## 192.168.l.l Sfr Box

Focke-Wulf Fw 190

Naval Air Test Center by the U.S. Navy during the war years. Yugoslavia SFR Yugoslav Air Force – Postwar, one aircraft. Data from Fw 190 A8,[citation

The Focke-Wulf Fw 190, nicknamed Würger (Shrike) is a German single-seat, single-engine fighter aircraft designed by Kurt Tank at Focke-Wulf in the late 1930s and widely used during World War II. Along with its well-known counterpart, the Messerschmitt Bf 109, the Fw 190 became the backbone of the Jagdwaffe (Fighter Force) of the Luftwaffe. The twin-row BMW 801 radial engine that powered most operational versions enabled the Fw 190 to lift larger loads than the Bf 109, allowing its use as a day fighter, fighter-bomber, ground-attack aircraft and to a lesser degree, night fighter.

The Fw 190A started flying operationally over France in August 1941 and quickly proved superior in all but turn radius to the Spitfire Mk. V, the main front-line fighter of the Royal Air Force (RAF), particularly at low and medium altitudes. The 190 maintained its superiority over Allied fighters until the introduction of the improved Spitfire Mk. IX. In November/December 1942, the Fw 190 made its air combat debut on the Eastern Front, finding much success in fighter wings and specialised ground attack units (Schlachtgeschwader – Battle Wings or Strike Wings) from October 1943.

The Fw 190A series' performance decreased at high altitudes (usually 6,000 m [20,000 ft] and above), which reduced its effectiveness as a high-altitude interceptor. From the Fw 190's inception, there had been ongoing efforts to address this with a turbosupercharged BMW 801 in the B model, the much longer-nosed C model with efforts to also turbocharge its chosen Daimler-Benz DB 603 inverted V12 powerplant, and the similarly long-nosed D model with the Junkers Jumo 213. Problems with the turbocharger installations on the -B and -C subtypes meant only the D model entered service in September 1944. These high-altitude developments eventually led to the Focke-Wulf Ta 152, which was capable of extreme speeds at medium to high altitudes (755 km/h [408 kn; 469 mph] at 13,500 m [44,300 ft]). While these "long nose" 190 variants and the Ta 152 derivative especially gave the Germans parity with Allied opponents, they arrived too late to affect the outcome of the war.

The Fw 190 was well-liked by its pilots. Some of the Luftwaffe's most successful fighter aces claimed many of their kills while flying it, including Otto Kittel, Walter Nowotny and Erich Rudorffer. The Fw 190 had greater firepower than the Bf 109 and, at low to medium altitude, superior manoeuvrability, in the opinion of German pilots who flew both fighters. It was regarded as one of the best fighter planes of World War II.

## Messerschmitt Bf 109

landings. Yugoslavia Royal Yugoslav Air Force operated 73 E-3a variants. SFR Yugoslav Air Force operated several ex-NDH and Bulgarian Bf 109Gs. Data from

The Messerschmitt Bf 109 is a monoplane fighter aircraft that was designed and initially produced by the German aircraft manufacturer Bayerische Flugzeugwerke (BFW). Together with the Focke-Wulf Fw 190, the Bf 109 formed the backbone of the Luftwaffe's fighter force during the Second World War. It was commonly called the Me 109 by Allied aircrew and some German aces/pilots, even though this was not the official model designation.

The Bf 109 was designed by Willy Messerschmitt and Robert Lusser, who worked at BFW during the early to mid-1930s. It was conceived as an interceptor. However, later models were developed to fulfill multiple tasks, serving as bomber escort, fighter-bomber, day-, night-, all-weather fighter, ground-attack aircraft, and

aerial reconnaissance aircraft. It was one of the most advanced fighters when the fighter first appeared, being furnished with an all-metal monocoque construction, a closed canopy, retractable landing gear, and powered by a liquid-cooled, inverted-V12 aero engine. First flown on 29 May 1935, the Bf 109 entered operational service during 1937; it first saw combat during the Spanish Civil War.

During the Second World War, the Bf 109 was supplied to several states and was present in quantity on virtually every front in the European theatre; the fighter was still in service at the end of the conflict in 1945. It continued to be operated by several countries for many years after the conflict. The Bf 109 is the most produced fighter aircraft in history, a total of 34,248 airframes having been produced between 1936 and April 1945. Some of the Bf 109 production took place in Nazi concentration camps through slave labor.

The Bf 109 was flown by the three top-scoring fighter aces of all time, who claimed 928 victories among them while flying with Jagdgeschwader 52, mainly on the Eastern Front. The highest-scoring, Erich Hartmann, was credited with 352 victories. The aircraft was also flown by Hans-Joachim Marseille, the highest-scoring ace in the North African campaign, who shot down 158 enemy aircraft (in about a third of the time). It was also flown by many aces from other countries fighting with Germany, notably the Finn Ilmari Juutilainen, the highest-scoring non-German ace. He scored 58 of his 94 confirmed victories with the Bf 109. Pilots from Hungary, Romania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Slovakia and Italy also flew the fighter. Through constant development, the Bf 109 remained competitive with the latest Allied fighter aircraft until the end of the war.

## United States Declaration of Independence

Benjamin Franklin, ed. Albert Henry Smyth (New York: 1970), 6:432. Gulf, C. & SFR Co. v. Ellis, 165 US 150 Archived May 23, 2020, at the Wayback Machine (1897):

The Declaration of Independence, formally The unanimous Declaration of the thirteen united States of America in the original printing, is the founding document of the United States. On July 4, 1776, it was adopted unanimously by the Second Continental Congress, who were convened at Pennsylvania State House, later renamed Independence Hall, in the colonial city of Philadelphia. These delegates became known as the nation's Founding Fathers. The Declaration explains why the Thirteen Colonies regarded themselves as independent sovereign states no longer subject to British colonial rule, and has become one of the most circulated, reprinted, and influential documents in history.

The American Revolutionary War commenced in April 1775 with the Battles of Lexington and Concord. Amid the growing tensions, the colonies reconvened the Congress on May 10. Their king, George III, proclaimed them to be in rebellion on August 23. On June 11, 1776, Congress appointed the Committee of Five (John Adams, Benjamin Franklin, Thomas Jefferson, Robert R. Livingston, and Roger Sherman) to draft and present the Declaration. Adams, a leading proponent of independence, persuaded the committee to charge Jefferson with writing the document's original draft, which the Congress then edited. Jefferson largely wrote the Declaration between June 11 and June 28, 1776. The Declaration was a formal explanation of why the Continental Congress voted to declare American independence from the Kingdom of Great Britain. Two days prior to the Declaration's adoption, Congress passed the Lee Resolution, which resolved that the British no longer had governing authority over the Thirteen Colonies. The Declaration justified the independence of the colonies, citing 27 colonial grievances against the king and asserting certain natural and legal rights, including a right of revolution.

The Declaration was unanimously ratified on July 4 by the Second Continental Congress, whose delegates represented each of the Thirteen Colonies. In ratifying and signing it, the delegates knew they were committing an act of high treason against The Crown, which was punishable by torture and death. Congress then issued the Declaration of Independence in several forms. Two days following its ratification, on July 6, it was published by The Pennsylvania Evening Post. The first public readings of the Declaration occurred simultaneously on July 8, 1776, at noon, at three previously designated locations: in Trenton, New Jersey; Easton, Pennsylvania; and Philadelphia.

The Declaration was published in several forms. The printed Dunlap broadside was widely distributed following its signing. It is now preserved at the Library of Congress in Washington, D.C. The signed copy of the Declaration is now on display at the National Archives in Washington, D.C., and is generally considered the official document; this copy, engrossed by Timothy Matlack, was ordered by Congress on July 19, and signed primarily on August 2, 1776.

The Declaration has proven an influential and globally impactful statement on human rights. The Declaration was viewed by Abraham Lincoln as the moral standard to which the United States should strive, and he considered it a statement of principles through which the Constitution should be interpreted. In 1863, Lincoln made the Declaration the centerpiece of his Gettysburg Address, widely considered among the most famous speeches in American history. The Declaration's second sentence, "We hold these truths to be self-evident, that all men are created equal, that they are endowed by their Creator with certain unalienable Rights, that among these are Life, Liberty and the pursuit of Happiness", is considered one of the most significant and famed lines in world history. Pulitzer Prize-winning historian Joseph Ellis has written that the Declaration contains "the most potent and consequential words in American history."

List of weapons of the Portuguese Colonial War

East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, the Socialist Republic of Romania, SFR Yugoslavia, the People's Republic of Bulgaria, Sweden, North Korea, the People's

The Portuguese Colonial War (Portuguese: Guerra Colonial), also referred to as the Portuguese Overseas War or Overseas War (Portuguese: Guerra do Ultramar) for short, was a military conflict staged during the Decolonisation of Africa that pitted the guerrilla forces of the African nationalist Liberation movements of the Guinea-Bissau, Angola and Mozambique overseas provinces, which were part of the Portuguese Empire, against the colonial armed and security forces loyal to the authoritarian Estado Novo regime of Portugal, between 1961 and 1975. Main combatants comprised:

The Portuguese Armed Forces (Portuguese: Forças Armadas), which were backed by the United States, United Kingdom, West Germany, France, Francoist Spain, Belgium, Rhodesia and South Africa, were the official military of Portugal. Subordinated to the Ministry of National Defence and placed under the command of the Secretariat-General of National Defence (Portuguese: Secretariado-Geral da Defesa Nacional – SGDN), of the Portuguese government at the capital Lisbon, the branches were organized as follows:

The Portuguese Army (Portuguese: Exército Português)

The Portuguese Air Force (Portuguese: Força Aérea Portuguesa), or FAP in the Portuguese acronym but internationally is often referred to by the acronym PRTAF.

The Portuguese Navy (Portuguese: Marinha Portuguesa), also known as Marinha de Guerra Portuguesa or as Armada Portuguesa.

The Portuguese Security Forces, subordinated to the Overseas Ministry (Portuguese: Ministério do Ultramar) in Lisbon:

The Public Security Police (Portuguese: Polícia de Segurança Pública – PSP), the uniformed Preventive police (actually, a Colonial police force) of the Portuguese overseas territories, which was modelled after the European Portuguese PSP, the national civil police force of Portugal.

The irregular Auxiliary Forces (Portuguese: Forças Auxiliares).

The African nationalist Liberation movements:

The African Party for the Independence of Guinea and Cape Verde (Portuguese: Partido Africano para a Independência da Guiné e Cabo Verde – PAIGC) party (1956–present), and its military wing the Revolutionary Armed Forces of the People (Portuguese: Forças Armadas Revolucionárias do Povo – FARP), which received support from the Soviet Union, East Germany, Poland, Czechoslovakia, the Socialist Republic of Romania, SFR Yugoslavia, the People's Republic of Bulgaria, Sweden, North Korea, the People's Republic of China, Cuba, Libya, Ghana, Senegal, and Guinea-Conacry.

The People's Movement for the Liberation of Angola (Portuguese: Movimento Popular de Libertação de Angola – MPLA) party (1956–present), and its military wing the People's Army for the Liberation of Angola (Portuguese: Exército Popular de Libertação de Angola – EPLA), which received support from the Soviet Union, East Germany, Cuba, Morocco, Algeria, Republic of the Congo, Ghana, Guinea-Conacry, Tanzania, and Zambia.

The National Front for the Liberation of Angola (Portuguese: Frente Nacional de Libertação de Angola – FNLA) party (1961–present), and its military wing the National Army for the Liberation of Angola (Portuguese: Exército de Libertação Nacional de Angola – ELNA), which received support from the United States, the People's Republic of China, West Germany, Israel, France, the Socialist Republic of Romania, Morocco, Algeria, Tunisia, Ghana, Zaire, and Liberia.

The National Union for the Total Independence of Angola (Portuguese: União Nacional para a Independência Total de Angola – UNITA) party (1966–present), and its military wing the Armed Forces of the Liberation of Angola (Portuguese: Forças Armadas de Libertação de Angola – FALA), which received support from the People's Republic of Bulgaria, the People's Republic of China, Egypt, and Zambia.

The Front for the Liberation of the Enclave of Cabinda (Portuguese: Frente para a Libertação do Enclave de Cabinda – FLEC) party (1963–present), which received support from the United States, France, Zaire, and South Africa.

The Liberation Front of Mozambique (Portuguese: Frente de Libertação de Moçambique – FRELIMO) party (1962–present), and its military wing the Popular Forces for the Liberation of Mozambique (Portuguese: Forças Populares de Libertação de Moçambique – FPLM), which received support from the Soviet Union, East Germany, the People's Republic of Bulgaria, Czechoslovakia, Poland, SFR Yugoslavia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, the Netherlands, Cuba, the People's Republic of China, Algeria, Libya, Egypt, Republic of the Congo, Tanzania, and Zambia.

An eclectic variety of weapons was used by all sides in the Portuguese Colonial War. The Portuguese Military and Security Forces serving in the African territories were equipped with Western-made weapon systems from both World War I and World War II, mainly Portuguese, Austro-Hungarian, Danish, German, Italian, French, Canadian and British in origin, but also included more modern Portuguese, Spanish, French, British, Belgian, Dutch, West German, American and South African military hardware. During the early phase of the war, the African Liberation Movements likewise were largely equipped with WWII-vintage Western arms and munitions, though as the war went on, Soviet, Eastern Bloc and Chinese weaponry began to play a major role, particularly after 1970.

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