

Nº 6
1st draft

INTRODUCTION TO CRYPTOLOGY-VI

Confidential

REF ID: A62831
INTRODUCTION TO CRYPTOLOGY - VI

By William F. Friedman

This lecture, the sixth and last in this series, deals with cryptology in the period from the end of World War I to the end of World War II (Unclassified material only). The emphasis in this lecture is upon communications security (COMSEC) ^{not only} because most of the information given in the five preceding lectures ^{placed very} the emphasis was largely upon communications intelligence (COMINT) but also because COMSEC, ^{although not as spectacular as COMINT,} in the final analysis, is really more vital ^{to national security} than COMINT.

Treat
attacked → ✕ ✕ ✕ ✕ ✕

You will perhaps recall that in the very first lecture in this series reference was made to the role that COMINT (or "Magic") played ^{not only} in the events preceding the Japanese sneak attack on Pearl Harbor but in the military, and naval, and air operations which followed that attack. This is not the place nor is there time to go into the complex problems involved in an attempt to fix responsibility and ^{accept the blame of the persons and} the blame for being caught by surprise. ~~then whatever happened they were~~

Millions of words have been published on this subject and I do not propose to add to that voluminous literature whatever thoughts I may have thereon.

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~~INSERT Type this on paper, legal size, one carbon, original, triple-spaced. Number 1(a), 2(a), 3(a) etc. on this set of pages.~~

[New introduction for Lecture N6]

(2)

This, the sixth and final lecture in this series on the history of cryptology will be devoted to a presentation of events and developments of significance or importance in that history from the end of World War I to the end of World War II.

It would be entirely too ambitious a project even to attempt to compress all that should or could be told in that segment of our history of cryptology. In a nutshell, however, it can be said that the most significant and important events and developments during that quarter of a century were directly concerned or connected with the advances made in the production of more complex mechanical, electrical and electronic cryptographic apparatus, and with the concomitant advances in the production of more sophisticated mechanically, electrical and electronic apparatus for the solution of the messages produced by these increasingly complex cryptographic machines. These two phases are inter-related because, to use a sort of simple analogy, cryptography and cryptanalysis represent the two faces of a single coin.

It would be nice if I could go on

bit into detail in regard to these increasingly complex matters but security considerations prevent my doing so because the classification of these lectures, viz., CONFIDENTIAL, is the lowest one now possible. As to the advances in the development and use of more sophisticated cryptographic apparatus I will only note at this point a comment which General Omar Bradley makes in his quiet but very interesting book entitled A Soldier's Story.¹

[↓] Student & Single Space | Signal Corps officers like to remind us that "although Congress can make a general, it takes communications to make him a commander."

It is immodest for me to try to amend General Bradley's remark but this is how I wish he had worded it:

Signal Corps officers like to remind us that "although Congress can make a general, it takes rapid and secure communications to make him a good commander".

This will in fact be the keynote of this lecture. In other words, communications security, or COMSEC, will be its main theme and the one I wish to emphasize.

¹ New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1951, p. 474.

But before coming to that part of our history perhaps a bit more attention must be devoted to events and developments of cryptanalytic significance or importance during the period 1918 to 1946. By far the most spectacular and interesting of these are the ones which were so fully and disseverely disclosed by the various investigations conducted by the Army and Navy very secretly while World War II was still in progress and both secretly and openly after the close of hostilities. The investigations were intended to ascertain why our Army and Navy forces in Hawaii were caught by surprise by the sneak attack on Pearl Harbor by the Japanese on the morning of 7 December 1941. They were also intended to pin the blame on whoever was responsible for the debacle. I don't think I should even attempt to give you my personal opinion on these complex questions, which were studied by seven different boards within the Services and finally by the Joint Congressional Committee on the investigation of the Pearl Harbor Attack. I mentioned the latter investigation in my first lecture and now I must add to what I then said. The Committee published its findings

conclusions and recommendations in 1946. It began its work in September 1945 with secret hearings but on 70 days subsequent to 15 November 1945 up to and including 31 May 1946 open hearings were conducted in the course of which some 15,000 pages of testimony were taken and a total of 183 exhibits received incident to an examination of 43 witnesses. The Committee put out a final Report of 580 pages to accompany a set of 39 volumes of testimony and exhibits. In the Report there was one by the Majority (signed by six Democratic members and two Republican members) and one by the Minority (signed by two Republican members). The Minority Report was not nearly as long as that of the Majority but it brought into focus certain troublesome points which still form the subject of acrimonious discussions and writings who believe the attack was "engineered" by President Roosevelt.

For this history the interesting fact is that both the Majority and Minority Reports contain glowing tributes to the role played by COMINT before and during our participation in World War II. In my first lecture I presented a brief extract in this regard taken from the Majori-

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Report,² but here is what the Minority Report says on the subject:³

6. Through the Army and Navy intelligence services extensive information was secured respecting Japanese war plans and designs, by intercepting and decoding Japanese secret messages, which indicated the growing danger of war and increasingly after November 26 the imminence of a Japanese attack.

With extraordinary skill, zeal, and watchfulness the intelligence services of the Army Signal Corps and Navy Office of Naval Communications broke Japanese codes and intercepted messages between the Japanese Government and its spies and agents and ambassadors in all parts of the world and supplied the high authorities in Washington reliable secret information respecting Japanese designs, decisions, and operations at home, in the United States, and in other countries.

Although there were delays in the translations of many intercepts, the intelligence services had furnished to those highly authorized a large number of Japanese messages which clearly indicated the growing desire of the Japanese Government for war before December 7, 1941.

2 P.5 of NSA Technical Journal (Vol. + date), quoting from p. 232 of the Report of the Majority.

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The Majority Report made five main recommendations, of which the second is of special interest:

That there be a complete integration of Army and Navy intelligence agencies in order to avoid the pitfalls of divided responsibility which experience has made so abundantly apparent; that upon effecting a unified intelligence, officers be selected for intelligence work who possess the background, penchant, and capacity for such work, and that they be maintained in the work for an extended period of time in order that they may become steeped in the ramifications and refinements of their field and employ this reservoir of knowledge in evaluating material received. The assignment of an officer having an aptitude for such work should not impede his progress nor affect his promotions. Efficient intelligence services are just as essential in time of peace as in war, and this branch of our armed services must always be accorded the important role which it deserves.

¶ P. 253 of Report of the Majority.

I assume that due note of this has been taken by the services but how far it has been possible and practicable to insure that the recommendation has been carried out one will be as I do not know. In this connection I think it might be of interest to cite what the distinguished commander whom I have already mentioned, General Omar Bradley, has to say on this point:

In their intelligence activities at Allied Forces Headquarters, the British easily outstripped their American colleagues. The tedious years of prewar studies the British had devoted to areas throughout the world gave them a vast advantage which we never overcame. The American army's long neglect of intelligence training was soon reflected by the ineptness of our initial undertakings. For too many years in the preparation of officers for command assignments, we had overlooked the need for specialization in such activities as intelligence. It is unrealistic to assume that every officer has the capacity and the inclination for field command. Many are uniquely qualified for staff-intelligence duties and indeed would prefer to devote their careers to those tasks. Yet instead of grooming qualified officers for intelligence assignments,

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} we rotated them through conventional duty tours, making correspondingly little use of their special talents. Misfits frequently found themselves assigned to intelligence duties. And in some stations G-2 became a dumping ground for officers ill suited to live command. I recall how scrupulously I avoided the branding that came with an intelligence assignment in my own career. Had it not been for the uniquely qualified reservists who so capably filled so many of our intelligence jobs throughout the war, the army would have found itself badly pressed for competent intelligence personnel.

Have some of you pondered over the reason why an officer who reaches the highest level of command in the army, ours as well as in foreign armies, is called a "general officer" or "General"? It is because he is supposed to have learned something about everything connected with military operations — he is not a specialist. But how much can a general officer know about complexities of such very important areas of ^{the} military science?

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and operations such as are involved in modern engineering, electrical communications, guided missiles, rockets, etc., etc.? How much can be learned without first-hand experience in the tricky business of ordinary military intelligence operations let alone the much more complicated business of cryptology as applied in modern military operations?

But let us leave these speculations, interesting as they may be, and continue with our history. Let us first dispose of ^{certain comments in the} COMINT area of that history.

However, there is one small but extremely significant piece of information involved in this matter and I will say a few words about it.

You will recall that in the ~~very~~ first lecture I called to your attention an article which appeared in the 17 December 1945 issue of TIME magazine and which was based upon a letter ^{of the late} General George C. Marshall, then Chief of Staff of the U.S. Army, from ~~to~~ ^{to} Governor Thomas E. Dewey, Republican candidate for President in the 1944 election campaign. In that letter, General Marshall practically begged Governor Dewey to say nothing during the campaign

^{which was written on 27 Sept 1945}
about a certain ^{very vital} piece of information which General Marshall had reason to believe had been known to ^{become} Governor Dewey by persons not authorized to disclose it. The information dealt with the fact that the U.S. had ^{been} reading Japanese codes and ciphers even before the attack on Pearl Harbor. The vital point which General Marshall wanted to convey to Governor Dewey was that not only was ~~that~~ piece ^{the} information which had surreptitiously ~~been~~ been given to Governor Dewey true

but more important were the facts that (1) the war was still in progress; (2) the Japanese were still using certain of the pre-Pearl Harbor cryptosystems, and (3) the U.S. was still reading ^{the secret communications in} these systems as well as certain other enemy communications. Therefore, it was vital that General Dewey not use the information which had come into his possession as to our reading ^{secret} Japanese communications prior to the attack on Pearl Harbor. I said in that first lecture that I might later give further extracts from TIME's account and, here ~~they are~~, continuing the extracts printed on pages 3, 4, and 5 of the first lecture, here they are:

[Copy material
marked on accompanying photos in red]

The Marshall-Dewey correspondence is so important in cryptologic history that I feel that the whole of it should be included ^{even} in this brief history. When the letter was written it was,

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but more importantly, the war was still in progress,
 the Japanese were still fighting, members of the Joint Chiefs of Staff
 (and Admiral S. W. J. Lovett) passed on all intercepts
 other enemy communications. Therefore, it was unlikely
 that Governor Dewey ~~not~~ use the information which
 had come into his possession to overheard Japanese
 communications prior to the attack on Pearl Harbor.
 The letter is so important in cryptologic history
 that I feel the whole of it should be brought
 to your attention. When it was written, it was
 of course, TOP SECRET and it was only under
 great pressure by certain members of the Joint
 Congressional Committee on the Investigation of
 the Attack on Pearl Harbor, ^{that General Marshall} revealed the contents
 of the letter. Thus the letter came into the public
 domain when the ^{40 volumes of the} Hearings of that Committee were
 published, by authority of the Committee, ^{and} put on
 sale by the Superintendent of Documents of the
 Government Printing Office. The Marshall-Dewey
 were indeed such a sensation that LIFE magazine
 printed the whole of it in its issue of 17 December
 1945, with the following introduction:
 copy from LIFE - p 19-21

✓ So far as I am aware it has ^{not been accepted if known} ~~more disclosed~~ who gave
 Governor Dewey the information. But it is a fact that ~~General~~
~~Dewey~~ as a patriotic citizen acceded to General Marshall's request ~~overing~~

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whatever
made no use of the ^{initial} secret information during the
campaign, nor after it, so far as I am aware.
TIME's account specifically states that Dewey "held
his tongue. The War Department's most valuable
secret was kept out of the campaign.

~~Except for a change in the first ^{two} and last paragraph this letter is identical with the first letter. The changes~~

~~the Second letter as printed in parentheses and at the end of "LIFE" there appears in italics the following:~~

~~(The second letter then repeated substantially the text of the first letter except for the first two paragraphs.)~~

LIFE failed to note that ^{the last} two sentences in the penultimate paragraph of the "First Letter" were omitted from that paragraph in the "Second letter," but there is no explanation for the omission. Perhaps it was simply for the sake of brevity, but this seems improbable.

~~There is no explanation for the omission:
perhaps it was simply for the sake of brevity.~~

In my first lecture (p. 4 of NSA Technical Journal No. ?, date?) I called attention to the fact that the account given in the TIME article gives credit to the Army cryptanalysts for providing the secret communications "intelligence" which enabled our Navy to win such spectacular battles as those of the Coral Sea and Midway, and to waylay Japanese convoys; whereas the credit

for the communications intelligence which enabled our Navy to win these battles was produced by Navy cryptanalysts. One cannot blame ^{the editor of} TIME for making such a bad error because ^{the source of the error and before which} the letter itself ^{General} served ^{several years} ago I asked ^{had come} my friend Col. Clarke, who in General Marshall's letter to Governor Dewey and who was at the time a high level officer in G-2, who had prepared ^{how such an error had crept into} General Marshall's letter, and he was told that the letter which ^{General Marshall's signature had been} prepared for General Marshall's signature had been not meet with the General's whole-hearted approval and that the General himself had modified it. Perhaps that is how the error to which I have referred crept into the letter. One could hardly expect General Marshall to be entirely familiar with the technical cryptanalytic details involved ^{in what he wanted to tell Governor Dewey;} ^{and keep} ^{not should one organization for not being able to} ^{strength} in his very busy days and under very heavy pressure of events, the differences between the enemy systems worked up by the Army and ~~the~~ Navy cryptanalytic organizations. [Desert over]

Since the disclosures made ^{were made, disclosures which were} Congressional investigation, so far as concerns ~~the~~ the important accomplishments of the two services ^{accomplished} before and after the

Faint

of course
It is, ^{possible,} ~~that~~ it may be probable, that certain
COMINT regarding the Battles of the Coral Sea and
of Midway came from messages read by Army
cryptanalysts, and this is what confused General
Marshall.

Pearl Harbor attack in the field of communications intelligence, much has been written and is now in the public domain regarding those accomplishments; but, ^{fortunately} no technical details of significance have been disclosed. Hints here and there are in abundance in the many books and articles that have been published by U.S. writers since the end of World War II; but more than hints of the great ^{played by} party COMINT was in U.S. military and naval successes are to be found in books and articles published by officers of the beaten Japanese, and German, and Italian armed forces. Time does not permit me citing ^{in his lecture} many of these hints or definite statements, but the following are of particular interest, because they concern the ~~the~~ Battle of Midway, which is considered the one which turned the war in the Pacific from ^{a possible Japanese} victory to one of ignominious defeat:

*indirect speech
purge written
what is written
what over* [see over] It is the work extract ^{above} which is of special interest to us at the moment, and, in particular, the portion which refers to "the negatively bad and ineffective functioning of Japanese intelligence." The Japanese author is a bit too severe on the Japanese intelligence organization. I say

The enemy's intelligence on this occasion was the negatively bad and ineffective functioning of Japanese intelligence.

If Admiral Yamamoto and his staff were vaguely disturbed by the persistent bad weather and by lack of information concerning the doings of the enemy, they would have been truly dismayed had they known the actual enemy situation. Post-war American accounts make it clear that the United States Pacific Fleet knew of the Japanese plan to invade Midway even before our forces had sortied from home waters.

As a result of some amazing achievements by American intelligence, the enemy had succeeded in breaking the principal code then in use by the Japanese Navy. In this way the enemy was able to learn of our intentions almost as quickly as we had determined them ourselves.

The distinguished American naval historian, Professor Samuel E. Morison, characterizes the victory of United States forces at Midway as "a victory of intelligence." In this judgment the author fully concurs, for it is beyond the slightest possibility of doubt that the advance discovery of the Japanese plan to attack was the foremost single and immediate cause of Japan's defeat. Viewed from the Japanese side, this success of the enemy's intelligence translates itself into an

² Midway; the battle that doomed Japan: The Japanese Story by Mitsuo Fuchida and Matasuke Okumiya, 1955, pp. 131 and 232.

this because their cryptanalysts were up against much more sophisticated cryptosystems than they knew or were qualified to solve. In fact, even if they had been extremely adept in cryptanalysis it would have been of no avail — U.S. high-level communications were protected by cryptosystems of very great security.

This brings us to a ^{phase of cryptology} subject which is of highest importance — the phase which deals with communications security, or COMSEC, and I shall confine myself largely to its historical background in the U.S. Armed Forces. The background is a very broad one because it should include the background of the developments of each of the three components of COMSEC: cryptosecurity, transmission security, and physical security of cryptomaterials. But since time is limited and because I think you would be more interested in the phases pertaining to cryptosecurity, I will omit references to the history of the other two components. And even in limiting the data to cryptosecurity I will have opportunity only to give some of the highlights of the development of the items that comprise our cryptomaterials, ^{omitting} ~~leaving out~~ comments on the history of the development and in-

provement of our techniques, procedures and practices, all of which are extremely important.

Coming directly now to the history of the development of our cryptomaterials themselves, I hardly need reiterate what was pointed out in previous lectures as to the profound effect of the ^{advances in the} science and part of ^{the 19th} ~~the 19th~~ ^{and 20th} electrical communications on the ^{the 19th} ~~the 19th~~ ^{and 20th} Century. Those advances had a direct effect upon military communications and an indirect effect upon military cryptology. Hand-operated ciphers and, of course, codebooks became almost obsolete with the need for greater and greater speed of cryptographic operations to match as much as possible the very great increase in the speed of communications brought about by inventions and improvements in electric telegraphy. The need for cryptographic apparatus and machines became quite obvious.

I shall begin the story with a definition which you will find in any good English dictionary, a definition of the word "accident." You will get the point of what may seem to you ^{right now} to be merely another of my frequent digressions from the main theme, but if it be a digression I think you will

nevertheless find it of interest. The word "accident" in Webster's Unabridged Dictionary is defined as follows:

1. Literally, a befalling.
- a. An event that takes place without one's foresight or expectation; an undesigned, sudden, and unexpected event.
- b. Hence, often, an undesigned and unforeseen occurrence of an afflictive or unfortunate character; a mishap resulting in injury to a person or damage to a thing; a casualty; as, to die by an accident.

There are further definitions of the word but what I've given is sufficient for our purposes. But why define the word; what has it to do with COMSEC?

During our participation in World War II the President of the United States, accompanied by many of his highest-level assistants, journeyed several times half-way around the world. He journeyed in safety — he met with no accident.

On the other hand, ^{In April 1943} Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto, Commander-in-Chief of the Japanese Navy started out on what was to be an ordinary inspection trip but it turned out to be a one-way trip intended to be for the Admiral. His death was announced in an official Japanese Navy communiqué stating that the Admiral

had met a glorious ^{REF ID: A2B31} and ~~and in~~ directing operations
in a naval engagement against superior enemy
forces. But we know that this was simply not true;
Admiral Yamamoto "met with an accident." But
some bright person, it was the late Jimmy Walker,
then mayor of New York City, I think, who said
that "accidents don't just happen — they are
brought about." No; Admiral Yamamoto did not
die simply by accident: he died because our Navy
~~just didn't~~ the schedule of his trip down to the
last detail so that it was possible to set up an
ambush with high degree of possible success. Here

Here's the story³ as told in an interesting manner by Fleet Admiral William F. Halsey, USN.

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ument

I returned to Nouméa in time to sit in on an operation that was smaller but extremely gratifying. The Navy's code experts had hit a gink pot; they had discovered that Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto, the Commander in Chief of the Imperial Japanese Navy, was about to visit the Solomons. In fact, he was due to arrive at Ballale Island, just south of Bougainville, precisely at 0945 on April 18. Yamamoto, who had conceived and proposed the Pearl Harbor attack, had also been widely quoted as saying that he was "looking forward to dictating peace in the White House at Washington." I believe that this statement was subsequently proved a canard, but we accepted its authenticity then, and it was an additional reason for his being No. 3 on my private list of public enemies, closely trailing Hirohito and Tojo.

Eighteen P-38's of the Army's 339th Fighter Squadron, based at Henderson Field, were

³ Admiral Halsey's Story, McGraw-Hill, New York, 1947, pp. 155-157.

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assigned to make the interception over Beiping,
 35 miles short of Ballale. Yamamoto's plane,
 a Betty, accompanied by another Betty and
 covered by six Zekeas, hove in sight exactly on
 schedule, and Lt. Col. Thomas G. Humphries, Jr.,
 dove on it and shot it down in flames. The other
 Betty was also shot down for good measure, plus
 one of the Zekeas. ... We bottled up the story,
 of course. One obvious reason was that we
 didn't want the Japs to know that we had
 broken their code. ... Unfortunately, somebody
 took the story to Australia, whence it leaked
 into the papers, and no doubt eventually into
 Japan. ... But the Japs evidently did not realize
 the implication any more than did the battletests;
 we continued to break their codes. . .

Admiral Halsey's Story contains a
 good many more instances of ^{cryptologic significance} ~~and interest to us~~
~~part of the Japanese as well as excellent comment~~
~~on the part of our Navy~~ Other authors, both American
 and Japanese, ^{cite} ~~mention~~ similar instances. One Japanese
 author states, categorical language that Japan
 was defeated because of poor COMSEC on the part

of the Japanese Navy and good COMINT on the part of the American Navy.

But last you get the impression that enemy intelligence agencies had no success at all with ~~the~~ ^{the} secret communications of U.S. Armed Forces, let me tell you that they did have some success and in certain instances, very significant success. There is not time to go into this ^{probable} ~~disappointing~~ statement but I can say that as a general rule the successes were attributable ~~not~~ to technical weaknesses in U.S. cryptosystems but to improper use, in the case by unskilled or insufficiently trained cryptographic clerks. I may as well tell you right now that this has been true for a great many years, in formation of ~~an~~ able ^{as a} flying ~~processes~~ ~~not~~ ~~the~~ ~~dist~~ ~~part~~ ~~of~~ ~~crypt~~ ~~g~~ ~~is~~ ~~but~~ ~~by~~ ~~any~~ ~~means~~ ~~and~~ ~~provided~~ ~~is~~ ~~not~~ ~~what~~ ~~we~~ ~~call~~ ~~matter~~ ~~of~~ ~~fact~~, because as far ~~intelligible~~ ~~as~~ ~~long~~ ~~ago~~ ~~as~~ ~~the~~ ~~year~~ ~~1605~~ ~~will~~ ~~wrote~~ ~~the~~ ~~first~~ ~~treatise~~ ~~in~~ ~~English~~ ~~on~~ ~~the~~ ~~subject~~ ~~of~~ ~~crypto~~ ~~logy~~, Francis Bacon, said, in The Advancement of Learning,

violent + people peace	This Arte of <u>Cypheringe</u> , hath for Relative, an Art of <u>Discypheringe</u> ; by supposition unprofitable; but, as things are, of great use. For suppose that <u>Cyphars</u> were well managed, there bee
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Multitudes of them which exclude the Cyphers.
But in regards of the Raconnes and unskillfulness of the hands, through which they pass, the greatest matters, are many times carried in the weakest Cyphers.

When electrical and particularly radio transmission entered into the picture additional hazards to communications security had to be taken into account, but many commanders have failed to realize how much intelligence can be gained, ^{merely} from a study of the procedures used in transmission, the direction and flow of communications, the call signs of the transmitting and receiving stations, ~~station~~ etc., all without solving the ~~code~~ communications even if they are in cryptic form. Following are a couple of extracts from a document entitled German Operational Intelligence, published in April 1946 by the German Military Document Section, a Combined British, Canadian, and U.S. Staff:

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(P.8) "Signal intelligence [etc. as per cards attached. ...]

(P.8) "Most of their Signal intercept successes

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(P. 22) "Importance of Signal Intelligence during the Normandy Invasion; During the invasion etc

A great many examples of intercepted messages of tactical content are cited in the above-mentioned document, which is replete with information of deep interest although the document was originally issued ~~as~~ with the lowest security classification then in use (U.S. "Restricted"; "British-Canadian" "For official use only.") I wish there were time to quote at greater length from this useful brochure.

[None important
on p. 8 of this
msg.]

(b) Continuation of
Confidential Lecture No. 6 by
S. M. S. [Signature]
1st 14 pages
date Jan 1943

(Fig. 6) but I would
like to stay
except the digits
of code groups and
text of the letters
of the cipher or
decoding alphabet
were it need
order.

Until the advent of electronic ^{cipher} ~~cryptographic~~

machines most cryptographic apparatus and devices
were built upon or around circular ^{rotating} numbers or cipher
wheels, cipher disks, etc. The very earliest such
disks appear in a treatise by an Italian cryptologist
named Alberti whose Trattato in cifra was written in

Rome about 1470. It is the oldest tract on cryptography
in the world known to us. In Porta's book, first

published in 1563 in Naples, there appear several cipher disks and
in the copy which I was given me as a gift by

(15.1) Colonel Fabry they are in working condition. Here is a picture of one of them.

In this version the devices used symbols as cipher characters. And apparently nobody thought up anything much better

for a long, long time. It seemed that I did not know

anything new or even some Alberti or Porta

did not think up any improvements on the original Porta

disk, but those who did anything at all

merely "invented" or "re-invented" ^{some thing} the ~~the~~ ^{again} and

repeatedly in successive generations.

That happened time and again. For instance, in

feature No. 4 of this series you were shown a picture

of the cipher disk "invented" by Major Albert May

who obtained a patent on his invention in 1865, the first Chief Signal Officer of the U.S. Army. [There is over]

We all know that it generally takes a pretty long

time to get a patent through the complex workshops

of the U.S. Patent Office, but in 1924 the ancient device

of it (Fig. 9).
REF ID: A62831

Grant to P. 15
Here's a picture of ~~the~~ ^{old} ~~patented~~ disk (Fig. 8) and the explanation.
And you will remember that ~~the~~ ^{old} one of the Signal officers
of the Confederate Signal Corps mechanized the ^{old} Vigenère
Cipher and put it out in the form of a cylinder
(see Figs. 13, 14 and 15) of Lecture No. IV.). The cipher
disk used by the Signal Corps of the U.S. Army
during the ~~period~~ ^{from 1910 to 1920,} that is, during the
period ^{including} of World War I, ~~Fig. 11.~~ It was nothing but a
white celluloid variation of the original ^{Alberti} disk of the
vintage of 1470 (except that it was even simpler than
its progenitor because in the latter the cipher alphabets
produced were mixed alphabets whereas in the
Signal Corps disk the cipher alphabets are ^{simple} ~~fully~~ ^{reversed}
standard sequences.

by S.H. Huntington.

was patented in 1924 (Fig. 11). Here you can see a great improvement over the Signal Corps version — a blank is added to both sequences so that the space between words could be enciphered. This, as you have learned, is a fatal weakness if seen in the cipher text; in the Huntington device the spaces between words would be enciphered but the cipher text would have space signs, although they would not correspond to the ^{between words} actual spaces in the plain text.

It is interesting to note that ^{in Austria, in 1936,} during the days when the German National Socialists were banned as an organization, ~~the Nazis~~ Hitler and his cohorts used this variation of the old disk — it had the 10 digits on both the outer and the inner sequences (Fig. 12).

The first significant improvement on the old cipher disk was that made by Sir Charles Wheatstone, who invented and ^{sometime before 1879} described a cipher device which he called a cryptograph, in a volume entitled The Scientific Papers of Sir Charles Wheatstone, published by the Physical Society of London. Here is a picture of Wheatstone's device (Fig. 13). What Sir

Charles did was to make the outer circle of letters (for the plain text) comprise the 26 letters of the alphabet plus one additional character to represent "space". The inner circle, for cipher equivalents, contained only the 26 letters of the alphabet and these could be rearranged in a mixed sequence. Two hands, like the hour and minute hands of a clock, were provided, under control of a differential gear mechanism, so that as the long hand ^{or "minute"} is advanced to make a complete circuit of the face of the cryptograph ~~letters~~ the short or "hour" hand advances one space or segment on the letters on the inner circle of letters on the outer circle of letters on the face of the cryptograph. In Fig. 13, for example, the plain-text letter G is represented by the cipher letter A. If the long hand is now advanced, clockwise direction for one revolution, G will be represented no longer by A but by G_c. In encipherment the long hand is ~~plus~~ always moved in the same direction (clockwise, for example) and is placed over the successive letters of the plain-text message, the cipher equivalents being recorded by hand to correspond with the letters to which the short hand point at each encipherment.

17

In this way, successive identical letters of the plain text will be represented by different ^{and varying} letters in the cipher text, depending upon how many revolutions of the long hand intervene between the first and subsequent appearances of the same plain-text letter. Correspondents must naturally agree upon the mixed alphabet used in the inner circle and the ^{initial} starting position of ~~each~~ of the two hands at the beginning of the encipherment of a message. In decipherment the operator moves the long hand ^{counterclockwise} ~~long hand~~, keeping the cipher letters in the inner circle and noting the plain-text letters to which the long hand points in the outer circle.

During World War I, some time in 1917, the British Army resuscitated Wheatstone's cryptograph and improved it both mechanically and cryptographically. Here is a picture of the device (Fig. 14), in which it will be seen that there are now no longer the "minute and hour" hands but a single hand with an opening ^{or window} ~~that can~~ simultaneously discloses both the plain-text and cipher letters. The ~~the~~ ^{of segments} inner circle is juxtaposed in an eccentric manner against the outer circle of segments.

which
 the rings ^{upon} are made of a substance which letters may
 be written in pencil or in ink. In this improvement on the original
^{both sequences} Wheatstone device
 of letters are now mixed sequences. Making the
 outer circle also a mixed sequences, added a
 degree of security to the cipher. When it was proposed
 that all the Allied armies use this device for
 field crypto-communications and its security had
 been approved by British, French, and American
 cryptologists (both at G.H.Q.-A.E.F and at Washington)
 an opportunity to agree or disagree with the
 assessment of these cryptologists was given
 to me while I was still at the Riverbank Laboratories.
 The modified Wheatstone Cryptograph was still insufficiently
 secure for military purposes and the devices, thousands
 of which had been ^{manufactured and} issued, were withdrawn. If
 you are interested in the method of solution you
 will find it in Riverbank Publication No. 20, entitled
 Several Machine Ciphers and Methods for their
 Solution, 1918. A better method of solution was derived by me some years ^{later.}
 Many years later, and almost by sheer
 good fortune, I learned that a cipher machine was
 in the museum of a ^{certain} small town in Connecticut. I
 was interested and wrote to the curator of the

1879
1877
1/2

museum, requesting that he lend the device for a short period to me as principal cryptanalyst of the War Department. Imagine my astonishment and pleasure when I unpacked the box sent me, and found a device, beautifully made and encased in a fine mahogany case, with its inventors name, ^{Darius Wadsworth,} and date ¹⁸¹⁷, engraved on the face of the machine, which was nothing but another ^{(Here's a picture of it (Fig. 15). I believe} version of the Wheatstone Cryptograph. ^{that} ^{the model was made by Eli Whitney.} ^{independently} ^{it was} ~~more~~ similar to the British modification except that the outer sequence had 33 characters the inner 26, so that the differential gear instead of operating on the ratio 27 to 26 was now on the ratios 33 to 26. ^{I found} Thus, Darius Wadsworth an American Army Colonel, ~~and~~ ^{our} first Chief of Ordnance, and an associate of Eli Whitney, had anticipated Sir Charles Wheatstone by over 60 years in this invention. He also anticipated the British ^{by a whole century} in their modification of Wheatstone's original, ^{there was only one hand,} because in the Wadsworth device both alphabets ^{very clearly} could be made mixed sequences. This is shown in Fig. 16 as regards the outer sequence and I believe the inner one could also be disarranged but I am now not sure as to this point. I returned the device

a good many years ago and it is now on display in the Eli Whitney Room of the New Haven Historical Society's Museum.

The next device I will bring to your attention is shown in Fig. 17, invented by a French Army reservist, Commandant Bagerac, who tried to get the French Army to adopt it. He was not successful and included a description of his device in a book published in 1901 in Paris.¹⁵ He had, however, described his device in an article entitled "Cryptographe à 20 rondelles-alphabets (25 lettres par alphabet," published in 1891. In this device there is a central shaft on which can be mounted 20 disks numbered differently on the peripheries of which are mixed alphabets of 25 letters each. The disks are assembled on the shaft in some prearranged or key sequence. The first 20 letters of the plain text of a message are aligned, as seen in Fig. 17 (JE SUIS INDECIFRABLE = "I am indecipherable") and as cipher text one may select any one of the other 24 lines of letters, ^{which are recorded}, then the next set of 20 plain-text letters is aligned, etc. To decipher a

¹⁵ Les chiffres secrets dévoilés.

¹⁶ Comptes Rendus, Marseilles, Vol. XX, pp. 160-165.

indication that the letters on the outer sequence are inter-
changeable, so that if Fig. 1b seems to indicate that
those on the inner sequence are not, this may be an
illusion.

message, one takes the first 20 cipher letters, aligns them on the device (the disks having been assembled on the shaft in accordance with the prearranged key sequence) and then one turns the whole cylinder searching for a ~~line~~^{row} of plain text letters which form intelligible text. There will be only one such row, and the ~~letters~~^{plain-text letters} are recorded. Then the next 20 letters of cipher are aligned, etc.

In 1893 another French cryptologist, the Marquis de Vairis, showed how messages prepared by means of the Bageries cylindrical cipher could be solved.^{v7} Maybe that is why Bageries wasn't too successful in his attempts to get the French Army to adopt his device. But in the U.S. there were apparently none who encountered either what Bageries or de Vairis wrote on the subject. Capt. Parker Hitt, U.S. Army, ^{when I have mentioned in a previous lecture,} in 1915 invented a device based upon the Bageries principle but not in the form of disks mounted upon a central shaft. Instead of disks, Hitt's device used sliding strips and here is a picture of his ^{very} first model which he presented to me sometime in 1923 or 1924 (Fig. 18). But I learned about his

^{v7} L'Art de chiffrer et de déchiffrer les dépêches secrètes. Paris, 1893, p. 100.

while still at Riverbank,

Sometime

device in 1917 and solved some challenge message put
a Riverbank guest for days. I used anything like what I could
up by Mrs. Hitt, I didn't ^{use anything like what I could} learn from de Vries
in accomplishing the solution (which brought a box
of chocolates to Mrs. Friedman) because at that
time I hadn't ^{yet} come across the de Vries book. I
solved the message by guessing the key. Mrs. Hitt
employed to arrange her strip alphabets. She wasn't
wise to the quirks of inexperienced cryptographic
clerks; she used RIVERBANK LABORATORIES as
the key, just as I ~~had~~ suspected she would. The
device she brought with her was an improved model;
the alphabets ^{on paper strips} were ~~were~~ glued to strips of wood,
as seen in Fig. 19.

Capt. Hitt brought his device to the
attention of the then Major Mauborgne, whom I have
also mentioned in a previous lecture and who was
then on duty in the Office of the Chief Signal Officer
in Washington. There is some question as to whether
it was Hitt who brought his device to Mauborgne's
attention; Mauborgne later told me that he had
independently conceived the invention and, moreover,
had made a model using ~~the~~ disks instead of
strips. I have that model, a present from General

Mauborgne many years later. It is made of brass, very
 heavy, on the peripheries of the disks of which he had
 engraved the letters of his own specially devised
 alphabets. In 1919, after my return to Riverbank from
 my service in the AEF, Mauborgne sent Riverbank
 the first 25 letters of
 a set of some 25 or more beginnings of messages
 enciphered by his device and alphabets. He also sent
 the same data to Major Torday, in G-2. Nobody
 ever solved the messages, even after a good deal
 of work and even after Mauborgne told us two
 consecutive words in one of the test challenge
 were the words "are you." messages, many years later I found ~~at the~~
 person for our complete lack of success, when I
 came across the plain texts of those messages
 in a dusty old file in the OC Sig. D. Here is a
 picture of the beginning of the first six messages
 (Fig. 20). Mauborgne, when I chided him on the
 unfairness of his challenge messages, told me that
 he had not prepared them himself — he had an
 underling (Major Fowler was his name, I still
 remember it!) prepare them. In our struggles to
 solve the challenge messages, ^{had} assumed that they
 would contain the usual sorts of words found at

the initial words of

military messages. It was the complete failure by Rivetbank and G-2 to solve the challenge messages that induced Mauborgne to go ahead with the development of his device. It culminated in what became known as Cipher Device Type M-94. Here is a picture of it (Fig. 21). That device was standardised and used for at least 10 years in the Army and Navy.

In 1922, a war-time colleague, the late Capt. John M. Manly (Prof. and Head of the Department of English at the University of Chicago) brought to my attention a photostat of a holographic manuscript in the collection of Jefferson Papers in the Library of Congress. It consisted of two pages, and here is a picture of the second page (Fig. 22) showing Jefferson's basis for calculating the number of permutations, that set of 36 wheels of his device. He didn't attempt to make the multiplication; he didn't have an electronic digital computer — for the total number is astronomical in size. Jefferson anticipated Bazeries by over a century!

It soon became apparent to both the Army and the Navy cryptologists that a great increase in cryptosecurity would be obtained if the alphabets

of the M-94 device could be made variable instead being fixed. There began efforts, ^{in both services} to develop a practical instrument based upon this principle. I won't take time to show all these developments but will show the final form of the Army Strip Cipher Device Type M-138-A (Fig. 23). This consisted an aluminum base into which channels were cut ~~to~~ to hold paper cardboard strips of alphabets which could be slid easily within the channels. It may of interest to you to learn that after I had given up in my attempts to find a firm which would or could make such a grooved device in quantity, Mrs. Friedman succeeded — on behalf of her own group in the U.S. Coast Guard. The aluminum Strip Cipher Device Type M-138-A was used from 1935 to 1940 or 1942 by the Army, ^{the Navy,} Coast Guard, and the State Department. It was used as a back-up system even after the two services as well as the Department of State began employing ~~had greatly developed~~ electrical cipher machines of high speed and security.

Thus far we have been dealing with cipher devices of the so-called "hand-operated" type. None can really be considered as being "machines", that is, apparatus of them employing mechanically-driven mechanisms.

alphabetic sequences can be mounted so that a constantly-changing series of cipher alphabets are produced. We come now to a type of apparatus which can be called a machine, such as the one shown in Fig. 24, it is ^{called} the KRYPTA, ~~after~~ the name of its German inventor, who unfortunately committed suicide a few years ago, perhaps because he failed to make a success of his invention. The krypta has a fixed ^{semi-circle of} outer ~~outer~~ circle of letters. Both sequences of letters can be made mixed alphabets (the segments are removable and interchangeable on each sequence). The handle at the right serves to wind a rather powerful ^{coiled} steel spring which drives the rotating member on which the letters of the inner circle are mounted. In Fig. 25 ~~one~~ can be seen something of the inner work mechanism. The large wheel at the right is seen ~~has~~ ^{segments} some of which are open or closed, depending upon the "setting" or key. This wheel controls the angular displacement or "stepping" of the circular rotating platform upon which the ^{letters of the} cipher

SECRET

The
 rotors are mounted. A ~~break~~^{key} of initial insta-
 position of the two alphabets ^{inner or outer} against the outer fixed one,
 composition of these alphabets is governed by
 some key or message by other prearrangement.
 Upon ~~enciphering~~^{and recording} the equivalent of
 the cipher equivalents must be recorded by hand.
 After each encipherment, the button you saw
 in the center of the panel in the preceding
 Fig. 24 is pushed down, the inner wheel ^{advances}
~~steps one times~~^{1, 2, 3, 4... up to 7} steps, depending on the key,
 and the next letter is
 enciphered, etc. The pictures I've shown you
 apply to the latest model of the Kryha; as
 regards the first model, which came on the
 market sometime in the 1920's, a German
 mathematician produced an impressive brochure
 showing how many different permutations and
 combinations the machine afforded. Here's a
 picture of a couple of pages of his dissertation
 (Fig. 26) but even in those days cryptanalysts
 were not too impressed by calculations of this
 sort. With modern electronic computers, ^{such} calcula-
 tions have become even less significant.

Let us now proceed with some more

Complex and more secure machines. In this next machine which represents a slide (Fig. 27) you see a rather marked improvement by a Swedish cryptographic firm upon the ones shown thus far. It is mechanics-electrical, in character, and moreover is the first machine designed as Cryptographe B-211. Here for the first time you see a cryptographic machine with a keyboard similar to that of an ordinary typewriter. Depressing a key on this keyboard causes a lamp to light under one of the letters on the indicating bank above the keyboard. At the top of this machine can be seen four wheels, in front of two rear wheels. The ^{four front wheels} are the rotating elements which drive the two rear wheels; the latter are electrical generators that to change the circuits ~~current changes~~ between the keys of the keyboard and the lamps of the indicating board. There isn't time to show you the internal works of this machine, but I must show you ~~what~~ the next step in cryptographic machines which ~~were~~ made it possible to eliminate the tedious job of recording by hand on paper the results of encipherment & decipherment, by a printing mechanism which was associated with the cryptographic machine.

Here is a slide (Fig. 28) which shows the assembly - the B-211 connected to a Remington typewriter, modified to be actuated by impulses from the crypto-

it was natural that,
 graphic machine. Of course, the next step would be
 to make the recording mechanism an integral
 part of the cryptographic machine. This you can
 see in the next slide (Fig. 30), in which the four
 rotating members, referred to in connection with Fig. 27
 and which control the two commutators also mentioned
 in connection with Fig. 27 are clearly seen. The mechanism
 at the right controls the ^{displacements of the} printing wheel in front of the
 slide-bar mechanism and causes the proper letter
 to be printed upon the ^{moving paper} tape seen at the front of
 the machine.

Now we come to the next and ^a very important
 development, one first conceived by a European inventor.
 This was followed soon ^{thereafter but independently} by an American inventor. In this
 advance the circuits between the keys of the keyboard
 and the lamps of the indicating board are varied by
 electrical ^{rotating} members called rotors, interposed between
 fixed electrical members called stators. In Europe
 the first of such machines put upon the market for
 purchase by anyone desiring one is shown in ^{Fig.}
 the next slide (Fig. 31). The machine was appropriately
 enough named the ENIGMA for solution of messages enciphered by
 its means was believed to be impossible, or nearly so.

(labeled I)

In Fig. 1 at the left is seen the machine with the top cover plate closed. At the front is the keyboard; above it the indicator board, consisting of lamps underneath glass disks upon which letters have been inscribed. Above the indicator board, ^{and to the left} are seen the peripheries of four ^(labeled II) notched wheels. At the right in Fig. 1, the top cover plate has been removed, exposing the ciphering mechanism.

The internal mechanism consists of three rotors or connection "in cascade" can be seen attached to notched rings. The rotors are rotatable and changes which serve to change the circuits

between the keys of the keyboard to the lamps of the indicator board. In such a rotor there is a circle of contacts on the left face and a similar circle, ^{of contacts} on the right face; wires passing through the rotor connect the contacts on the two faces, ^{two by two} and these connections are arbitrarily made. The rotors engraved or painted have on their peripheries the letters of the alphabet which letters can be seen through small windows

in the cover plates so that the rotors can be aligned to an initial setting. I used the expression "in cascade" a moment ago, which simply means that the current from a key of the keyboard passes through all three rotors before reaching the stator and then through

Front
and the contacts are connected to the switches operated by and connected with the 26 keys of the keyboard. The connections between the 26 contacts and the 26 switches of the keyboard are fixed.

also has a circle of 26 contacts, ^{equally-spaced} ^{these are} right face. ~~But~~ The stator is also rotatable and its position can also be seen through a window (labeled 3 in Fig. 1(I)), so that the initial setting of the stator and the ^{three} rotors can be seen through the four windows. The initial settings of these four elements constitute the key for the starting point in ciphering operations.

when

a lamp of the indicator board. In the ENIGMA, the current exits from the last rotor at the right ^{third position, the} and enters into another stator having ^{also} a circle of ^{these are} 26 contacts, but ^{these are} only on its left face. This stator is fixed or non-rotatable, and ^{Rotor contacts are connected two by two} 13 of its contacts ~~are~~ are connected to the other 13, ^{two by two} contacts ~~are~~ passing through ^{two by two} them. This stator is called the reflector. It serves to return the current, which exits from one of the 26 contacts on the right face of the third rotor, back into one of the 25 contacts of the remaining ^{which exits from one of the 26 contacts on the right face of the} the right face of that third rotor, and ^{comes back through} ^{contact on the left face of that rotor into a contact on the right face of the second or middle (middle) rotor, etc., to contact on the right face of the} left-hand stator. Thus the circuitry in this machine insures that if $A_p = K_c$, then $K_p = A_c$. That is, the cipher process is reciprocal in nature. It also has as a consequence that no letter can encipher itself ^{for example, in the same position of the rotors}. ^{The reciprocity can be seen in Fig. 32.} ^{itself} ^{that is, A_p , for example, can never be represented by A_c , no matter what} ^{happens to the} ^{three} position of the rotors and the left-hand stator. The same is true of all the other 25 letters of the alphabet. The three rotors are interchangeable, so that ^{3x2x1 or} six permutative arrangements of these rotors is the maximum. Since in this construction the rotors cannot be inserted in an "upside-down" position. In other types of such machines the rotors are made so that they can be inserted in either a

6 x 4 x 2



Of course, if there are more than three rotors are available from which a selection of three can be made the possibilities increase very considerably.

"right-side-up" or "upside down" position. This makes possible a maximum of $6 \times 4 \times 2$, or 48 permutations of ~~the~~ three rotatable rotors. The left-hand stator at the left can be moved only by hand; the reflector at the right is fixed in this model of the ENIGMA.

Depressing ~~or key~~ of the keyboard causes the first rotor to advance one step, thus changing the circuit from the left-hand stator, thence through the rotors to the reflector, thence back through the rotors to the left-hand stator, thus causing a second depression of ~~the same~~ ^{key} to produce a different cipher equivalent.

I won't take the time to tell you about how the rotors are caused to advance so that ~~thirty thousand~~ letters can be enciphered before the window settings of stator and rotors return to their initial alignment.

(The total number is not in this case 26^3 or 17576 but $^{(26 \times 25 \times 26)}$ 16,900, for technical reasons ~~as~~ which there isn't time to explain.) Power for the electrical circuits is provided by small dry cells in the box at the upper right in Fig. 31 (II).

The original ENIGMA enjoyed a fair degree of

ENIGMA, the
Encrypting device
is one which
rotor and
the deciphering
is done by
the same
device in the
reverse direction.

success in sales but it was by no means spectacular.

When Hitler came into power, further sales were prohibited, for reasons that must be omitted in this lecture.

Suffice it to say that its ~~design~~ became the basis for machines used by the German Armed Forces in World War II.

In the U.S. a California inventor named Hebern independently conceived a machine similar to the ENIGMA but with some important differences. The cipher alphabets produced by it were not reciprocal and, moreover, a letter could represent itself in the cipher text. Hebern managed to avoid these two weaknesses, incorporating dry contact plates which could be set ^{one way} for enciphering and ^{another way} for deciphering. Here is a slide (Fig. 33) which shows

Hebern's very first model, which he constructed for communications of the Ku Klux Klan. You will note that ~~is~~ this model ~~has~~ has but one rotor; also, the cipher machine is connected to an electric typewriter so that hand recording was no longer necessary. Hebern interested our Navy in his machine and built the 5-rotor model which you see in this slide (Fig. 34). The rotors are interchangeable and can be inserted "right-side-up" or "upside-down"; the ^{internal} wiring could be readily changed. But this was not a printing

^{additional}

One virtue of the Hebern machine was that the
wirings in the rotor were variable, a feature not
incorporated in the ENIGMA rotors.

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Navy had built two machines of which could be made available, so I induced the Chief Signal Officer to buy a couple of them for me. The rotor wirings were altogether different from those of the Navy, a fact which I discovered simply by asking Strubel to decipher a few letters on his machine using settings I specified.

Power was furnished by the small dry cell seen at the upper left. The Navy was considering purchasing a rather number of these machines and ^{Giant Strubel} then Chief of the Navy's Code and Signal Section of the Office of Naval Communications, asked me to study the machine for its cryptosecurity. After some ~~work~~ ^{in my opinion} study I reported that I thought the security ^{of the machine} was not as great as Navy thought. The result was a challenge, which I accepted. Navy gave me two messages put up on its machine and I was successful in solving them.

There isn't time to go into the methods used but if you are interested you can find them described in my brochure entitled

Neben built several more models for Navy and these had printing mechanisms associated with them, but Navy dropped negotiations with Neben when it became obvious that he was not competent to build what Navy wanted and needed. Navy then established its own cryptographic research and development unit at what is now known as the Naval Weapons Plant in Washington.

Army and Navy went their separate ways in such work for a number of years, but finally, in 1938 or 1939, close collaboration ^{brought} ~~resulted~~ in excellent

machine which
 was developed, and produced, distributed and used
 very successfully ^{by all our Armed Forces} from 1940 to the end of World War
 II and for some years thereafter. This was a rather
 large ~~and~~ machine, hence unsuited for use by small
 units in field operations. Army became interested in a
 small mechanical machine invented by a Swedish
 engineer, named Hagelin. Modifications desired by
 Army were incorporated in the machine, and over 100,000
 of them were manufactured ^{in the years 1942-44} by the Smith - Corona Typewriter
 Co. at Groton, New York. Here's a slide (Fig. 36) showing
 Converter M-209, which was used by all our Armed
 Forces in World War II. When properly used it gave a
 high degree of security; when improperly used, as was
 often the case, its security was rather illusory. This
 machine operates on what is termed the key-generator
 principle and when two or more messages are enciphered
 by the same key stream or portions thereof, solution is
 relatively a simple matter but I cannot go into that now.
 With the world-wide ^{adoption of automatic printing telegraph} or teletypewriter com-
 munications the need for a reliable and practical
 cryptographic mechanism to be associated ^{or integrated} with the
 teletypewriter. The first ^{apparatus} development of this sort in the U.S.,
 is shown in this slide (Fig. 38), was that ^{developed} by the American

and Telephone Co., in 1918, as a more or less simple but ingenious modification of its ordinary printing telegraph. First, a few explanatory words about the latter may be useful. It is based upon the use of what is called the "Baudot Code," that is, a system of two different kinds to represent characters of the alphabet. These elements may be positive and negative currents of electricity, or the presence and absence of current.

Here is a slide (Fig. 39) which depicts the Baudot or 5-unit code in the form of a paper tape in which there are holes in certain positions transversely to the length of the tape. The holes are produced by a perforating mechanism; the small holes running the length of the tape are "feed holes" by means of which the tape is advanced step by step. You will note that there are five levels on which the holes and spaces or blanks appear. The letter A, for example, is represented by a hole in the 1st and 2nd levels; the 3rd, 4th and 5th levels are blanks; the letter E, by holes in positions 2 and 3, etc. Toward the right-hand end of the tape are two permutations labeled "letters" and "figures", respectively. These are equivalent to the "shift" and "unshift" keys on a typewriter keyboard, or "lower" and "upper" case. When the "letters" key is depressed, the characters

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31st of 1st Draft
Discarding old page
cont'd after p. 30 of 1st draft

This material is to be
typed triple space, on
carbon copy, on
legal size sheets

designated as the ECM Mark II, ECM standing for "electric cipher machine," in the Army it was designated as the SIGABA, in accordance with a nomenclature in which items of Signal Corps cryptographic material are given short titles beginning with the initial trigraphs SIG.

The ECM - SIGABA is a rather large machine requiring a considerable amount of electric power and much too heavy to be carried about by a single operator performing field service. It was safeguarded with extreme care and under strictest security regulations during the whole period of World War II operations. None of our Allied even machine were permitted to have or even to see them let alone have it. In order to facilitate inter-communication between U.S. forces and British, an adaptor was developed so that, by use of the latter in connection with American the ECM - SIGABA, messages could be exchanged in cipher. First the British experts possessed with a British machine called TYPEX, for which an adaptor cryptographically equivalent to the American one had been developed. This system of inter-communication worked satisfactorily and securely.

REF ID: A62831 Certain improvements in the method of usage

and certain new components, to be associated with
the ECM - SIGABA for automatic decipherment by

perforated tapes, were introduced during the war-
time employment of Rose machines. But the

SIGABA - ECM as originally developed and produced
became obsolete some years after the close of

hostilities because ^{When never machines, were known} never machines, were known

developed by NSA cryptologists and engineers, but +

there were ever any indications because that messages enciphered on the machine

had been deciphered by the enemy. As a matter

of historical fact it may be stated that all ^{enemy} efforts to solve such messages were fruitless,

and it is also a fact that no machines were

ever captured by the enemy, nor were ^{there ever any suspicions that} any machine

had been exposed to enemy inspection at any time. Once and

only once were there any apprehensions in this

regard, when, through a careless disregard of

specific instructions, a trailer, in which this

machine and associated material were housed,

were stolen ~~from~~ during the night when parked

on the ~~street~~ in front of the headquarters of the

28th Division during the Battle of the Bulge. A

great search was instituted, a river was diverted,

and the trailer, with all its contents intact, was

found resting on the bed of the diverted stream.

The episode terminated in Court-martial proceedings,
and there were no further incidents of this sort. Let me

(b)(2)

years before the SIGABA was put into service
Army's small
About five years after the need for a cipher machine for

field use became obvious. The strip cipher system
for this purpose, however, was not suitable, the electrical machine, invented
was not suitable, the electrical machine, invented
M-134, in connection with the SIGABA,
suitable, for reasons already indicated. The
Army to the
sum of \$2000 was allotted by the Chief Signal
Officer for the development of a cipher machine small enough to be
adequate security. Naturally
but also offering the funds were turned over to the

Signal Corps Laboratories at Fort Monmouth, New
Jersey, for the development.

The military director of the laboratories,
spurning all preferred assistance from the Signal
Intelligence Service, outside assistance developed
a machine which required no electricity, being all-mechanical.
Up all the time, the progress. On its com-
pletion the model was sent to the Signal Intelligence
Service for test. Two short messages were enciphered
by the Chief of the SIS using settings of his own selection. He then
over to me as technical director

director, and I turned them over to two of my assistants.
The reason for turning over the model with the messages was that it must be
assumed that under field conditions machines will be captured. One of the
two test messages was solved in about 20 minutes; the other took longer — 35 minutes. This was the ignominious
end of SCL development. Brought about by the
failure to recognize that cryptographic invention
must be guided by technically qualified cryptanalytic
personnel. Unfortunately all the available funds had
been expended on this unsuccessful attempt
none was left for a fresh start.

out a development REED BACKLOGICAL guidance from

The SIS. But it was about this time that the

development of small mechanical machine developed
and produced in quantity in Stockholm which had been
brought by a Swedish engineer named Hagelin to the
attention of the Chief Signal Officer of the U.S. Army
by a representative of the Hagelin firm. The SIS was asked to look into it, and as technical

director I turned in an unfavorable report on the machine,
although its theoretical cryptosensitivity was theoretically quite good if
it had a low degree of cryptosensitivity.

It was improperly used — and experience had taught me
that improper use could be expected to occur ^{practical} ~~without fail~~.

sufficient frequency to jeopardize the security of
all messages enciphered by the same setting of the

machine; whether correctly scripted or not. I tried to
assure the CSO that my opinion was not motivated by the NIH factor but
was over-ruled by my military superiors, and properly.

neither the SIS nor the SCL

is so, because we had developed anything that was better
than the Hagelin machine, or even as good as it was with

all its ~~mechanical~~ deficiencies and cryptographic weaknesses taken
to into consideration. Accepting ^{though somewhat reluctantly} ~~as far as possible~~ the
well-considered direction of the CSO, they pointed out where

improvements could be made and the modifications were
incorporated in the machine, which became known as Converter M-209. Over
100,000 of them were manufactured in 1942-1944 by the Smith-Corona Typewriter
Company at Brooklyn, New York. Here's a slide (Fig. 36) showing the machine, which
was extensively used by all our Armed Forces during World War II, and here's
another (Fig. 37) showing its internal mechanism. It turned out that under
field conditions (the fears upon which I had based my personal

rejection of the Hagelin) proved
great deal of traffic in it was solved by the Germans,
Italians, and Japanese. If Switzerland suffered any
remorse when it learned about their successful attacks on M-209
traffic, those feelings were generated by ^{overheating} myself to
think up something better than the M-209 despite the in-

Insert

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This was because the Hagelin machine operates on what is termed the key-generator principle, so that when two or more messages are enciphered by the same key stream or portions thereof, solution of those messages is a relatively simple matter. Such solution permits recovery of the settings of the keying elements so that the whole stream can be produced and used to solve messages

[over]

Dickens, Charles:

Excerpt from:

• The Pickwick Papers, Chapter XI: "Involving another journey and an antiquarian discovery."

~~Typecript of episode dealing with a fraudulent inscription.~~

Wife of which. There were some
of the same RFE number as the
one above. The date of birth
of the wife was also given.
The son was born in 1900.

large machine requiring considerable amounts of electric power and hence unsuited for use by small units in field operations. In the late 1930's the Army became interested in a small mechanical machine invented by a Swedish engineer named Hagelin.

Modifications desired by Army were incorporated in the machine, which was called Converter M-209 and over 100,000 of them were manufactured in the years 1942-1944 by the Smith-Corona Typewriter Co. at Grifton, New York. Here's a slide (Fig. 36) showing Converted M-209, which was used by all our Armed Forces in World War II, and here is another (Fig. 37). When properly used it gave a high degree of security; when improperly used, as was often the case, its security was rather illusory. This machine operates on what is termed the key-generator principle and when two or more messages are enciphered by the same key stream or portions thereof, solution is relatively a simple matter but I cannot go into that now.

→ Triple space
1 CC on legal
size paper

introduction of

With the world-wide adoption of automatic printing telegraph or teleprinter machines for electrical communications the need became pressing for a reliable and practical cryptographic mechanism to be associated or integrated with the teleprinter. The first apparatus of this sort in the U. S., shown in this slide (Fig. 38), was that developed by the American and Telephone Co., in 1918, as a more or less simple but ingenious modification of its ordinary printing telegraph. First, a few explanatory words about the latter.

This principle employs permutations of two different elements taken in groups of five are employed in which there are five elements of two different kinds to represent characters of the alphabet. These two elements may be positive and negative currents of electricity, or the latter system being often referred to as being composed of "marking" and "spacing elements" the presence and absence of current. Here is a slide (Fig. 39) which depicts the

Baudot or 5-unit code in the form of a paper tape in which there are holes in certain positions transversely to the length of the tape. The holes are produced by a perforating mechanism; the small holes running the length of the tape are "feed-holes" by means of which the tape is advanced step by step. You will note that there are

Proprietary rights reserved (2⁵=32). For educational communication the two elements

Curiously enough, Francis Bacon wrote a "code" during Bacon in the early 17th century, and it showed for the first time the use, in Section No. 2 (see Fig. 25, p. 42, V NSA)

are used to represent the so-called "stunt characters," which I will now explain. The third and fourth characters from the right-hand

five levels on which the holes and spaces or blanks appear. The letter A, for example,

perforations only

is represented by ~~holes~~ on the 1st and 2nd levels; the 3rd, 4th and 5th levels remain

unperforated ^{is represented} no holes on the other three levels etc. The
one-blanks; the letter I, by holes in positions 2 and 3, etc. Toward the right-hand
English alphabet uses 26 of the 32 permutations; the remaining 6 permutations
end of the tape are two permutations labeled "letters" and "figures", respectively.

These are equivalent to the "shift" and "unshift" keys on a typewriter keyboard, for

"lower" and "upper" case. When the "letters" key is depressed, the characters

26

represented are the letters of the alphabet (all capital letters); when the "figures" key is depressed the characters represented are similar to those printed on a typewriter when the "shift" key is depressed. There are four permutations at the left-hand end of the tape are also stent characters and represent "line feed," "space," and "carriage return" and they perform electrically like teleprinted what is done by hand on a typewriter:

"line feed" causes the paper on which the message is printed to advance to the next line; the mark "space" does exactly what depressing the space bar on a typewriter does, etc. When there are no holes anywhere across the tape, the character is called a "blank" or "idle" character — nothing happens; ^{the printer does no} printing, nor is there any "stent" functioning by the printer, but the tape merely advances.

In modifying the printing telegraph machine to make it a printing telegraph cipher machine, or, to put the matter in a slightly different way, in developing the printing telegraph cipher machine the American Telephone and Telegraph Company made good stock was fortunate in having at its disposal the services of a brilliant communications engineer named S. ^{conceived} Vermann who had a brilliant principle. That principle turned out to be so useful and valuable that it has come to bear his name and is often referred to as the "Vermann rule." Vermann saw that in accordance with some general but invariant rule

Top left:
Telegraph
Printing Co.
of America
1918
Top right:
5-unit
marking and spacing elements of a 5-unit code group
one. (or one) 5-unit
were combined with those of another code group,
which would serve as a keying group,
the same system as described with the general
rule, and the resultant 5-unit group transmitted
over a circuit and combined at the receiver with the
same keying group in accordance with the same
general rule. Vermann extended his idea to make it applicable to both letters and
characters. An application in Vermann's name was
filed in the U.S. Patent Office on 13 September 1918,
and Patent No. 1,310,719 was granted on the invention
entitled a "Secret Signaling System" on 22 July 1919.

The following, more detailed description
of Vermann's patent on the foregoing, extracted from a
paper written by one of the ~~other~~ A.T.T. Company's engineers
who was associated with Mr. Vermann at the time the
invention was conceived and who, ^{a few years} after retirement
from that company, became one of NSA's consultants:

P.D. "Bacchus"
Machine
Encryption
Systems
Engineering
Section
NSA

Individually separable parts	copy matter indicated on attached sheet	→ (R.D. Parker p.108)
------------------------------------	--	-----------------------

Here is an extract from a paper prepared
by Vermann himself which in simple language explains

Front left:
Front left:
In this system which uses
the so-called "binary codes" the combinatory rule is its own
inverse.

how his invention worked in a system developed during
World War I for use of the Signal Corps, U.S. Army:

the CIPHER MACHINE - METHOD OF OPERATION

The messages are first punched in a paper
tape by means of the keyboard perforator (Fig. 38
of this lecture). ...

* * * *

indent
&
single
space

The cipher "key" may take the form of
another tape [see as indicated on attached
sheets labeled p. 17-21-]

On ~~the~~ ^{the} ~~key~~ ^{key}
a

✓

Vernam, G. S. "Cipher Printing Telegraph Systems for
Secret Wire and Radio Telegraphic Communications," a
paper presented at the Midwinter Convention of the A.I.
E.E., New York City, ~~8-11 February 1926.~~
~~46~~

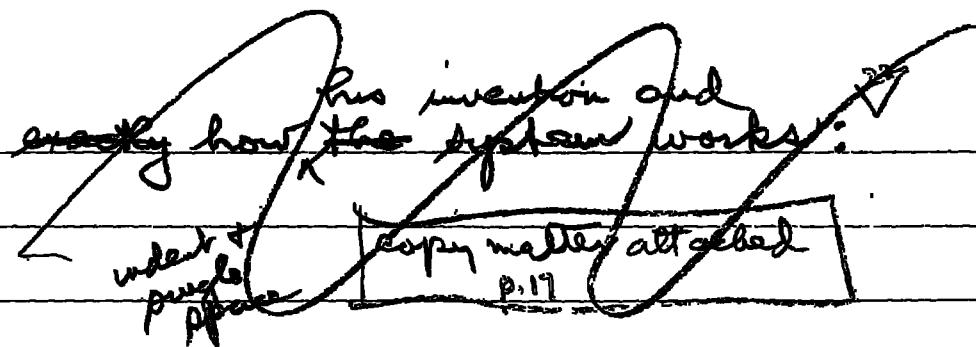
(See page 128)

double-key-tape

The foregoing system was placed into operation, in 1918, which were used on three start-stop circuits, for intercommunication among four stations serving Washington, New York, Hoboken and Norfolk, and which remained in operation for many months, even after the end of the war. In addition,

Signal Corps Company was organized to go to Europe with new equipment for installation of printing-telegraph circuits in France. This Signal Company was about ready to sail when the Armistice was signed November 11, 1918.

Upon my return to Riverbank, after being demobilized, I became an interested party in a rather warm argument conducted by letters exchanged in my argument between Colonel Fabry and the Director of Military Intelligence and the War Department, the Chief Signal Officer, regarding the crypt-security of the cipher printing telegraph system as used by the Signal Corps. The argument ended by meeting successfully a test signal corps contention by the cipher tapes of 150 messages from to prove Fabry's solving one day's traffic in the system. The solution was accepted with mixed feelings in Washington; especially on the part of the Director of Military Intelligence who, having signed a letter prepared by Major Yardley, to the effect that the cipher system in question was "absolutely indecipherable," had then



To 4

22

-46-

duty and

^A courtesy of writing a congratulatory letter to Colonel Talyan, dated 24 March 1920, the final paragraph of which is as follows:

Yours very brilliant scientific achievement
reflects great credit upon you and your whole
personnel. It would be impossible to exagger-
ate in paying you and Riverbank the deserved

^{udent}
⁺
^{purple}
^{paper}
[Insert here tribute for this very scholarly accomplishment.
matter on this sheet (part 2)
back of this sheet (part 2)
also on sheet number 48b] The A.T&T. Company's Printing Telegraphic Ciphers were
48c] after Riverbank showed the double-key-tape system!
+ withdrawn soon, insecure. The machines went into storage, where

in due course most of them were dismantled. But after
left Riverbank at the end of 1920 and had
joined the Chief Signal Officer's staff in Washington, I in-
duced the Chief Signal Officer to reconstitute two of the
equipments. These I employed, believe it or not, in
preparing the manuscripts for several editions of new
field codes for field use, called Division Field Codes
for use in training or in emergency. I work under
to explain how ^{I performed} this stunt, for it was a stunt, but it
The codes were duly printed, and issued and used
worked very successfully until there was no longer any
need for codes of this type.

Cipher printing telegraphy was placed
upon the shelf and more or less forgotten by the Signal
Corps from 1920 until soon after Pearl Harbor. Although
beginning about 1938 Mr. Frank B. Rowlett,
one of my associates, and I kept urging that there was

Front to p. 48 (or
reverse side)

REF ID:A62831

P The paper by Mr. Parker (see footnote 2) closes with the following sentence final paragraph:

Perhaps some day Mr. Friedman will tell
of the part that he and the Riverbank Laboratories
played in the cryptanalytic phases of this devel-
opment.

Mr Parker was not aware of the fact
that what he suggested had not only been
done once, but twice. The first time was immediately after the solution,
but they had
on p. 60 which had been sent to Washington met the
fate of documents of limited interest — complete —

The disappearance in the voluminous
files of bureaucracy. The second time was soon after
when it was discovered that ^{the end of hostilities of World War II,} a certain outfit I won't
name was ^{or special technical} using the double-tape keying system for its
teleprinter communications. I remembered through
my own files and uncovered the handwritten
manuscript of what I had written at the
close of the successful solution of that system
while at Riverbank. ^{my second write-up} It is a classified docu-

ment, dated 25 July 1948, the title of which is "Can cryptologic
history repeat itself?" It is possible that this write-ups can be made
available to those of you who are interested
in reading it if proper authority grants permission. [Insert continues
on attached sheet]

~~Continuing
next to p. 46~~

(see footnote 21 above).

Mr. Parker's paper, devotes a good deal of space to the contention that the only reason why the double-tape keying method was adopted was that the Signal Corps and specifically its representative, Colonel Mauborgne "complained about the difficulties that might be experienced in the preparation and distribution of one-time random key tapes, and seemed inclined to disapprove of the proposed system because of these difficulties. Since the system, when properly used, seemed obviously to be one which gave absolute secrecy, a discussion arose ... on the value of the system and on methods which might be devised for the production and distribution of long one-time key tapes having characters arranged at random." Parker and his associates ~~also~~ ^{for} felt that this position and that the original method of use contemplated the use of long tapes of this nature and that he and his associates felt that the ^{problem of} producing and distributing ~~the~~ ^{by special machinery} long tapes, "while presenting a challenge, was not impractical." I am glad to admit that they were right, because during World War II and ~~ever up to~~ ^{for years afterward} tapes of this nature were produced (in some cases ~~as~~ ^{and the sections numbered automatically} as many as five copies being perforated in a single operation). ~~The distribution and accounting for the tapes~~

proved practical, too, and ~~in~~ ^{on an occasional} error involving the re-use of a once-used tape, the system of absolutely secure inter-communication was assured and was used between and by radio printing teletypes among large headquarters where the volume of traffic justified the use of this equipment, ~~was assured~~ The principal advantage was the simplicity of crypto-operation — no rotors to be set, no settings of rotors to be enciphered, no checking of encipherment by deciphering the message before transmission, etc.

Great

leading members of the

cryptanalytic

However, the S.I.S. maintained a theoretical interest in such equipment and in 1937^{There came an} an opportunity to test such theories as were developed by them when a machine produced by the International Telephone and Telegraph Company evoked the interest of the Department of State as a possible answer to the needs of that Department for rapid and secure cryptocommunications by radio. The Secretary of

State requested the Secretary of War to ^{study} investigate the messages ciphered by the Chief of the machine from the point of view of security. Communications and Records Division of the Department of State were informed. It is a source of satisfaction to tell you that the S.I.S. quickly solved the texts messages and therefore reported that the machine was quite measure; but it is with much regret

that I must tell you who invented and developed the machine. It was none other than my old friend Colonel J. T. H. M. Pitt, ^{a retired officer of the Signal Corps and} ^{now} ^{neglect} ^{as he was the former himself to listen to what} ^{he had to say} about the inadequacies of his brain child. As is so often the case, when a competent technician has to give up

his technical studies because of the pressure of administrative duties, he ^{unfortunately} finds it very difficult

to keep abreast of new developments and progress in the field ^{in which he was at one time an expert} of his technical cognizance. The I.T.+T. Com-

pany having spent a great deal of money on a development of a machine

which hardly presented any room for improvement,
because the principles underlying it were so faulty, the company dropped the further work on it. Colonel Pitt ^{had} ^{had} to say, ^{and} ^{was} ^{well enough in 1940 to be able to} ^{express} the disappointment and was well enough in 1940 to be able to

Top right side of page
most matter on reverse side of page

or would be real need for improved machines for ^{new and} protecting teleprinter communications, there was ^{not only} a complete lack of interest in such apparatus, but what was ^{in the failure to continue work in this field} perhaps a more important factor was the lack of Signal Corps funds for research and development ^{for such work.} [more or less suddenly] Deep entry into World War II, after 7 December 1941, immediately brought a great ^{need} pressure for cipher printing telegraphy, especially for radiocommunications, ^{whatever} but there was no apparatus for it, — not a single one of those machines of 1918-1920 was in existence. D.S.I.S. did ^{in readiness,} But they have drawings and the development of the machines ^{given as a priority task to} was ~~undertaken~~ by the Teletype Corporation because ^{then Army} that firm had proved that it had the necessary know-how when it produced the SIGABA-ECM's for us. Navy had less need for cipher printing telegraphy ^{than Army} because the use of radio printing telegraphy by radio ^{then} was not practicable for ships at sea. However, Navy did have a need for such apparatus for its land communications and joined Army in the development thereof. The machines ^{were} produced with remarkable speed by Teletype Corporation. Most of them were allotted to Army, a few to Navy. The Army called the machine ^{the} SIGCUM; the Navy called it CSP-888. Under heavy

use in the category
of very short
and very long
distances,
that is, between
or between
two stations,
for protecting
cryptography
text is, tele-
graphic com-
munications,
and operates
in the same
way as the
CIFAX
machines,
but there
is no
key-tape
method of ciphering.
But there
is also
a key-tape
method of ciphering.
The history of
the development
of cipher machines
may be said
to begin about
1920, but
it is
very important
to note
that the
first cipher
machines
were developed
in Germany
in 1914, and
then in
England
in 1915.
The first
cipher machine
was the
CIFAX
machine,
which
was developed
in Germany
in 1914.
The second
cipher machine
was the
Enigma
machine,
which
was developed
in Germany
in 1915.
The third
cipher machine
was the
Hilfsmittel
machine,
which
was developed
in Germany
in 1916.
The fourth
cipher machine
was the
Tunny
machine,
which
was developed
in England
in 1917.
The fifth
cipher machine
was the
Colossus
machine,
which
was developed
in England
in 1918.
The sixth
cipher machine
was the
Bombe
machine,
which
was developed
in England
in 1919.
The seventh
cipher machine
was the
Ultra
machine,
which
was developed
in England
in 1920.
The eighth
cipher machine
was the
GCHQ
machine,
which
was developed
in England
in 1921.
The ninth
cipher machine
was the
NSA
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1922.
The tenth
cipher machine
was the
RSA
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1923.
The eleventh
cipher machine
was the
AES
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1924.
The twelfth
cipher machine
was the
SHA
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1925.
The thirteenth
cipher machine
was the
MD5
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1926.
The fourteenth
cipher machine
was the
SHA-2
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1927.
The fifteenth
cipher machine
was the
SHA-3
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1928.
The sixteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1929.
The seventeenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1930.
The eighteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1931.
The nineteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1932.
The twentieth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1933.
The twenty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1934.
The twenty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1935.
The twenty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1936.
The twenty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1937.
The twenty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1938.
The twenty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1939.
The twenty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1940.
The twenty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1941.
The twenty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1942.
The thirty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1943.
The thirty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1944.
The thirty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1945.
The thirty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1946.
The thirty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1947.
The thirty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1948.
The thirty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1949.
The thirty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1950.
The thirty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1951.
The forty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1952.
The forty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1953.
The forty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1954.
The forty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1955.
The forty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1956.
The forty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1957.
The forty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1958.
The forty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1959.
The forty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1960.
The fifty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1961.
The fifty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1962.
The fifty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1963.
The fifty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1964.
The fifty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1965.
The fifty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1966.
The fifty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1967.
The fifty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1968.
The fifty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1969.
The sixty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1970.
The sixty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1971.
The sixty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1972.
The sixty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1973.
The sixty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1974.
The sixty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1975.
The sixty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1976.
The sixty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1977.
The sixty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1978.
The seventy-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1979.
The seventy-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1980.
The seventy-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1981.
The seventy-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1982.
The seventy-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1983.
The seventy-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1984.
The seventy-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1985.
The seventy-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1986.
The seventy-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1987.
The eighty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1988.
The eighty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1989.
The eighty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1990.
The eighty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1991.
The eighty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1992.
The eighty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1993.
The eighty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1994.
The eighty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1995.
The eighty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1996.
The ninety-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1997.
The ninety-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1998.
The ninety-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 1999.
The ninety-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2000.
The ninety-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2001.
The ninety-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2002.
The ninety-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2003.
The ninety-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2004.
The ninety-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2005.
The one-hundred-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2006.
The one-hundred-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2007.
The one-hundred-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2008.
The one-hundred-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2009.
The one-hundred-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2010.
The one-hundred-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2011.
The one-hundred-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2012.
The one-hundred-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2013.
The one-hundred-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2014.
The one-hundred-twelfth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2015.
The one-hundred-thirteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2016.
The one-hundred-fourteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2017.
The one-hundred-fifteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2018.
The one-hundred-sixteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2019.
The one-hundred-seventeenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2020.
The one-hundred-eighteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2021.
The one-hundred-nineteenth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2022.
The one-hundred-twenty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2023.
The one-hundred-twenty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2024.
The one-hundred-twenty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2025.
The one-hundred-twenty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2026.
The one-hundred-twenty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2027.
The one-hundred-twenty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2028.
The one-hundred-twenty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2029.
The one-hundred-twenty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2030.
The one-hundred-twenty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2031.
The one-hundred-thirty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2032.
The one-hundred-thirty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2033.
The one-hundred-thirty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2034.
The one-hundred-thirty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2035.
The one-hundred-thirty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2036.
The one-hundred-thirty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2037.
The one-hundred-thirty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2038.
The one-hundred-thirty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2039.
The one-hundred-thirty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2040.
The one-hundred-forty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2041.
The one-hundred-forty-second
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2042.
The one-hundred-forty-third
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2043.
The one-hundred-forty-fourth
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2044.
The one-hundred-forty-fifth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2045.
The one-hundred-forty-sixth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2046.
The one-hundred-forty-seventh
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2047.
The one-hundred-forty-eighth
cipher machine
was the
AES-192
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2048.
The one-hundred-forty-ninth
cipher machine
was the
AES-256
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2049.
The one-hundred-fifty-first
cipher machine
was the
AES-128
machine,
which
was developed
in America
in 2050.

(Other types of cryptographic apparatus
were developed during World War II, called
CIFAX machines,
for protecting facsimile transmission.)

CIFAX machines cannot refrain from adding that
in every case, the apparatus produced by research
and development firms that without direct guidance
from the cryptologists of the Army and the Navy. The
one exception is, I believe, in the case of the extremely
high security ciphers systems developed and built
and equipment

by the A.T.&T. Company. It was called SIGSALY.^L
 There were six terminals, each of which cost over
 \$1,000,000. But NSA cryptologists and engineers
 have produced smaller and better, ^{equipments based upon} SIGSALY principles
 and such equipments are bound to play extremely
 important roles in any future wars in the future.

So much for cryptographic apparatus. At this
 point I shall return to that phase of cryptologic
 history before the close of this lecture. Right now I
 shall pay a few words about ^{The history of the development and progress;} cryptanalytic ~~machinery~~
 apparatus.

The solution of modern crypto-communication systems has been facilitated, and, in some cases, made possible ^{only} by the invention, development, and application of cryptanalytic machinery, including apparatus for intercepting and recording certain types of transmissions before cryptanalysis can be attempted. One must understand the basic nature of the problem which confronts the cryptanalyst when he attempts to solve one of these modern, very complex cryptosystems. First of all he must be given the crypto-communications in a form which ^{make them visible for inspection and study.} usually they are ^(letters or numbers) characters in the case of liberal communications, or they are

electrical signals of a recordable type in the case of cifax or aphony communications. Next he must have ~~other~~ available to him instrumentalities that will assist him in his analytical work, such as machinery for making frequency counts, comparisons of sequences, etc., and this, in the case of complex systems, must be done at high speed. Cryptanalysis of modern cryptosystems requires testing a very great number of assumptions and hypotheses because ~~of the~~ sometimes astronomically large number of possibilities, i.e., and combinations, must be tested ^{one after the other} until the correct answer is found. Since the advent of high-speed machinery for such purposes, including electronic digital computers about which so much is being heard and read nowadays, the cryptanalyst ~~doesn't~~ isn't discouraged by these astronomically great numbers of possibilities.

Perhaps long before my time cryptanalysts in Europe discovered that the use of sliding strips of paper could sometimes facilitate reaching a solution to a cryptanalytic problem, but so far as I am aware the very first cryptanalytic aid ^{made} in the U.S. is the one shown in Fig. , which is a picture of what ^{made} Jellat

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2607 Park Hitt 0963 REF ID: A62831
2022 Book 684 Front Royal Va.

A progenitor of ~~the~~ or an cryptographic
historical aspect itself. Dated 21 July 1948.

at Riverbank and which I called the Polyalphabet. It was useful in solving ciphers which today are regarded as being of the very simplest types. When I came to Washington after leaving Riverbank I wasn't troubled by a plethora of ideas for cryptanalytic aids — I was pre-occupied with devising and inventing cryptographic aids and machines. But I did now and then develop and try out certain ideas for cryptanalytic aids, frequency counters, comparison or coincidence machinery and the like. Why didn't I think of IBM machines? I did, but what good did that do? Did the Signal Office have any such machines — or even one dollar for their rental?

You know the answer to that without my spelling it out. There wasn't any use even in suggesting that IBM machines could be of assistance to me — remember, now, that ~~I~~ ^{from} I'm talking about the years ^{the summer of} 1932 to 1933, and in the last-named year we were in the depths of a great economic depression. But one day in 1934 I learned by a devious route that the Navy Code and Signal Section had ~~an~~ ^{the summer of} IBM machine or two, and my chagrin was almost unbearable. Not long afterwards I learned that a certain division of the Office of the

Quartermaster General in the Munitions Building had an IBM installation which had been used for accounting purposes in connection with the C.C. - the Civilian Conservation Corps established to provide work and sustenance for young men who could find no ~~work~~ jobs in the depression. I also learned that a new officer had just been assigned to head that particular division - and that he just had no use for ^{the} ~~such~~ newfangled ideas of his predecessor and wanted to get rid of those nasty IBM machines. But the contract with IBM still had some months to go run before the lease expired and either the machines would sit idle or the Government would lose money by ~~not~~ terminating the contract before the due date of expiration. This annoyed me, but it also gave me an idea. I ~~just~~ wrote a memorandum and here's a picture of it (Fig.). See what it says:

Incl'd purple space	Attached
------------------------	----------

Attached to the memo was a brief explanation amounting to ^{IBM} what I've told you about that installation in the Office of the Quartermaster General. Note that I placed

[This belongs to
Envelope
N^o 28]

30 October 1934

Major Akin: In many years service here I have never once "set my heart on" getting something I felt desirable. But in this case I have set my heart on the matter because of the tremendous load it would lift off all our backs.

The basic idea of using machinery for code compilation is mine and is of several year's standing. The details of the proposed system were developed in collaboration with Mr. Case, of the Int. Bus. Machines Corp.

I regard this as one of my most valuable contributions to the promotion of the work for which we are responsible.

Please do your utmost to put this across for me. If you do, we can really begin to do worthwhile cryptanalytic work.

F.

The emphasis upon the ~~burden~~ burden that would be lifted from cryptographic work, ~~thus~~ by using the IBM machinery, thus leaving more time for cryptanalytic work. This was because the responsibilities of the S.I.S. for cryptanalytic operations were at that time restricted purely to theoretical studies. Studies ~~on~~ or cryptanalytic work on foreign cryptosystems had been ^{badly} a responsibility of the Signal Corps during ~~part~~ ^{until 1929} the G-2 of the General Staff ~~but that~~ had been transferred to the Chief Signal Officer and the Signal Corps in the year named. But the Chief Signal Officer had very little money to use for that purpose, and besides that, the Army Regulation applicable thereto specifically ~~had~~ restricted cryptanalytic operations on foreign communications to wartime. And, more to the point, was the fact that there was no material to work on even if funds were available, because ^{the Army} we had at that time no intercept stations whatever, anywhere in or outside the U.S. But that's another story and I'll proceed to the next point, which is that my memo to Major Akers produced results. Just a

half month after I wrote and put it in his "In" basket I got the machines moved from the Office of the Quartermaster General to my own warren in the Office of the Chief Signal Officer! That memo must have been potent magic.

Once having ~~persuaded~~ demonstrated their utility to the Chief Signal Officer the almost prenaturally terminated contract with IBM was renewed — and soon expanded. I don't know how we could have managed without such ~~machines~~ ^(Fig. 00) during World War II. Here's a picture of one of two whole wings in one of our buildings at Arlington Hall filled with IBM machines — the biggest installation in the world at that time.

We built or had built for us by IBM and other concerns adaptors to work with standard IBM machines; we constructed or had constructed for us by commercial firms highly specialized cryptanalytic apparatus, machines, and complex assemblies of components. Under war-time pressures fantastic things were ac-

complicated and many were the thrills of gratifying achievement when things that ^{just} couldn't be done were done — and were of high importance in military, naval and air operations against the enemy.

Even were time available I couldn't show you pictures of some of the high-class gadgets we used; neither is it permissible to say more than I have already said about them, even though it is no longer a deep secret that electronic ~~to~~ computers are ~~as~~ highly useful in cryptologic work. For example, here is a paragraph, taken from a Russian book entitled *and below it is ~~the~~* what it says in English.

To the layman the exploits of professional cryptanalysts, when those exploits come to light as, for example, in the various investigations of the attack on Pearl Harbor, are much more fascinating than those of cryptographers, whose achievements in their field appear to be dull or tedious to the layman. But long consideration of the ^{military in} Cryptography and importance of Communication security, as against

that of cryptanalysis and communication intelligence has induced me to formulate what I shall immodestly call Friedman's Law. It is quite simply stated. ~~You~~^{If you keep the} a commander
 cryptanalytic or COMINT face of his cryptologic
 coin bright and shiny, ~~he~~^{he may} stands a good chance of
 winning a battle even if forces are inferior in size and
 ability compared with ^{almost}
~~those of his enemy~~; but if he ~~lets~~^{lets} the
 cryptographic or COMSEC face of ~~his~~^{his} ship that
 coin become dull from neglect, indifference, or
 carelessness, ^{every}
~~He will~~^{He will} ~~certainly~~^{certainly} lose a battle of ~~his~~^{his} forces
~~size~~^{size} superior in size and ability compared with
 those of ~~his~~^{his} enemy.

With the foregoing statement of ^{all}
~~well~~^{diligent} ~~conscientious~~^{opinion} founded upon a half
^{study and experience in}
 century's devotion to cryptology as a profession,
 I bring this series of lectures to an undramatic
~~close but~~^{hope,} meaningful close.

Ingraham
3649