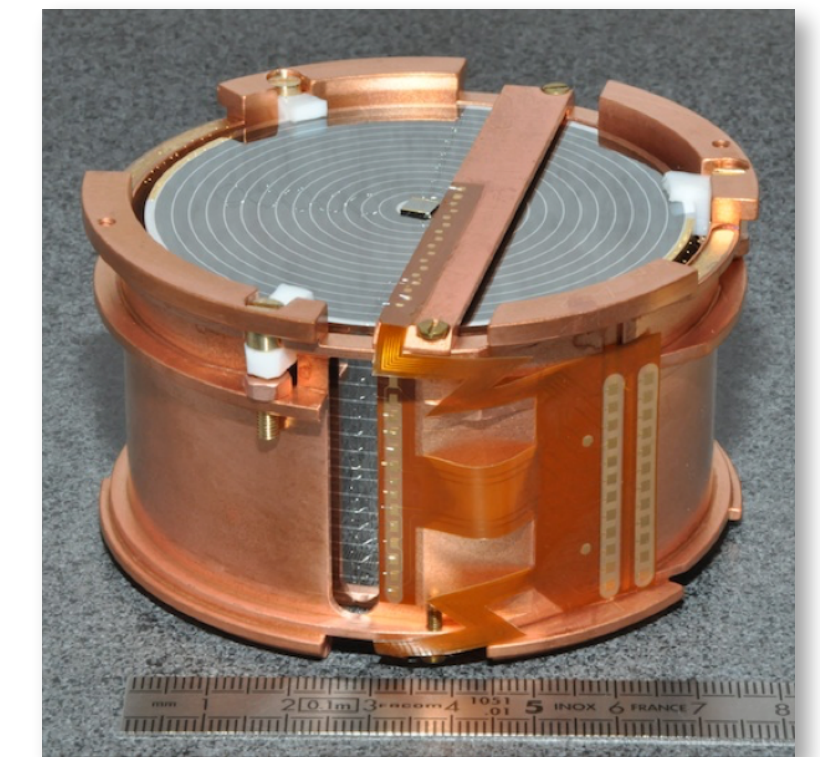
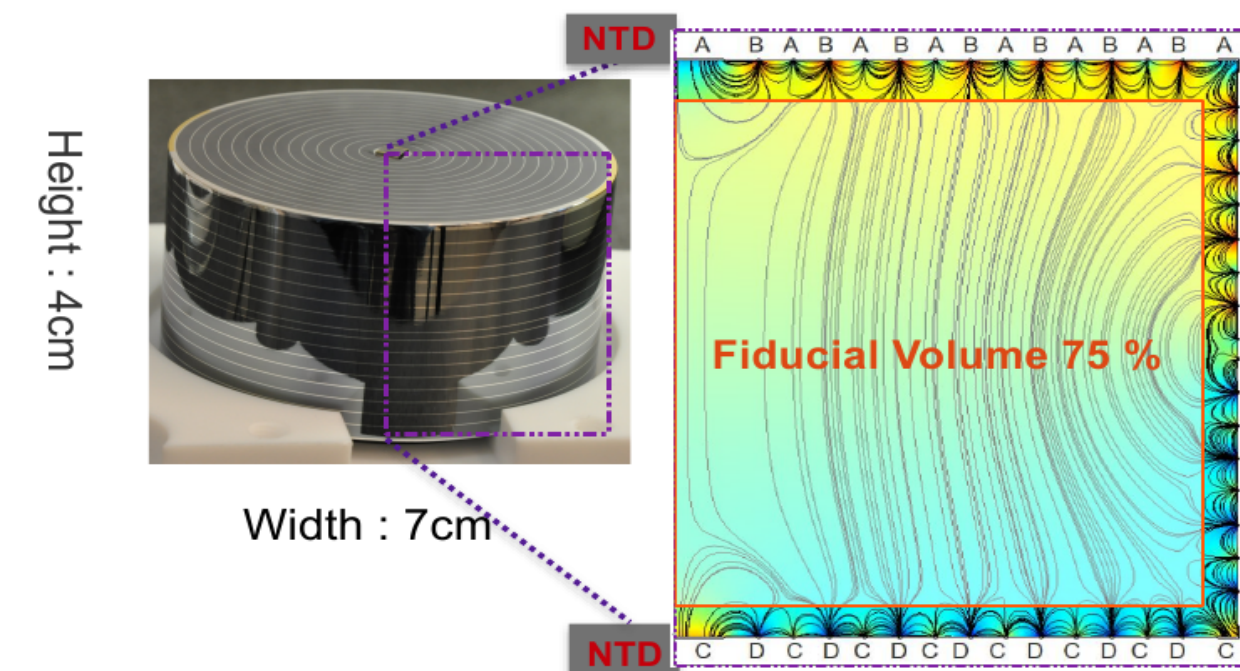
SuperCDMS interleaved Z-sensitive Ionization Phonon (iZIP) detector

- 15 x 600g detectors
- 2 charge + 2 charge
- 4 + 4 TES – fast phonon channel



EDELWEISS FID800

- 36 x 800 g detectors
- 2 charge + 2 charge
- 2 NTD – simple phonon channel



RES-NOVA

Supernova neutrino detection with archeo-Pb based cryo detectors

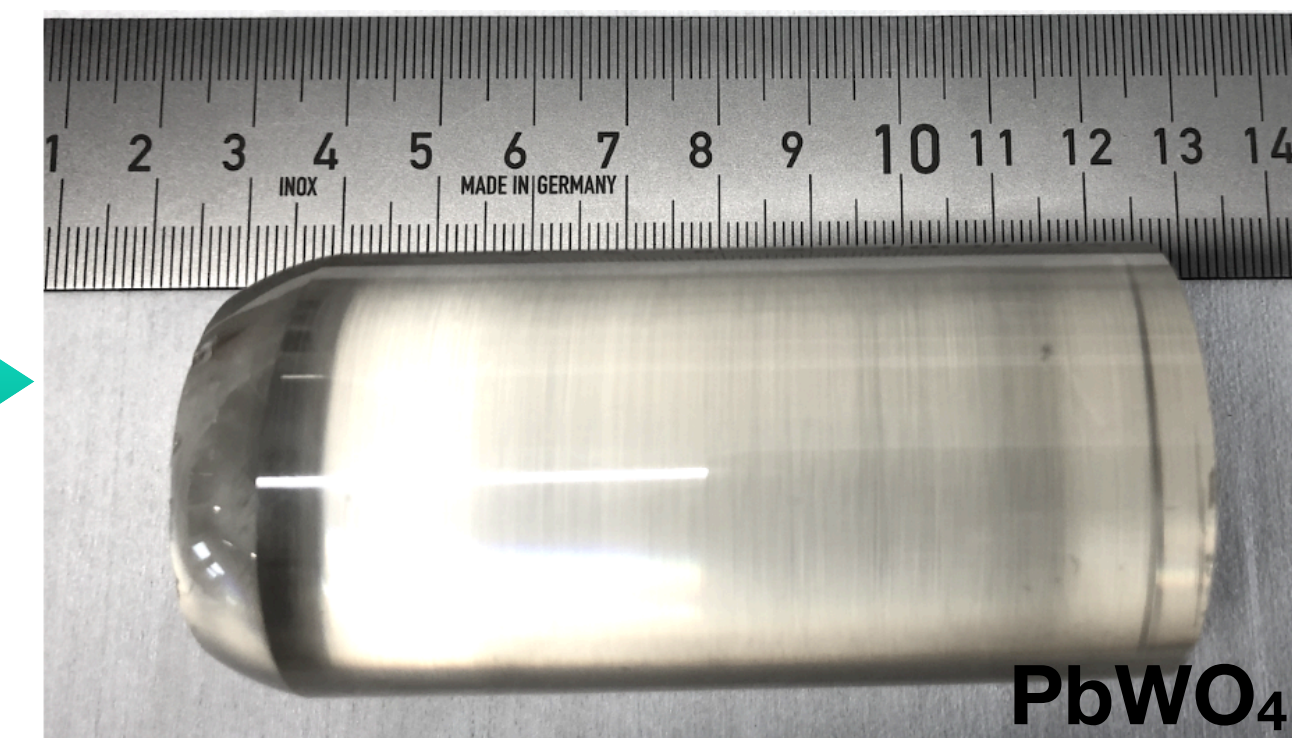
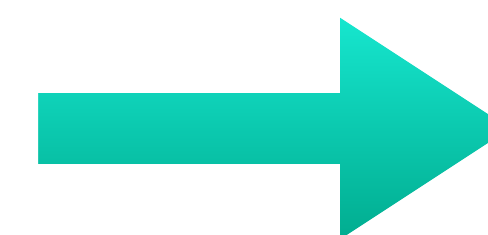
Coherent Elastic neutrino-Nucleus Scattering

$$\bar{\nu}_x/\nu_x + A \rightarrow \bar{\nu}_x/\nu_x + A$$

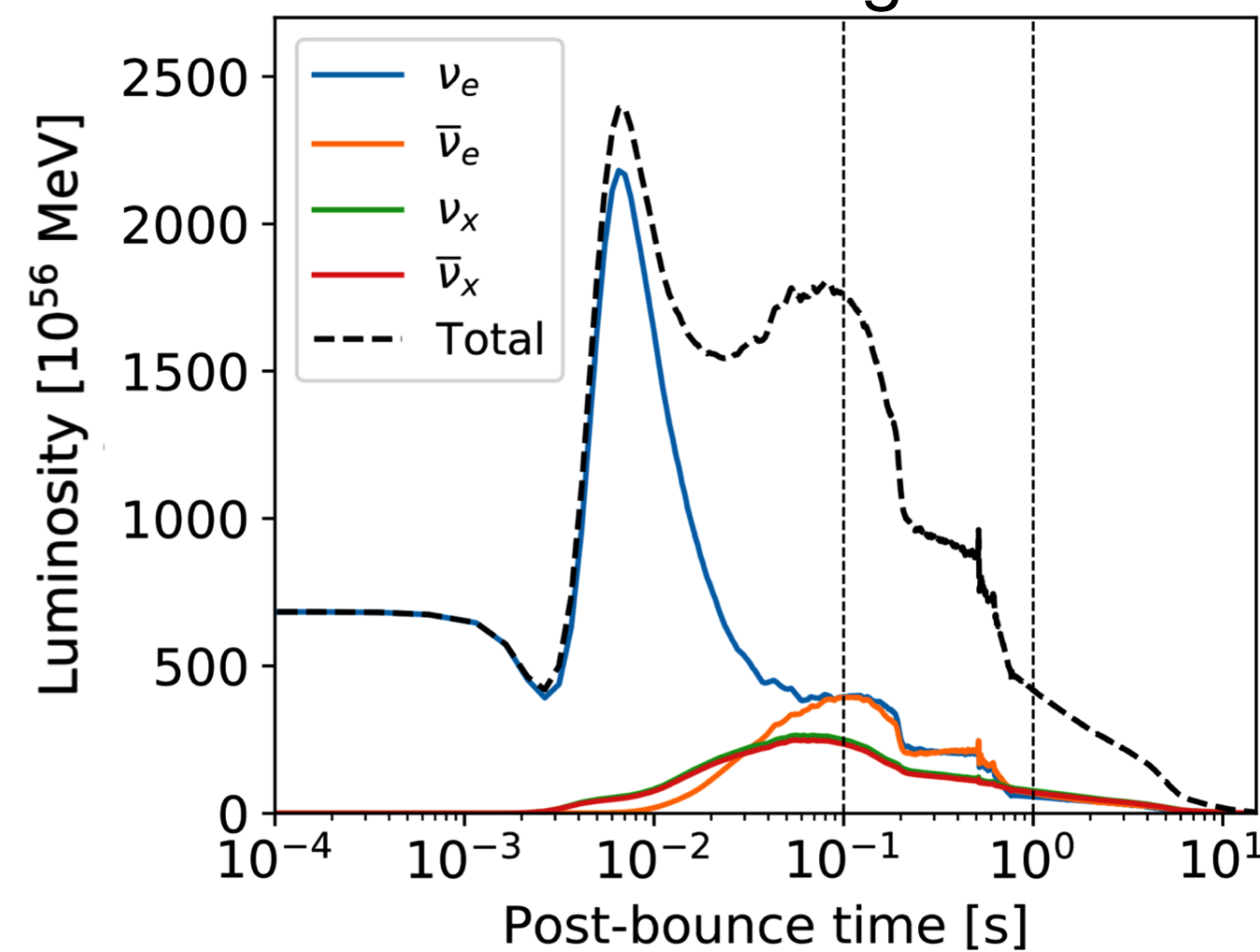
$$\sigma_{CE\nu NS} \sim N^2 \cdot E_\nu^2$$

Neutron number of target material

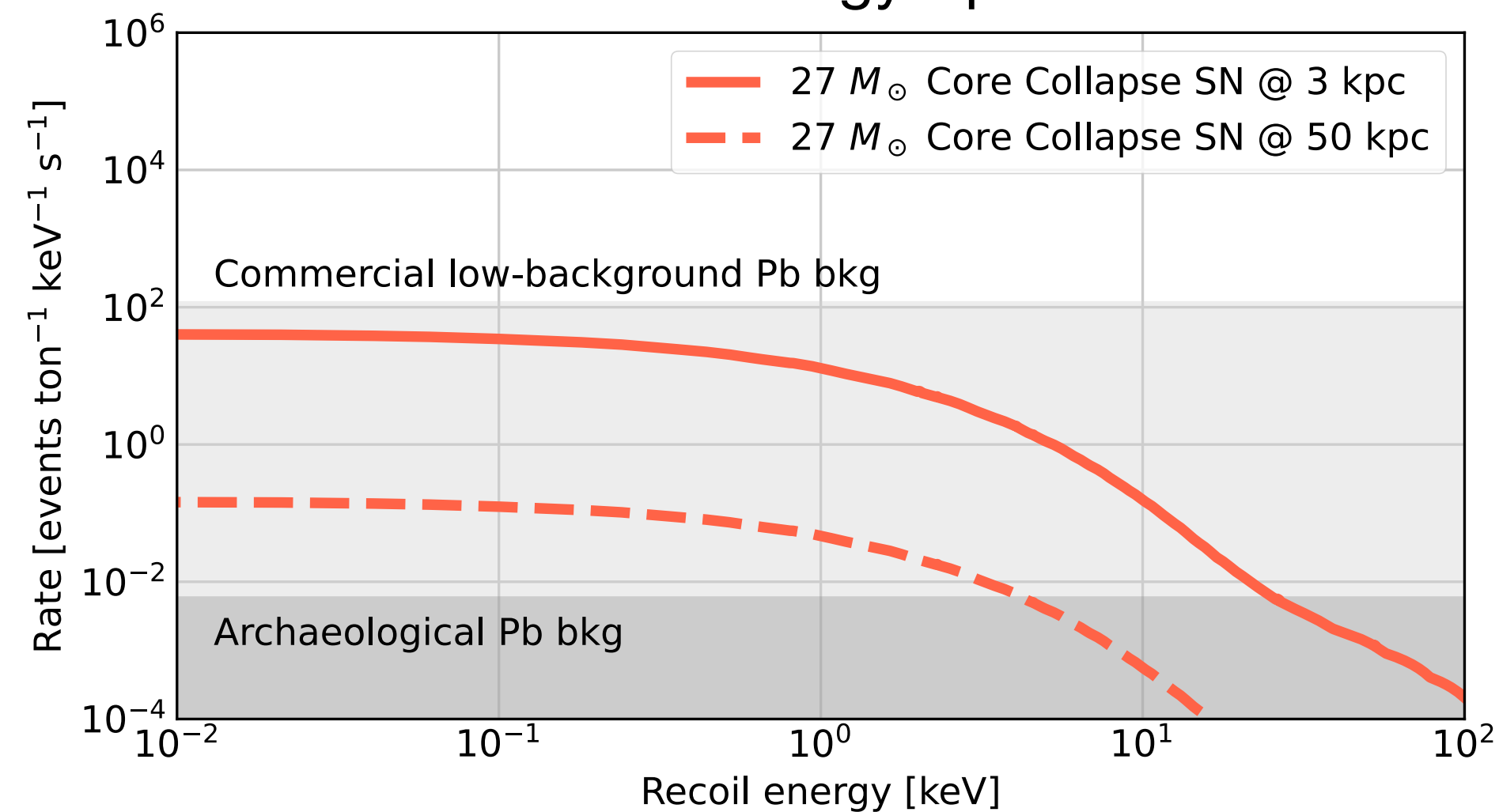
Energy of incoming neutrino



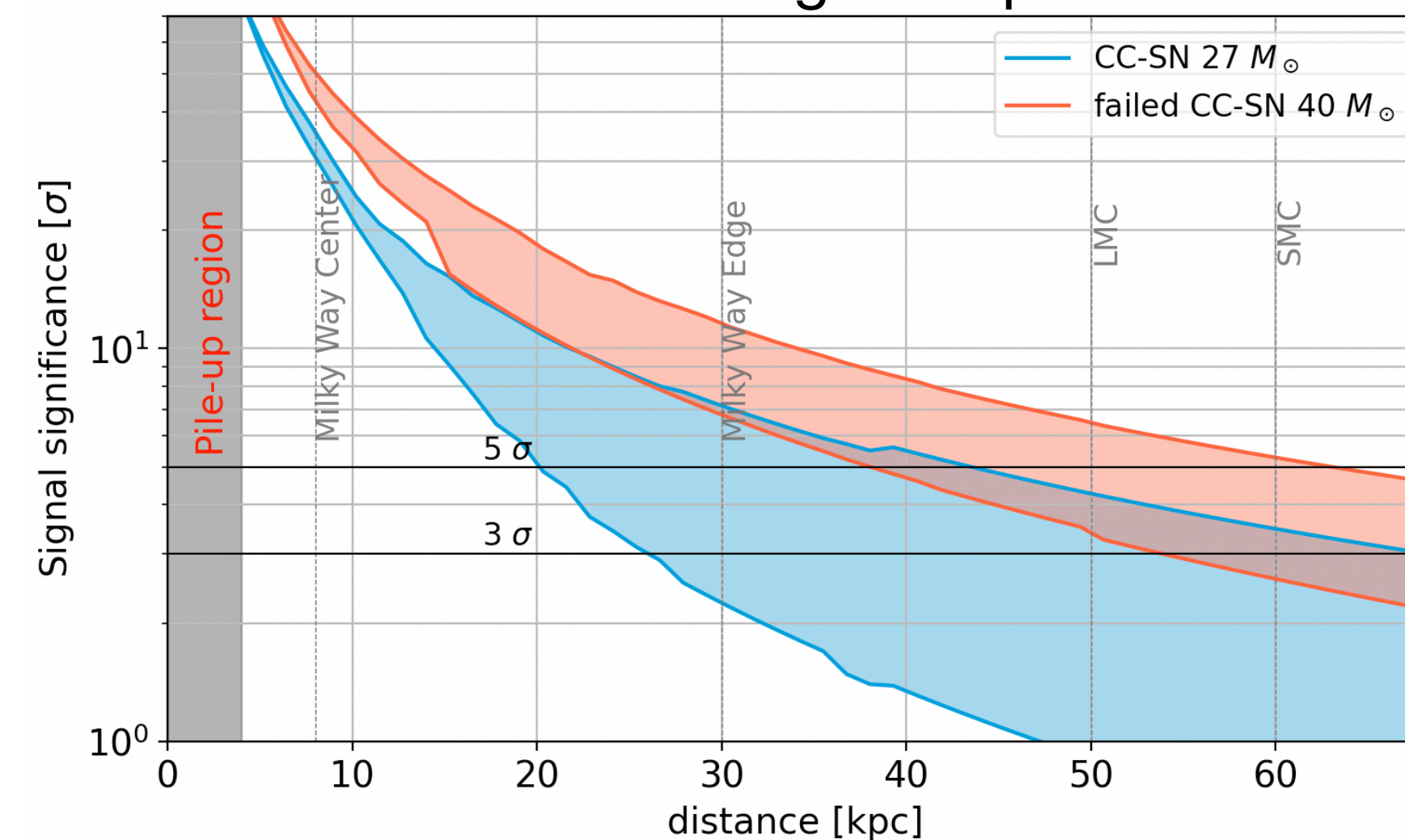
Neutrino signal



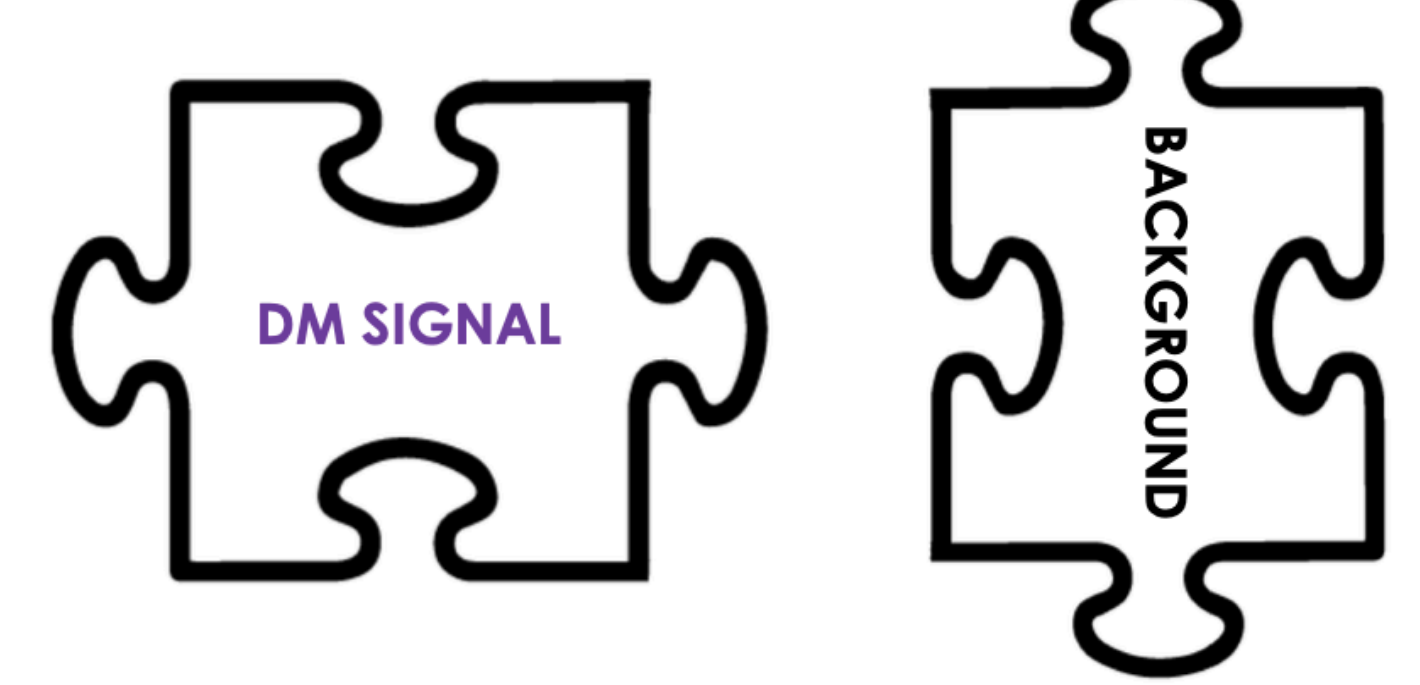
Detector Energy Spectrum



SN neutrino signal exploration



COSINUS project



MATERIAL

Nal (undoped)

SIGNAL(s)

Light and heat
(TES)

LOCATION

LNGS Italy

β/γ -DISCRIMINATION

YES!

THRESHOLD GOAL

1 keV

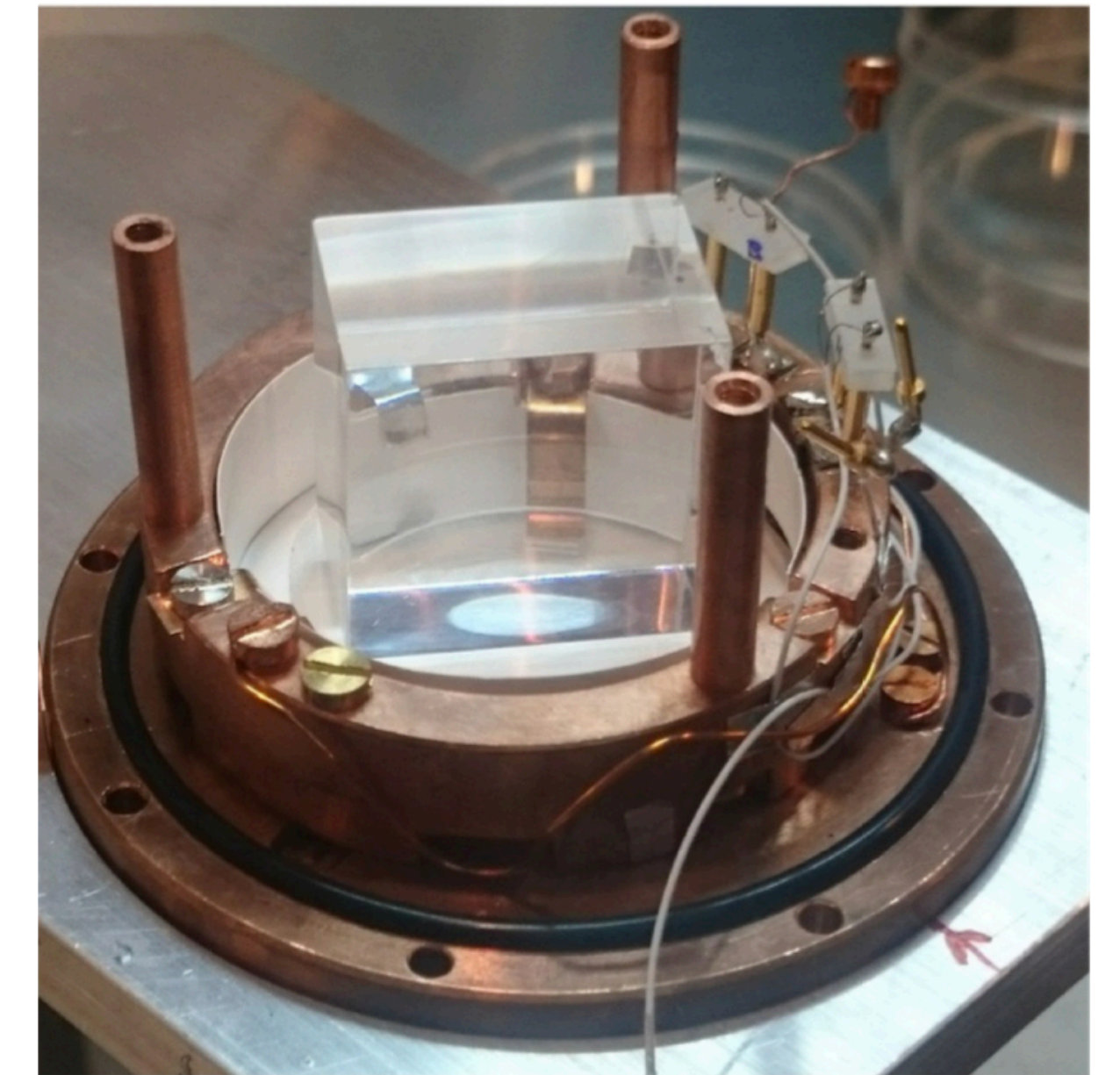
BONUS

Particle
discrimination



www.cosinus.it

[Eur. Phys. J. C \(2016\) 76:441](#)



01.07.21

SOUP - K. Schaeffner ChristianImages123.com

45

And many others...