

The Geheimschreiber Secret

Arne Beurling and the Success of Swedish Signals Intelligence ¹⁾

Lars Ulfving¹ and Frode Weierud^{2*}

¹ HKV/MUST, S-10786, Stockholm, Sweden

² CERN, Div. SL, CH-1211 Geneva 23, Switzerland

Preface

The present paper appears under joint authorship, however, the responsibilities of the two authors are divided and well defined. Lars Ulfving is the sole author of the original Swedish version of *The Geheimschreiber Secret*¹, while Frode Weierud alone is responsible for the translation into English, the translator's notes, and postscript, as well as the bibliography and the appendixes.

The translation has been kept as close to the original language as possible. Specialist terms and expressions have been retained where possible. Otherwise, a substitute term with the closest possible meaning has been chosen and an explanation given in the text.

The original notes appear as in the original, as footnotes at the bottom of the page. Other short notes in brackets appear as in the original. Original references are marked with superscript numbers, while the references themselves are placed at the end of the text.

The translator's notes are of two types: short notes included in the text in brackets and in italic (*translator's note*), and normal notes which are marked by bold, italic numbers in square brackets, e.g. [***1***].

The postscript, based mainly on information from Bengt Beckman's book, fills in some of the missing personal histories and brings the account up-to-date with present historical knowledge. Two appendixes and a bibliography have been added to place this account in its cryptological context and as an incentive to further study.

1 A short historical résumé until spring 1941 ²⁾

At the beginning of 1941 Sweden was in a situation that had drastically deteriorated during the previous year. The end of the Winter War (*Russo-*

* This article represents the views of the author but not necessarily those of his employer or any other third party.

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Finnish war) and the signing of peace in Moscow on 13 March 1940 were traumatic events in Sweden as well as in Finland. However, the conditions were not so devastating as they could have been had the Soviet war aims been achieved. Finland survived as an independent state, but within tighter borders.

The surprising and successful German attack on Denmark and Norway on 9 April 1940 brought serious consequences for Sweden. Sweden's political freedom became seriously limited. Threats from new directions had quickly to be taken into consideration. In one area, however, the German demands on Sweden created unexpected possibilities that were exploited well. Their request to hire telegraph lines going through Sweden made great successes for Swedish signals intelligence possible.

In mid-summer 1940, after the French capitulation and the Soviet occupation of the Baltic states, the Swedish intelligence service was faced with two important questions. Would Germany carry out "Operation Seelöwe", a naval invasion of Great Britain, during the autumn? Would the Soviet Union again attack Finland to re-establish Russian borders on the northern shore of the Gulf of Finland while Germany was engaged on the western front? There existed no guarantees that Stalin would wait until the German air war might lead to air supremacy over the British Isles or that he would wait for the German invasion. After developments in the Baltic, Stockholm considered it likely that the Soviet Union would attack Finland at the turn of the month July-August even before, or perhaps even without, a German invasion attempt on Great Britain. Germany would then probably take the same attitude as during the Winter War, i.e. benevolent neutrality. Indications, chiefly reported by attachés from Riga, Berlin and Moscow, showed such a development. The Finnish government was under enormous Soviet pressure, while Moscow-led communists tried to create internal trouble in the country. The pattern was the same as that before the Baltic states were occupied by the Soviet Union in June.

When, on 13 August 1940, Foreign Minister Günther explained the current situation to the Foreign Affairs Committee, his opinion was that there existed a real danger of such an attack. The German military attaché in Riga was given as the source. It is remarkable that no Swedish sources or Finnish military authorities' views were used or referred to. The Defence Staff's intelligence department was therefore also obviously restrained in its written reports to the military command and the government.

German fear of a Russian attack, however, caused Hitler to free the arms embargo against Finland shortly before 10 August. The arms' deliveries that had stopped under the Winter War were now let through. This political change of course indicated a renewed German interest for Finland's continued existence as an independent nation. The tension in Helsingfors was relieved. The immediate danger of a Russian attack was estimated to be over for the time being. As a result it was considered necessary that the Defence Staff's intelligence department concerned with Finland should be strength-

ened. Now, it was not only Finnish–Soviet relations but also German–Finnish relations that had to be watched. Since neither Finnish nor German military contacts were very communicative any longer, the task was not particularly easy.

The extraordinary Swedish military contacts in Finland were evidently about to be reduced because of Finland’s German connections. The attaché reports from Berlin also showed a clear German interest in Finland. Speculations about a German attack on the Soviet Union started to appear in the reports from Berlin. Neither the Swedish attachés nor others could obtain any further information about Hitler’s intentions. They were reduced to making assumptions about probabilities and possibilities. A German two-front war, however, was not considered probable by the Defence Staff’s intelligence department. In autumn 1940 the situation did not seem particularly alarming to the Swedes. The concessions made, in response to German demands for troop transit and continued iron ore exports, appeared to be sufficient.

The reports from the military attaché in Moscow during the winter of 1940 no longer indicated a Russian build-up and deployment of forces against Finland. The Russian build-up of forces was instead concentrated in the border areas in the south and south-west, against Bessarabia and Bukovina. In Finland, however, they still felt that a new Russian attack was a real possibility.

As a consequence of the commonly perceived threat, the military intelligence exchange between Sweden and Finland which, as already explained, had diminished after the end of the Winter War, was again improved. However, once more the Finnish interest for co-operation diminished considerably during spring 1941, principally during and after April. Attaché von Stedingk in Helsingfors reported simultaneously that German–Finnish relations had dramatically improved. He also reported that Finnish contacts appeared to be prepared to take part in a German war against the Soviet Union, which German contacts said, with a surprising frankness, would start in early or mid-June. Colonel Carlos Adlercreutz, the chief of the Defence Staff’s intelligence department, had during a conversation with the chief of the Finnish General Staff, General Heinrichs, clearly seen the possibility of Finland joining in a German attack on the Soviet Union, or being forced to participate in such an attack.

German probes about the transit of German troops from Norway to Finland through Sweden had already taken place in February. Sweden feared that these explorations would change into direct demands, but wondered if Hitler would be content with demands for transit if he intended to start a two-front war against the Soviet Union before Great Britain had been finally defeated.

The uncertainty about Hitler’s intentions was brought to a head during the so-called “March crisis” that culminated in a large preparedness alert on 15 March. The alert was actually caused by a German communications error. In fact, there was no other intelligence about a German attack. However, the information obtained through signals intelligence made Swedish preparatory

measures possible against regions where German units were positioned in Norway.

The deployment and build-up at the German eastern border now started to be obvious and was difficult to conceal. However, an uncertainty still prevailed as to whether Hitler really intended to attack the Soviet Union before Great Britain was conquered. Perhaps the build-up aimed only at applying pressure — not a two-front war. How — or if — the received information was analysed at the Defence Staff and how — or if — the information in the military reports was weighed together with the rather uncertain and speculative diplomatic information, can no longer be clarified. At a presentation for the government on 21 April General Olof Thörnell, the chief of the Defence Staff, judged that a German–Soviet war was probable, and that in such a conflict Finland would participate on Germany’s side. From the presentation it became clear what vague information was the basis for this judgement. The deception measures taken to protect the planning were hard for other intelligence services, including the Swedish, to penetrate.

The Soviet military intelligence service was informed about the coming attack. Nevertheless, Stalin refused to believe that the attack on the Soviet Union would start before Great Britain was conquered.

In one area the Swedish intelligence service was considerably in the lead. In spring 1941 the Swedish signals intelligence service furnished very interesting, extensive, accurate and unique information about German military dispositions in the vicinity of Sweden.

2 Swedish signals intelligence and intelligence service before and during the Second World War ³⁾

In 1936 a resolution was passed about a new defence order which came into force on 1 July 1937. The resolution included provision for the establishment of an intelligence department, a signals intelligence department and a cryptology department.

However, the prerequisites for an effective intelligence service were not so good. Swedish intelligence services in the modern sense of the word had indeed been already established in the beginning of this century. The armed forces intelligence service had increased in 1905, during the Union crises, and in the First World War. The General Staff and Naval Staff of that time both had their own signals intelligence and cryptographic units. However, in the inter-war period less and less was done. The knowledge acquired in signals intelligence and cryptanalysis was lost. Politicians of that time did not understand the importance of a well-functioning intelligence service and consequently they did not grant any appropriations for this purpose. Nor did the Defence Commission, which was appointed in 1930 and on whose report the 1936 Defence Resolution was based, take any appreciable interest in the intelligence service. The General Staff’s foreign department did not

constitute a solid enough foundation for such a service. No special agency for cryptanalysis existed before the Defence Staff was established, although the cryptographic departments at the Naval and General Staffs had some success during the First World War. The encrypted radio traffic of the Russian Baltic Fleet could be broken to some extent. The General Staff probably broke German diplomatic traffic periodically.

The breaking may have taken place even earlier, but solid information about this is missing. These breaks, however, were probably quite sporadic and had a “chamber character”, i.e. rather amateurish.

From the summer of 1928 signals intelligence operations were carried out fairly regularly under naval direction. In the beginning it took place from the warship *Sweden* (*Sverige*) and from the summer of 1929 from several ships in the coastal fleet. From October 1929, signals intelligence activities were also carried out from naval coastal radio stations.

The first attempts to develop this branch of the intelligence service were made by the Navy. During the years 1930–31, the Naval Staff had already organized a course in cryptology and cryptanalysis. Ships in the coastal fleet started the systematic interception of foreign radio traffic in spring 1931. Later professional intercept operators were trained on the warship *Queen Victoria* (*Drottning Victoria*). The first successful attempts to break foreign cipher traffic were made in spring 1933, when they succeeded in breaking the cipher then used by the OGPU (later the KGB). These breaks into foreign military ciphers were probably the first to be made in Sweden after the First World War. The naval cryptography courses of 1930–31 were repeated in 1932–33 and 1934–35. An agreement was reached between the Naval and General Staffs to run these courses alternatively every second year.

The instruction was based on theory with special exercises. The real material available was too complicated to be used in the teaching. Even if these cryptanalysis courses did not result in real breaks, they were nevertheless of great importance as they created a small cadre of trained theoretical cryptanalysts, consisting of both active and reserve officers together with conscripted students. Later on civilians from the University of Uppsala, among others, were also trained as cryptanalysts. One of these students was the mathematics professor Arne Beurling.

When the future Defence Staff organization was analysed in 1935–36, cryptology-committed interest groups succeeded in pushing through the establishment of a department for cryptography and cryptanalysis — the crypto department. In some quarters a crypto department was considered unnecessary but, in spite of opposition, one was set up during the final stages of establishing the Defence Staff. Sections I to III were intended to deal with the cryptographic security of the Army, Navy and Air Force. The fourth section, crypto section IV, was intended to be a cryptanalytic section. Thus, the foundation was created for a central cryptanalytic organization. It was in crypto section IV that the Geheimschreiber traffic would later be broken.

Radio interception was taken care of by the Defence Staff's signals department. However, the actual signal-intercept work was completely carried out by the Navy, which was the only force with access to qualified intercept personnel.



Figure1. Dilapidated house in the back garden on Karlaplan 4.

The crypto department led an ambulatory existence during 1936–40. In the beginning, it was housed in the staff building “Grå Huset” (*The Grey House*) in Östermalmsgatan 87; later in a house on Lützengatan. [1] During the summer of 1939 the approaching war became more evident and the department intensified its mobilization preparations. At the outbreak of war it transferred to the premises of the Military Academy, where it had the top floor at its disposal. Soon it became overcrowded, which is why crypto section IV moved to a property on Karlaplan 4, consisting of a building facing

the street and a dilapidated house in the back garden. The conditions were rather primitive. The furnishing was of the utmost simplicity, consisting of folding tables and simple wooden chairs. However, it was here that the crypto department was going to perform great achievements.

3 Breaking of the German encrypted telex traffic — the breaking of the Geheimschreiber ⁴⁾

At the time of the German attack on Denmark and Norway 9 April 1940, Germany demanded that there should be no interruption of their telecommunications transmitted over Swedish lines. After a positive answer, the Germans gradually hired lines in Sweden for the connections Oslo – Copenhagen – Berlin, Oslo – Trondheim, Oslo – Narvik and Oslo – Stockholm. The German embassy in Stockholm already possessed a line for their traffic to Berlin. Later on they hired a line for the connection Stockholm – Helsingfors. The interception of the German telegraph lines was the fundamental condition for the future successful breaking of the German encrypted messages. The Swedes had, by these means, access to large quantities of genuine information. Wartime arrangements allowed foreign rented telecommunication lines passing through Swedish territory to be tapped, without breaking Swedish law.

We shall here for the first time in the open literature show the principles involved in the breaking of the Geheimschreiber. The Germans considered this cipher machine to be extremely secure, but their confidence resulted in an imaginary security. German carelessness and Professor Arne Beurling's genius exposed the secret of the Geheimschreiber.

3.1 A note about teleprinters

To facilitate an understanding of the subsequent explanations we will give a short technical review of teleprinters.

The first teleprinters were constructed at the end of the 19th century. The principles have remained largely unchanged since then. Every character transmitted consists of a combination of pulses of two types. The number of pulses in a character is always five, contrary to the varying number of pulses in the Morse code alphabet. All pulses are of the same length, and are indicated by positive or negative polarity or alternatively, current or no current. Five pulses taking on two different states give 32 different combinations, but that is not sufficient for all the characters that have to be transmitted. There therefore exists an arrangement with the same function as the letter/figure shift key on a typewriter. A combination of pulses causes all subsequent characters to be received as number or punctuation characters, and another combination signals in a similar way that all the following characters will be received as letters. Several teleprinter alphabets have existed. The one mostly used is called the Murray code after its inventor, or

the International Teleprinter Code (*International Telegraph Alphabet No. 2*). The text is punched on paper tape which is fed into the transmitter. ‘Hole’ or ‘no hole’ in the tape corresponds to ‘current’ or ‘no current’, or to ‘positive polarity’ or ‘negative polarity’.

3.2 Teleprinter encryption

Soon after the first teleprinters were put into operation, equipment for the encryption of teleprinter signals was constructed. The method first used was simple. Two identically-punched key tapes, one for the sender, the other for the receiver, are produced. They are then glued together in a loop of manageable length, about 1000 characters. The sender punches his plain text tape and places it in a tape-reader. He then comes to an agreement with the receiver about how the key tapes will be placed in their respective tape-readers, and the transmission starts. In a simple relay circuit a modulo-two addition is performed on the characters from the sender’s two tape-readers. A character on a tape can be regarded as a binary number: a combination of ‘holes’ representing ones, and ‘no holes’ representing zeros. A modulo-two addition of two such numbers signifies an addition, without carry, of each bit in corresponding positions. The result of this addition forms the cipher character that is transmitted. The same procedure is used in the receiver. After each transmitted character all tape readers are stepped one position forward and the whole process repeats. The cipher methods gradually evolved. Instead of key tapes a number of code wheels with pins were introduced, e.g. five wheels, one for each channel in the key tape. An active pin had the same function as a hole in the corresponding channel on the tape. Thus it was no longer necessary to punch the plain text on tape and then transmit it later. The teleprinter could be directly connected to the cipher equipment, hence it was possible to transmit and receive in “real time”, so saving a lot of time. In the crypto department this encryption method, consisting of adding a key character to a plain text character, irrespective of how the key character was generated, was called “overlying”. This term is used in the following text.

3.3 The Geheimschreiber

The German company Siemens developed a mechanical teleprinter cipher machine in the 1930s that was the first in a series of such machines. The generic name was “Der Geheimschreiber”, which the crypto department called “G-skrivare” (*G-writer*). In addition to the previously mentioned classical type “overlying”, it also made a permutation² of the pulse order as another encryption function.

² Permutation: A permutation of a sequence of n numbers corresponds to a reordering of the sequence. Two permutations are equal when the numbers are placed in the same order. For $n = 2$ there are two permutations (1,2) and (2,1), for $n = 3$ there are six (1,2,3), (1,3,2), (2,1,3), (2,3,1), (3,1,2) and (3,2,1). Generally it can

The crypto department later used the expression “transposition” for this permutation. A polarity inversion was made with five relays, and five others took care of the transposition. [2] The relays were controlled by ten coding wheels which, through a set of plugs and jacks, could be connected to relays in an arbitrary way. The principle of transposition of the teleprinter pulses is not suitable for all types of teleprinters. The five pulses must be available simultaneously in the transmitter and the receiver for a permutation to take place. In the transmitter this is not so difficult to arrange, but it is much more difficult in the receiver. However, Siemens had solved the problem for the receiver even without access to modern digital technology. All functions were mechanical in the cipher machines of those days. An incoming character’s five pulses, positive or negative, charged five capacitors in sequence. When the fifth pulse was received the information stored in the capacitors was simultaneously transferred to five polarized relays. These relays were part of a circuit that selected the character to be printed. During this transfer it was possible to produce a transposition by changing the connections between the capacitors and the relays.

The Geheimschreiber’s ten code wheels had the periods 47, 53, 59, 61, 64, 65, 67, 69, 71 and 73. In the first models all the wheels moved one step for each enciphered character. Since the wheel periods were relatively prime, that is they had no common factor, the total period of the machine — the number of steps the machine must make to return to its starting position — was equal to the product of all the individual wheel periods, that is 893 622 318 929 520 960 steps. This number also indicates the number of possible wheel starting positions.

The “transposition circuit”, that is the insertion of the “transposition relays” between the rows, could be varied. Eight basic patterns were possible, each with 2 612 736 000 variations. [3] The combinations of connections and wheel adjustments were, before the creation of the computer, considered to be extremely large numbers. In addition there were the number of ways of connecting the code wheels to the relays. This may have given the Germans the impression that the Geheimschreiber was a very secure cipher machine. It was probably considered to be more secure than the Enigma machine which was intended for tactical use. The Enigma had, for example, a period of 17576. [4]

The Geheimschreiber was gradually developed and several models were brought into service. The first machine the crypto department came in contact with was called T52a/b. Later T52c, d and e came into service. There were also variants of the different models. However, they were all based on the same basic principle.

At the end of 1941, a new machine designated Z appeared in the traffic. It did not belong to the A/B-series and it was called Geheimzusatz 40 [5] and

be shown that the number of permutations of n numbers is $1 \cdot 2 \cdot 3 \cdots (n-1) \cdot n = n!$ (n factorial).



Figure2. “Geheimschreiber” or “G-skrivaren” (*Schlüsselfernschreibmaschine T52c*).

not Geheimschreiber. It was a stand-alone attachment that was connected between the teleprinter and the transmission line. It could therefore have been used together with teleprinters other than the Siemens machine that the Geheimschreiber was based on.

3.4 Arne Beurling

Who was Arne Beurling? According to *Svensk Uppslagsbok* (*Swedish Encyclopaedia*) he was “Arne Karl August Beurling, born 5 February 1905, mathematician. Beurling defended his thesis in Uppsala in 1933 (*Etudes sur un problème de majoration*), senior lecturer same year, Ph.D in 1934, professor in 1937. Beurling is an ingenious and all-round scientist who has attained beautiful results in function theory, prime number theory, modern integration theory and in several other areas.” After the war Arne Beurling was offered an excellent position at Princeton University in USA in 1954. In 1965 he was given Albert Einstein’s office, No. 115, at The Institute for Advanced Study, a distinction granted to very few people. Arne Beurling died in 1986.

It is now known that Professor Arne Beurling was the man behind the breaking of the German Geheimschreiber. David Kahn writes in “*The Codebreakers*”, page 482: “Quite possibly the finest feat of cryptanalysis performed

during the Second World war was Arne Beurling's solution of the secret of the Geheimschreiber." Arne Beurling's greatness is given by the fact he had at his disposal only the teleprinter tapes with the cipher text. He had no access to any machine, no plain text and no knowledge about the logical construction of the cipher machine. Everything had to be reconstructed, something which was done in a remarkably short time.

It is known that he based his analysis on only 24 hours of traffic intercepted on 25 May 1940. A quick analysis showed that the first assumptions probably were correct. A check was made with the traffic intercepted for 27 May. Two weeks later the construction principles for the cipher machine were solved.

On the other hand it is not known how he set about it. That secret Arne Beurling took with him in the grave. However, a reconstruction has been made by FRA (*Försvarets Radioanstalt*). The credit for this reconstruction goes to Carl-Gösta Borelius who served at the Defence Staff's crypto section, later on FRA, from 1941 to 1985. Borelius' description of the reconstruction work is the basis for what is shown here.

3.5 The reconstruction

There was, of course, a procedure for indicating the Geheimschreiber key settings. One setting was the inner one, that is the selective connection [6] used for the connection between the ten code wheels and the previously mentioned inversion and transposition relays. The inner setting was in force for three to nine days, starting at 9 o'clock on the first day.

When a message was to be transmitted, the code wheels had first to be set to a given position. These settings had to be the same for both sender and receiver. The transmitting station would select a setting for five consecutive wheels. This setting was transmitted to the receiving station with a three-character so-called "QEP indicator". The five remaining wheels were set to a predetermined key value that was valid for all messages during a 24-hour period. This setting was called "QEK". The daily key list indicated which wheel would be "QEP-wheel" and which setting the "QEK-wheels" should have.

It should be pointed out that the number 3 = letter shift, 4 = figure shift and 5 = space in this teleprinter alphabet. This has great importance in the following explanation. [7]

When the transmission of a cipher message was about to start, the transmitting station would present itself with "Hier MBZ" (*MBZ here*) and would then ask if the message could proceed, "QRV". If this was the case, the receiving station answered with "KK". The transmitting station then sent "QEP" succeeded by five two-digit numbers (e.g. 12 25 18 47 52). Both operators then adjusted the wheels in their respective machines, partly the "QEK-numbers" after the key list for the current day, and partly the "QEP-numbers". When the transmitting station was ready it would transmit "UMUM" (umschalten

— *switch over*) and when the receiving station was ready it would answer “VEVE” (verstanden — *understood*). Then they switched over to cipher mode and the transmission of the text itself started. The cipher texts were consequently always preceded by “UMUM” and were therefore easy to retrieve in the large number of signals.

It is possible that Beurling had knowledge of the Siemens & Halske patent, but this is not certain. Borelius recounts that when Beurling visited FRA on 15 November 1976, he reacted strangely to questions about the first break. He evidently did not like the questions to be put. He nevertheless said that he made use of “threes” and “fives” in the texts.

Telecommunication technical problems were a great help during the breaking. The telegraph lines were long, sometimes bad, and therefore often exposed to interference, which could distort a transmitted character. The readability was nevertheless not disturbed except when the character changed to a “4” (= figure shift), because then all succeeding text became an unintelligible sequence of numbers and punctuation characters. If the distortion affected only the receiving station, the transmitting station did not notice anything, and continued the transmission. To reduce the problem, the operators normally used to write “35” (= letter shift, space) instead of only “5” (= space) between the words. Thus the consequence of a false “4” would be restored at the next space between the words.

Beurling discovered that when the plain text of “3” and “5” had one pulse the same and four different, this had also to be the case in the enciphered state. For a guessed “3” there consequently existed only five possible “5” or vice versa. It was therefore relatively easy to establish spaces between words, which would have facilitated further work. It was probably this which Beurling talked about when he alluded to “threes” and “fives”. Hence a guessed “3” gave only five possibilities for Q and V in “QRV”, which asked if the message could proceed. In this way further work was greatly eased.

It also seemed natural to suppose that a part of the encryption process consisted of a transposition of the five-pulse-characters pulse positions. A number of comparisons could give the transposition arrangement.

Beurling tried in this case to trace back the cipher character to its appearance before the transposition. Then he made his next observation. The change from one character in the plain text to a cipher character after the “overlying” consisted of a change in polarity for some of the pulses of the plain text character, and for all characters in a column it is always the same character that changes.

We can assume that Beurling now introduced his observations on his “work sheets” (*“avvecklings-papper”*).³ In five rows under the examined text he placed in every column a dot for pulses with inverted polarity and a

³ Avveckling: A technical term for the elements of work that took place between the interception of a message and until the plain text could be extracted. That is, the work consisted of extracting the current cipher key.

circle for those that did not change. When the emerging five-dot combination resembled a teleprinter character, it was called an “overlying” character. Under this character was written the permutation order, that is the so-called transposition. Gradually it was detected that the pattern of circles and dots in the five rows of the “overlying” repeated after a number of characters. Beurling then supposed that the pattern was produced by pin-wheels like those in the Swedish cipher machine, invented by Boris Hagelin.

Subsequently he continued the work with the transposition. It turned out that if for example “pulse 2” ended up on “place 3” then the fourth circuit connection had to be open, otherwise it was not possible. If this circuit connection was controlled by a wheel with even distribution of active and inactive pins, the pulse would end up on “place 3” in half of the events, in the rest it would fall on some other place. A converse conclusion should have been possible, using an inverted argument. The complete circuit and hence the details of the remaining wheels were obtained through hypothesis tests. By these means Beurling would have got the break that revealed the Geheimschreiber secret, as Borelius’ reconstruction shows.

3.6 Imperfections, errors and laziness

It has been mentioned earlier that the telecommunication connections were bad. But it was not only single characters that were distorted and therefore gave an opening for breaking.

The abundant number of “parallel texts”, that is an enciphered text sent several times with the same key setting on the cipher machine, were a big help in breaking the Geheimschreiber. In extreme cases the same message was sent 20 to 40 times with the same setting. How could this happen? One of the basic rules of cryptological security is never to send the same or a different message with the same key setting. Bad connections and distortions together with laziness gave many openings of this type.

The keying procedures have already been described. It takes a certain time to adjust the wheels by hand. To facilitate the adjustment of the “QEK-wheels”, that is the current key for the day, there existed a cursor that easily could be moved around on the wheel and positioned on an arbitrary key number.

The wheels could be freed with a locking arm. All the wheels could be turned backwards with a handle until their cursors came to a home position when the wheel stopped. This handle sat on the right on the front of the machine under a plate with the inscription “LANGSAM DREHEN” (*turn slowly*). The idea was that every morning the cursors would be set on the five wheels that were intended for the daily key (the QEK-wheels). Later these wheels could quickly be returned to their agreed positions before every new transmission. Unfortunately it became a habit that even when the “QEP-numbers” were set, the cursors were set to the key values and then

the wheels were cranked back. This was against the existing rules, as new “QEP-numbers” should be selected for every new message.

Since the lines were long and sometimes poor there were often distortions. These sometimes caused one of the machines to interpret the distortion as a character. The operator of the other machine would not notice anything. One of the machines would then be one step ahead of the other. The cipher machines were no longer in phase and the message became unintelligible. When this happened, it was necessary to break the transmission, switch over to plain text, choose a new message key and continue the transmission.

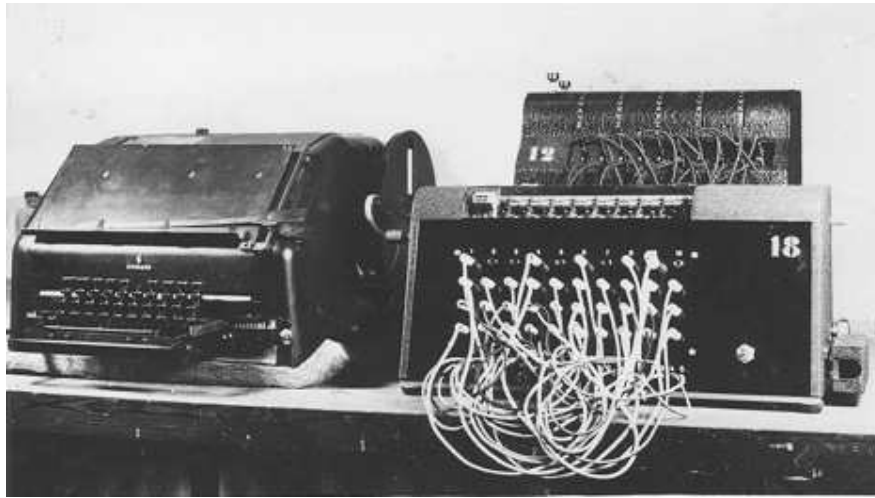


Figure3. Decryption unit for German line traffic, ex. “APP”.

Now the big mistake was made. For each break in the transmission of a message due to continuous distortions on the line, the operators chose the easy solution of simply cranking back the wheels to the previous setting. In this way the cryptanalysts got their parallel texts with all their errors and flaws which gave a large number of opportunities for breaking it. The high security of the Geheimschreiber became therefore in many ways simply illusory.

3.7 Interception and preparation

As mentioned earlier, the traffic on the German hired telecommunication lines through Sweden was intercepted. It was quickly discovered that apart from plain text, encrypted text was also transmitted. When Beurling found how the Geheimschreiber functioned, Swedish technicians under the leadership of

Viggo Bergström started to construct special machines for decryption after directions from Beurling. [8] These machines very soon made it possible to follow the frequent changes in cipher keys and subsequently quickly extract the plain text. The machines were later built in quite large numbers in L.M. Ericson's workshop for precision mechanics.

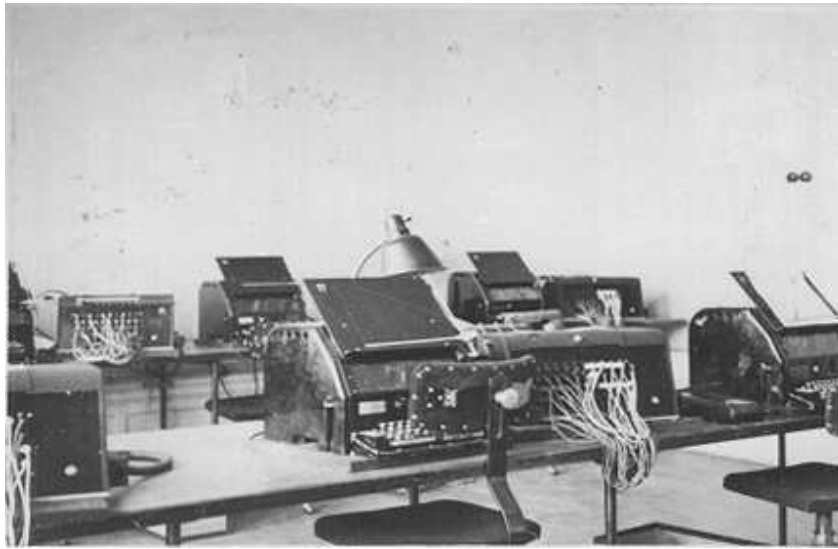


Figure4. The decryption units, “APPARNA”, at their working places.

The German Geheimschreiber traffic was broken and deciphered from June 1940 until May 1943. This went on even when new models were introduced and the key procedures were gradually changed.

The intercepts came from a number of teleprinters in a room in Karlaplan 4 which were connected to the different lines between Germany – Norway, Sweden and Finland. The machines, which were very noisy, were supervised 24 hours a day. The texts came out in a never-ending stream of paper tapes, which were then glued on to big sheets of paper.

The daily routine was the following: In the morning (after 9 o'clock, when the daily key was changed) the cryptanalysts examined the incoming traffic, waiting for a case with sufficiently many “parallel texts” to occur. As soon as possible, the cipher key extraction (“avvecklingen”) took place. When the new key settings were produced they were given to the staff who worked with the deciphering machines, and the deciphering of the day's harvest could start. Subsequently the plain texts were cleaned up and typed. They were later given to the various consumers of intelligence.

As mentioned above, two types of traffic were observed and studied. The most extensive were the military traffic and the traffic between Berlin and



Figure 5. In the machine room. (*Room with teleprinter-receiving machines connected to the intercepted lines.*)

the embassy in Stockholm. The diplomatic traffic had the highest priority, as this concerned Swedish–German relations. At least two key settings therefore had to be determined every day.

At first, the teleprinters used in Karlaplan 4 were machines from the American firm Teletype. Teleprinters were, however, in short supply as importing them was difficult during the war. However, the Royal Telecommunication Administration (*Kgl. Telegrafverket*) were persuaded to surrender a number of their teleprinters, which resulted in a return to Morse telegraphy on some lines. When the crypto department later succeeded in obtaining a batch of Siemens teleprinters, these replaced the Teletype machines, which was certainly reasonable considering their use.

As mentioned earlier, when newer versions of the Geheimschreiber were later introduced, attachment units were constructed and connected to some of the deciphering machines that were used for the C model traffic. For the Z-traffic only one deciphering machine was built. [9]

Large quantities of messages were decrypted and distributed. This extensive traffic resulted in an increase in the number of staff. The number of teleprinters and deciphering machines also increased until they reached a total of 32.

The decryption of the Geheimschreiber traffic developed gradually into a real industry needing a lot of people. In 1941 the staff increased to 500 people and later on it became even bigger from time to time.

Table1. Number of distributed messages.

| Year | Encrypted | Unspecified | Unencrypted | Total |
|-------|-----------|-------------|-------------|--------|
| 1940 | | 7100 | | 7100 |
| 1941 | | 41400 | | 41400 |
| 1942 | 101000 | | 19800 | 120800 |
| 1943 | 86600 | | 13000 | 99600 |
| 1944 | | 29000 | | 29000 |
| Total | 187600 | 77500 | 32800 | 297900 |

The highest number of messages distributed in one day (October 1943): 678.

The breaking of the Geheimschreiber was a large contributory factor to the establishment of FRA (formed from the Defence Staff's signals and crypto departments) as an independent authority on 1 July 1942.

In May 1943 the keying principle was changed with the result that further deciphering became impossible. A small group stayed on to handle those messages that for different reasons had not been deciphered earlier.

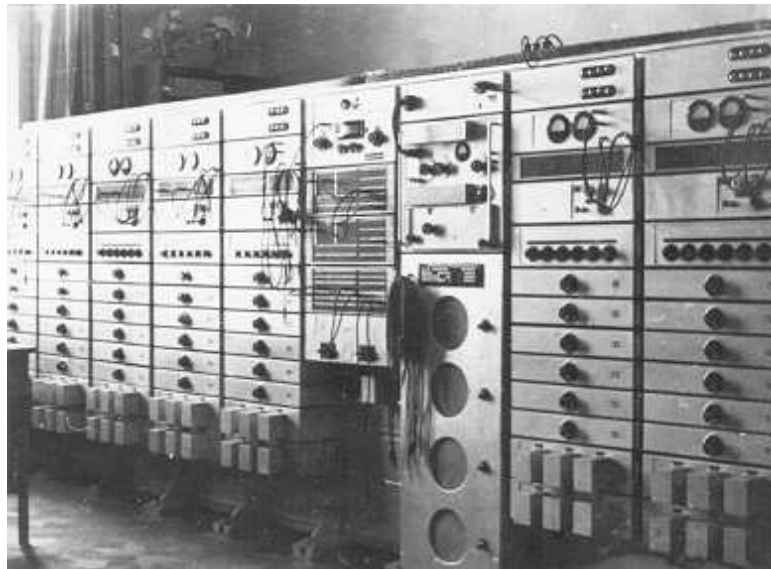


Figure6. View from the rack room. (*Room with equipment racks where the intercepted telecommunication lines entered.*)

4 On the eve of Operation Barbarossa: How was the intelligence used? ⁵⁾

What has just been described, it must be emphasised, was a spectacular performance even on an international scale. As far as known the Siemens Geheimschreiber was not broken in any other country. [10] It was also an extraordinary yield based on a relatively limited investment. Beurling's reluctance to explain how he did it could be due to the fact that he solved the problem so easily and quickly that he found it too easy to arrive at the solution. But in reality genius shows itself in simplicity and its accompanying excellence.



Figure7. Another view from the rack room.

In 1940 the crypto department had been developed with mostly rather new staff. Its technical and organizational achievements were therefore considerable, since during autumn that year it began to distribute German messages in ever-increasing numbers. German unit compositions and their position, together with military and political deliberations and directives were in this way known to the Swedish authorities, sometimes almost at the same time as the real addressee.

The German traffic was not particularly alarming during the autumn of 1940. Hitler was hardly interested in Sweden politically. The planning for the attack on the Soviet Union was still in its infancy. The directives for Operation Barbarossa were first drawn up in December 1940. This gave

the crypto department a respite that was used to build up and render more effective the breaking, analysis and delivery routines. The Defence Staff could therefore prepare methods for handling the decrypted material at a time when it was not under any particular pressure.

Texts “of strategic importance or of an obviously secret nature” were delivered directly to Adlercreutz, as chief of the intelligence department, who normally submitted them to his superiors Commander-in-Chief General Olof Thörnell and the chief of the Defence Staff Major-General Axel Rappe. Then the texts went to the intelligence department’s own sections. Routine messages went there directly. Afterwards the messages were burned, apart from those judged to have long-term value or that were of great strategic importance. Otherwise, distribution within the Defence Staff was very restricted. A distribution list was never established. The material was delivered to the recipient after an assessment in each particular case. (Comment: Destruction of the decrypted original texts has probably created problems for modern historical research.)

Distribution outside the Defence Staff, to the Foreign Office and the Security Service, took place in the beginning through Adlercreutz’s personal service. The distribution to UD (*Utrikesdepartementet = Foreign Office*) was very restricted as Adlercreutz doubted the Foreign Office’s security consciousness. However, that the co-operation between the Foreign Office and the crypto department was as good as it became, was due to the fact that foreign minister Richard Sandler (1932–1939, later governor of Gävle) was a very keen amateur cryptologist although, as a cryptanalyst he had no real success. His great services consisted of arranging for UD to inform the crypto department when important events were under way and when encrypted messages might be sent to Germany. This could assist the cryptanalysts, by allowing them to check that the decrypts were correct. [11]

Different considerations contrasted with each other here. The necessity to deliver information to suitable Swedish authorities conflicted with the requirements for secrecy in order to minimize the risk of betrayal of this unique intelligence source.

As the decryption work was done by a department of the Defence Staff, Adlercreutz wanted the intelligence department to be the first to receive all information and even to have a right to direct the work in the crypto department. However the crypto department successfully resisted these attempts to boost the intelligence department’s power.

In the beginning, few objections were raised against Adlercreutz’s control over distribution. But when the German preparations for Operation Barbarossa eventually came to their final stage, the Foreign Office started to feel that they did not get all the intelligence that they needed. The chief of the crypto department then decided to change the distribution routines after consultation with the Foreign Office, who also suspected that they did not get all the information in time.

During the winter of 1941 the incoming information became more and more alarming for Sweden, much more so than during the autumn and winter of 1940. However, it was now possible to get a continuously clear view from the decrypts of the groups, composition and combat readiness of the German forces in Norway and therefore also of changes in the situation. A lengthy force enumeration, intercepted on 21 April 1941, indicated a general movement of troops towards the north. Nevertheless, as on previous occasions no concentrations or deployment could be shown to be directed against Sweden. Nor was there any indication in the numerous reports from military border patrols, customs officers, police commissioners and officials interrogating Norwegian refugees that a German offensive against Sweden was imminent. The decrypted diplomatic traffic gave no special reason for alarm. The repeated German threatening warnings to Swedish contacts were reflected neither in the incoming intelligence nor in their own signals. During a period when German–Soviet tensions increased rapidly, it was nevertheless impossible to ignore the warnings. The government, principally the prime minister and the foreign minister, as well as the military command, were not prepared to cause trouble and accordingly create German irritation. It was not therefore apparent that they reckoned with a German–Soviet war.

Many analysts consider that war preparations serve only as instruments of pressure during negotiations. However, that ignore the dynamics of future military developments which are created by a deployment as large as that which occurred here. Economic factors and military logistics make it almost impossible to keep large, inactive troop concentrations in place as a trump card during long negotiations, just as it is damaging for the units' fighting spirit. It is too expensive not to use the troops, therefore they must either be used in combat or be demobilized and returned to civilian life. Only victory justifies the price — even if it is high. For example, consider the collapse of the economic, political and ecological systems now affecting the states of the former Soviet Union as a consequence, during a long period, of a highly forced “war economy” that did not result in any gains.

On 4 June a message was received indicating that strong German forces would in the near future be transferred east of Rovaniemi in northern Finland. Units would come from Germany as well as from Norway. The deployment was to be ready for 15 June. However, no demands on Sweden for the transit of troops could be gathered from the messages. Two divisions would be transferred by sea to Stettin, then in turn to Oslo and on to Rovaniemi.

The information in the decrypted messages clearly indicated a German attack on the Soviet Union.

On 11 June three further messages came which showed that this assumption was probably correct, as well as other intelligence revealing that Finland could not avoid becoming involved in the war. On 16 June came a teleprinter message that AOK (*Armeeoberkommando*) Norwegen had taken military command of Finnish Lappland and that the troop transports were going as planned. The same day, 16 June, the teleprinter connection Berlin

– Helsingfors via Stockholm was established following an earlier request. In spite of different speculations about a negotiated agreement, the incoming messages in the week before 27 June increasingly pointed towards an imminent outbreak of war.

Despite the intelligence, the Defence Staff did not cancel leave for the mid-summer weekend. An assessment that there would be a negotiated settlement, which would not require a high military preparedness, clearly had some validity. However, it is also possible that when the assessment was made that the war would not affect Sweden, it was more important to conceal the possession of this extraordinary source, which consisted of access to the Geheimschreiber traffic. Perhaps, therefore, they took it easy and allowed themselves to be “taken by surprise”.

5 What happened later?

When and how was the unique source exposed? ⁶⁾

The decrypted German messages had, as mentioned earlier, been the most valuable sources during the weeks before the German attack on the Soviet Union on 22 June 1941. This would remain the position for a few years. With the attack, the teleprinter traffic to the German commands in Oslo and Rovaniemi, as well as the diplomatic traffic Stockholm – Berlin increased. The information received by the Swedish authorities became more detailed than before.

During the first year, from summer 1941 to summer 1942, when the German campaign against the Soviet Union took place, the decryption of the German teleprinter traffic provided extraordinary intelligence. German military plans and German politics towards Sweden could be clarified with the utmost certainty. However, no reliable knowledge was obtained about Adolf Hitler’s political and strategic intentions. Intelligence throwing any light on the innermost reasoning of the people close to Hitler rarely or never existed.

The supreme army commands in Oslo and Rovaniemi did not command any of the decisive operations of German warfare. Hitler therefore seldom interfered in what went on in these theatres of operations. Nevertheless, even if the embassy in Stockholm and the commands in Norway and northern Finland were on the periphery of German interests, the intercepted internal German briefings and compilations had a great intelligence value for Sweden.

Adlercreutz’s restrictions on distributing the decrypts to external recipients, except for the senior officers of the Defence Staff and the Intelligence Department, were mainly aimed at not exposing this exclusive source. Special instructions about other aspects of handling the material were issued in September 1941 by Samuel Åkerhielm in his capacity as deputy chief of the Defence Staff. The purpose was, of course, not to reveal the source. The decrypted messages had to be communicated and handled in secure ways. It was not permitted to refer to this material in conversations, and even less so

on the telephone or in writing. When the messages were no longer needed, they had to be burned in controlled conditions.

The German confidence in the Geheimschreiber's security was, as explained earlier, an illusion. However, even the Swedish belief that the Geheimschreiber's secret still was a secret, except in Sweden, soon also became an illusion.

Some time in August 1941 the Soviet Union obtained access to the decrypted material. The courier Allan Emanuel Nyblad had the task of transporting the decrypted messages from Karlaplan 4 to the Staff building "Grå Huset" on Östermalmsgatan 87. He was a rather quiet man. He had been recruited as an agent, on ideological grounds, by the Soviet Union. The espionage was carried out in the following manner. On his way to the Grå Huset, Nyblad went to a rented flat situated along his usual route and photographed the messages he carried. The photos were given to the Soviet representatives, who had promised Nyblad a prominent position in a future communistic Sweden. He is not likely either to have received or demanded any money worth mentioning.

It is a reasonable assumption that the Soviet intelligence services (the NKVD and GRU) followed the Swedish success with interest. Moscow must have welcomed the likelihood that Sweden, with the aid of the intelligence, would take as strong as possible a position against Germany. But at the same time, the decrypted texts could also create doubts about Swedish power and will to withstand the German pressure.

Here we may reflect that the Soviet Union was taken by total surprise in 1941. During spring 1941 information about the coming German attack was leaked from Sweden to Great Britain (via the naval attaché) who passed on the information to the Soviet Union. However, General Golikov, then the chief of the GRU (the military intelligence service), actively contributed to the surprise by playing down the warnings from western sources, especially British, for reasons of political expediency. (The British intelligence service, SIS or MI 6, had until the Second World War primarily been working against the Soviet Union. Distrust can therefore be considered to be the explanation.)

Nyblad's spying was exposed in January 1942. It could not be exactly established which messages came into Russian hands through Nyblad, as he could not remember clearly on which days he had copied the material (T. Thorén) [12]. It is not known whether the Soviet Union derived any benefit from the information.

Less than six months after Nyblad's spying stopped, the Defence Staff discovered a new leak about the successful Swedish codebreaking activities. This time the leak soon had devastating consequences.

On 22 June 1942, Colonel Carl Björnstjerna, chief of the newly created foreign affairs section, which was directly subordinated to the chief of the Defence Staff, wrote to Major-General von Stedingk, the military attaché in Helsingfors, "A serious mishap has taken place. The Germans have been

warned by the Finns that we have succeeded in breaking their G-schreiber. For this reason they are changing keys, message channels and everything . . .”.

No contemporary information exists about how “the serious mishap” happened. However, one need not be surprised. Swedish service personnel had been so open towards their Finnish colleagues that a leak was made possible. The openness shown during the winter of 1941, when it was conceivable that both Sweden and Finland could have common defence interests, continued after the summer of 1941. The Finnish military attaché, Colonel Stewen, was even treated like an insider in the higher Swedish staffs, and the Germans suspected him of communicating sensitive information to Sweden, who they presumed then passed it on to the USA and Great Britain. However, it was equally possible that both of these great powers were capable of acquiring the alleged “leaked information” themselves. When the Germans criticized their Finnish colleagues for gossiping, the latter defended themselves by revealing that the Swedes had intercepted the teleprinter connections and were breaking the messages. It is even possible that Colonel Stewen had seen decrypted messages; at least he knew about them. The Finnish intelligence about the Swedish codebreaking activity probably reached the Germans some days before 17 June 1942, when the big alert hit the German communications. In the beginning, the counter-measures were quite incoherent, but they were soon concentrated in two directions. One consisted of introducing new cipher machines or attachments to them.

On 21 July 1942 a new machine appeared in the traffic, T52c, “Cäsar”. In the beginning it appeared on only a few lines, while on the others the old machine remained in use. As time went, more and more C-machines were put into operation.

At first inspection the C-machine appeared to be completely normal. When the crypto department received parallel texts it could attack these as before, but the texts no longer fitted the previously known patterns. The sequences were no longer periodic or they had at least no short periods. Was this a new encryption method?

At last the crypto department hit upon the solution. Two texts had been solved and it appeared that two “pin series” were identical in the long sequences. They had already earlier worked on the hypothesis that the seemingly infinite sequences were generated by addition, modulo-two, of the results of two wheels and hence obtained very long periods. The identical sequences allowed this hypothesis to be tested. This had failed earlier. Was it true that the old A/B-machines’ QEK-settings also were used in the C-machine? It was known that the C-machine could be used like the A/B-machine. For the A/B-machine they knew which five code-wheels were QEK-wheels, and also the settings. They then combined the wheels two by two in the ten combinations, but that did not work. However, when this procedure was repeated by leaving out four of the wheels it turned out to be correct. In this way it was possible to reveal the functioning of the C-machine.

The Germans had in a hurry made the mistake of keeping an element from an older, simpler system in a new cipher system. In the C-machine they used the same wheel-lengths and pin-patterns as in the A/B-machine and the keying principle was the same. They should have made the new machine completely independent of the old one, but it is likely that production difficulties created obstacles. The A/B-machine could be connected to the C-machine. Therefore the quick change of machines did not have any appreciable effect.

The other counter-measure taken by the Germans consisted in avoiding transmitting particularly important messages over Swedish telecommunication lines. It was therefore no longer possible to maintain the excellent intelligence about the German armed forces in Norway and Finland. A further deterioration occurred in October 1942 when all teleprinter traffic to and from Oslo and Rovaniemi was sent over Danish–Norwegian, or Finnish–Baltic cables. In certain cases cables were laid specially for this purpose. However, the teleprinter traffic to and from the German Embassy in Stockholm could still be intercepted and broken.

In October 1942 the Germans ordered the introduction of so-called “Wahlwörter” (*randomly chosen words*). The idea was actually sound. It is a good cryptological practice to avoid stereotype beginnings, which are usually where the codebreaker starts to look for an entry. The “QET-texts” were of course necessarily monotonous. Now the text would begin with a “Wahlwort” and in this way move the stereotype, fixed text further on to an undefined place in the message. However, the good intention failed. Many people follow instructions to the letter. Most people used the word given as an example in the instruction, which probably was SONNENSCHEN (sunshine), as it occurred very often at first. Some managed to produce the word MONDSCHEN (moonlight). The record was the word DONAUDAMPFSCHIFFSFARTSGESSELLSCHAFTSKAPITÄN (*Danubesteamshipcompanycaptain*). When the procedure with Wahlwörter was used correctly it became more difficult, but not impossible, to decrypt the incoming messages.

In May 1943 such radical changes in the keying procedures were introduced that codebreaking became almost impossible. The breaking of the Geheimschreiber’s teleprinter messages therefore diminished considerably. A smaller group was left on the task to try, if possible, to do something with the current material. Otherwise they were engaged in decrypting older material that had not been dealt with earlier, and in following the traffic.

During 1944 the Geheimschreiber appeared in versions D and E and a mysterious machine called Y. The crypto department never succeeded in breaking these machines. Models D and E were further developments of the machines that carried the designations A, B and C. The Y-machine [13] could perhaps have been a further development of the Z-(Zusatz)gerät (*Z-(additional)device = Z-attachment*). But, as just mentioned, the traffic transmitted with these machines could never be decrypted, only followed.

Other leaks also occurred, but were never of any significance. It was the Finnish military attaché in Stockholm, Colonel Stewen, who exposed the secret.

6 Experiences and lessons ⁷⁾

When the new Defence Staff started functioning on 1 July 1937 the conditions were not the best for the intelligence and crypto departments. They did not have a solid foundation to build on. The procedures applied in the intelligence department were rather simple: namely, they were suited to producing compilations of open material and to making glossaries. Incoming messages from signals intelligence and e.g. attachés were passed on “in extenso” to the concerned parties without making any overall assessments and conclusions. This was left to the individual reader. The information was therefore not turned into intelligence.

The crypto department worked under very frugal conditions during its first development phase. However, through considerable efforts, where limited means were used in the best possible way, impressive results were achieved.

Swedish military intelligence collection deserves very good marks for the period just before Operation Barbarossa and during its opening phase. The Swedish military attaché in Helsingfors had given a warning in good time about a German attack on the Soviet Union in which Finnish participation was highly probable. The continuous decryption of the Geheimschreiber’s messages also indicated clearly and unambiguously an imminent outbreak of war.

No inquiry will probably ever be conducted to see if the organization was a pure military endeavour, or a common one for the foreign department and the military commands to study and analyse the incoming information jointly. At least no documents exist showing this to be the position. Evidently it was considered adequate to circulate attaché reports and decrypted messages without any attached intelligence evaluation. However, the most essential messages were probably discussed by representatives from the Foreign Office and the military commands at their weekly meetings which they started in the beginning of April 1941.

Yet the incoming information gave the impression that Sweden would not be pulled into the war on the German side. The Swedish government and the commander-in-chief were therefore not surprised on 22 June 1941 as they had been on 9 April 1940. Nor was it necessary for Sweden to take any precipitate measures. They could afford to lie low and show surprise in order not to expose the exclusive source of the decrypted German teleprinter messages. No information exists about this, but the view is not unreasonable.

As mentioned, no organization existed for compilation, study, analysis and synthesis in preparing intelligence evaluations. Nor was the establishment of such an organization considered. The assessment of the circulating messages’

intelligence value and the conclusions were left to the individual readers, whether with good or bad results.

Any long-term analysis and assessment of the war's course and end was never carried out, but considering the turbulent developments ahead that was perhaps best.

When one looks back to see whether it is possible to learn from that time's events one must also take into consideration the classical dilemma of a professional intelligence service. Incoming intelligence rarely or never gives information about planning prerequisites, considerations and objectives of the supreme command's inner circles, and even less about chosen alternatives. For this to be possible one must have access to a traitor or a planted spy in the enemy's supreme command (e.g. the CIA's Oleg Penkovski in the Soviet Union or Mossad's Eli Cohen in Syria). Normally one is simply reduced to using information which can give intelligence about possible actions and when they are likely to be realized. When different readers, each studying from varying positions, preconceived opinions and needs to assert his preserve, draws intelligent conclusions from raw information which will be the basis for decisions, the result can be disastrous. The lonely decision-maker may very well take non-optimal, irrational decisions. However, if the decision is made in full session, the delay caused by the decision-making process can produce catastrophic consequences before everybody agrees after a long discussion. These are two of the conditions for a strategic attack to succeed, like the German attack on Denmark and Norway. A third risk also exists. A joint, balanced intelligence estimate, which is carried out by a whole organization, can in the end be so diluted that it has no value for the decision-maker. The balance between the different extremes demands a lot from those carrying out intelligence work, irrespective of grade or service rank. It should also be pointed out that it is nearly impossible to assess all undercurrents influencing a historic event so as to make a forecast. Unknown as well as known events, which an intelligence service will not be able to interpret and describe, can create unknown forms of interference in a chain of events so that they can hardly be predicted.

7 Conclusion

On New Year's Eve 1941, Sweden was seemingly in the same geostrategic situation as the year before. However, a change in the wind was under way. In front of Moscow's gates, the Germans' storm wave had collapsed when Marshal Zhukov's Siberian troops launched a violent counter-attack on 6 December 1941. The Red Army had good help from "General Winter", who would assist in several winters to come. But in reality the strategic initiative was on its way to slipping out of German hands. However, it would take a whole year before this became evident for the world, when a complete German army was annihilated near Volga.

On 7 December 1941, the day after the counter-attack outside Moscow, Japan attacked the American fleet in Pearl Harbor. With that an industrial giant arose in terrible anger — an anger that in the end would turn the fortunes of war.

In the Second World War, the breaking of the cipher from the German Enigma machines and the Japanese Purple machines [14] was of crucial importance. The considerably greater intellectual effort needed to break the Geheimschreiber messages, which was accomplished in Sweden, did not in any way have the same decisive significance for the war. Therefore this accomplishment has not been so well known. However, from a Swedish perspective, it was of considerable importance as it actively contributed to keep Sweden out of the war.

8 Bibliography

Unpublished documents

Documents of various types concerning the breaking of the Geheimschreiber in FRA's secret archives.

Published works

Carlgren, Wilhelm M, *Svensk underrättelsetjänst 1939–1945*, Stockholm 1985.
Kahn, David, *The Codebreakers*, New York 1967.

Annotation

The publication of information from FRA's archives has taken place with due permission.

9 Notes

1. Where no other source is given, the account is based on information from Försvarets Radioanstalt's (FRA) documents.
2. Carlgren, p. 32.
3. Resumé of experts in FRA's documents, compare with Kahn, p. 478.
4. After Carl Gösta Borelius' unpublished documents in FRA's archive.
5. Carlgren, p. 68.
6. Carlgren, p. 80, compare with Borelius' documents.
7. Carlgren, p. 179.

10 Translator's Notes

1. Both of these addresses are in Stockholm. The majority of the FRA installations were in or around Stockholm, many of them adopting names with the ending "bo" which means room or house. On Lidingö, a small island on the eastern side of Stockholm, there were altogether five different FRA installations. Krybo and Rabo where FRA intercepted radio traffic and did cryptanalytical work, Petsamo which intercepted radio teleprinter traffic, Utbo for training intercept operators, and Matbo ("the food house") where there was a restaurant and housing quarters. In Stockholm city were Karlbo, Karlaplan 4, and Lebo on Strandvägen 57 which housed the FRA administration. Elsewhere in the country there were a few intercept stations and other installations. Sydbo intercepted Baltic radio traffic, while Norbo covered the Arctic radio traffic and traffic on the Finnish–German–Russian fronts. Ostbo covered the eastern parts of the Baltic Sea, the Baltic States and Poland.
2. The author refers to the use of relays for the inversion and the transposition circuits, which is how Carl-Gösta Borelius describes the circuits in his manuscript. However, only the T52c and T52e machines used relays for these circuits. The other machines, T52a/b and T52d, used the cam contacts on each coding wheel. The term "transposition circuit" reflects the cryptographic usage; mathematically speaking the circuit performs a permutation.
3. The number of combinations given by the author, $2\,612\,736\,000 = 10! \cdot 720$, is presumably the number of ways the 10 coding wheels can be selected and the number of permutation sets that can be obtained from the transposition circuit. This circuit has five double changeover contacts or transposition units which will give a total number of 2^5 permutations, which we call a permutation set, for a given set of connections. Furthermore, there are $9 \cdot 7 \cdot 5 \cdot 3 \cdot 1 = 945$ ways that the five contact sets, each equipped with two plug connections, can be inserted into the transposition circuit. Computer simulations show that each of these 945 connection variants results in unique permutation sets. However, the majority of the permutation sets, a total of 561, are degenerate in the sense that each set contains only from 1 to 16 unique permutations. The case of the set with only one single permutation is special because it is the identity permutation. Of the remaining 384 sets, 24 sets have 27 unique permutations, 240 sets 30 permutations and 120 sets contain all the 32 permutations. Inspection of a *Wehrmacht* SFM T52d Key table from May 1945 shows that all of the permutation connections belong to the two groups with 30 and 32 unique permutations, which means that in reality only 360 permutation sets were used by the German cryptographers during this period. The given number of 720 permutation sets probably is the result of a too superficial analysis of the T52 transposition circuit. The pluggable permutation units are only available on the T52a/b and T52d machines. On the T52c and T52e machines the transposition cir-

cuit uses relays instead of directly using the code wheel contacts. The five relays are permanently wired in one of the most basic permutation configurations. Therefore the only selection available on these machines is which code wheel controls the different transposition relays.

4. Due to an anomaly of the rotor movement in the Enigma machine, the middle rotor will step twice every time the left rotor advances. Therefore the period is $26 \times 25 \times 26 = 16900$ instead of $26 \times 26 \times 26 = 17576$, but the machine has a total of 17576 starting positions.
5. The translator previously believed that FRA had confused the terminology. The early Siemens T52a/b machine (1937) was called *Geheimzusatz* while the Lorenz SZ40 and SZ42 machines were called *Schlüsselzusatz* (cipher attachment). However, recent archive research has shown that the German teleprinter operators used the term *G-Zusatz* for the SZ 40/42 machines.⁴ The following communication was decoded by Bletchley Park on the link they named *Stickleback* (Berlin – H.Gr. Südukraine) on 13 September 1944:

”Do you have a *G-Zusatz* 40 available? *Fundament* 40? ... So you have no 40 *G-Zusatz* any longer ... good ... many thanks ... a *Fundament* ... So you have a forty'er after all ... good ... good.”

Fundament 40 and 42 were used by the operators to refer to the SZ40 and SZ42 machines. Later this usage would cease and instead would appear *Fundament A* and *Fundament B*. These two terms would refer to the SZ42A and SZ42B variants. The dialogue above shows nevertheless that all these cryptic terms for the different machines were not understood by all. The use of the Z designation for the SZ40 machine probably comes from the German use of the letter Z to describe this machine while setting up an encrypted communication circuit. To set up encrypted communication with the T52a/b they would transmit in clear the Q-code “QEK”, while for communication with the T52c and the SZ40 machines they would transmit “QEK C” and “QEK Z” respectively.
6. The author uses the term “transposition connection”, which is correct in the sense that it transposes the function of a given code wheel, but it is a term likely to be confused with the machine’s permutation circuit or the transposition unit. The translator has therefore decided to call this part the selective or programmable connection.
7. Because the enciphered text can contain any of the 32 possible teleprinter combinations, including the six control signals, the teleprinters used for interception had to be modified. In these specially modified teleprinters the signals *carriage return*, *line feed*, *letters*, *figures*, *space* and *null* were replaced with the numbers 1,2,3,4,5 and 6. All the other combinations were represented by their corresponding letter as normal. The British codebreakers at Bletchley Park (BP) used a similar arrangement where

⁴ “Log Procedure Relating to The Use of “Limitation” on Non-Morse Army Links”, addendum to Captain Walter J. Fried’s report No. 118 of 21 Nov. 1944. NARA RG 457, NSA Historical Collection, Box 880, Nr. 2612.

- they replaced the six control signals by the characters *4, 3, 8 or -, 5 or +, 9 or . and /*. See Appendix A.
8. The construction of the decryption units, Apparna, was led by engineer Vigo Lindstein of L.M. Ericson's cash register department. He would later join Hagelin's Cryptoteknik as technical chief and eventually end up as deputy director of AB Transvertex, another Swedish cipher manufacturer.
 9. The breaking of the SZ40 machine was based on intercepted cable traffic, while intercepted radio transmissions later allowed the Swedish cryptanalysts to break the more modern SZ42. The cable traffic covered the period from 26 November 1941 until March 1943 and the first Swedish break into the SZ40 took place on 9 April 1943.
 10. The codebreakers at Bletchley Park made a break into the Siemens T52 machine during the summer of 1942. They had followed the use of this machine that BP called Sturgeon for some time. The T52 machine was mainly used on radio teleprinter links belonging to the German Air Force and the German Navy. Due to a question of priorities BP allocated their resources on the German Army links that used the Lorenz SZ40 and SZ42 machines. However, the Swedish codebreakers were the first to break the Siemens T52 machines.
 11. It is more likely that the crypto department was looking for probable words or "cribs" than testing for correct decryption.
 12. The author refers here to Commodore Torgil Thorén, the chief of the Defence Staff's crypto department. The review of the Nyblad case is part of Thorén's analysis, which is included as Appendix 6 in the 1946 report "Investigation into the Defence Staff's handling of decrypted messages from FRA".
 13. In his book, Bengt Beckman explains that the Y or QEKY machine was the Siemens one-time-tape machine T-43 which towards the end of the war was used on radio communication circuits that also used the SZ40/42.
 14. The Japanese machines, Purple, Coral and Jade, were used for high-level diplomatic communications and therefore never carried the same kind of tactically important traffic that was the case for the Enigma. Nevertheless, intelligence from these machines was important for the conduct of the war, and the reports from Japan's ambassador in Germany, Hiroshi Ōshima, contained much information of great strategic value.

11 Translator's Postscript

Lars Ulfving's account of Swedish codebreaking during the Second World War has largely been superseded by Bengt Beckman's book *Svenska kryptobedrifter (Swedish Crypto Achievements)*, [5,41] as Lars Ulfving himself acknowledges. Ulfving's account, which is largely based on Carl-Gösta Borelius' internal FRA history, cannot be compared with Beckman's complete historical treatment of Swedish cryptography. Bengt Beckman, who is the former chief of FRA's cryptanalytical department, interviewed many people who

were directly or indirectly involved in FRA's work during the war and had full access to the archives. He did not participate in FRA's wartime work, since he joined the organisation in 1946. However, he personally knows most, if not all, of those who took part.

Although, Lars Ulfving had limited access to the FRA archives and sources he did a good job with the material at his disposal. A strong point in his presentation is the setting of the cryptological exploits in their true historical context, which shows their importance for Swedish defence and foreign policy. However, it lacks a more profound explanation of the cryptanalytical problems and the personal histories of those who were involved.

Arne Beurling has a central place in both Lars Ulfving's presentation and Bengt Beckman's book, which he clearly merits. Arne Beurling was in many ways Sweden's and FRA's Alan Turing. Like Turing he was a genius who always worked from first principles and received great pleasure in seeking simple solutions to problems. However, unlike Turing, he was not socially awkward. He liked an enjoyable evening in town, while his good looks and great personal charm made him very attractive to women. He was also a typical outdoors man who liked trekking, sailing and hunting. However, he had a darker side. He could be stubborn and difficult. Throughout his life he had many conflicts with other people and could then be physically violent. He is known to have settled one argument with the famous Swedish cryptographer Yves Gylden with his fists. Bengt Beckman dedicates three full chapters to Arne Beurling. The picture that emerges is of a person with a complex character, but who is full of life and nevertheless inspires both trust and friendliness.

Like Turing, Arne Beurling would make the initial breaks into a problem and lead the way, but afterwards he would take on other tasks, allowing others to continue the work. Before Beurling decided to attack the Geheimschreiber problem, he had worked together with Åke Lundqvist, botanist and chess Grandmaster,⁵ on superenciphered Russian codes. The Swedish cryptanalysts made great inroads into the Russian code and cipher systems. Olle Sydow and Gösta Wollbeck were two of the major cryptanalysts working on the Russian problems, but there were many others. They made up a variegated group of professors in Slavic languages and literature, mathematics and astronomy including a few art historians. Not to forget all the young women of "good" families who, as at Bletchley Park, attended to the more humdrum tasks.

Another of Beurling's great achievements at FRA was his solution together with Robert Themptander, an actuarial mathematician, of a very difficult double transposition problem. These ciphers had made their first appearance in the autumn of 1940. They were sent by two spy transmitters, with the callsigns CDU and MCI, which were located on the continent and communicated with a station in England. In June 1941 the same traffic, which

⁵ Åke Lundqvist received the title of Grandmaster in correspondence chess in 1962.

always started with the indicator CXG, appeared in the transmissions of the British embassy in Stockholm.

Double transposition can be a difficult cipher to break. In this case it was made even more difficult by applying a monoalphabetic substitution before the double transposition. By analysing the cipher texts they discovered that the digits 0,1,2,3 and 4 had a higher frequency than expected, something which indicated a substitution alphabet in the range 01–45. In October 1941, when Arne Beurling struggled with this problem, he finally succeeded in breaking six messages enciphered with the same key. He discovered that double transposition was indeed used with keys of different length for each transposition. However, his greatest difficulty was not the transpositions but rather to reconstruct the substitution alphabet. He apparently guessed that the alphabet would be in its ordered sequence, but the plain text that emerged did not fit the English language as expected.

After many trials Beurling finally succeeded in extracting one word that made sense: “Baltik”. However, the rest was mainly incomprehensible. Arne Beurling then brought the text to his good friend Richard Ekblom, professor in Russian at the University of Uppsala. After slightly rearranging the text, Ekblom said: “This looks like Czech”. And it turned out to be telegrams from Vladimir Vanek who was the Czech Exile Government’s representative in Stockholm. As the telegrams showed that Vanek was involved in espionage against both Germany and Sweden, he was arrested in his home on 27 March 1942. A search resulted in the identification of the book used as the base for the transposition keys. It was Jan Masaryk’s *Světová Revoluce (World Revolution)*. The meaning of the indicator CXG escaped the FRA cryptanalysts during the war but now, more than 50 years later, Robert Themptander says it must have stood for Czech Exile Government. It is said that Arne Beurling himself considered this solution of a double transposition cipher with a monoalphabetic substitution and in an unknown language to be a greater feat than his solution of the Geheimschreiber cipher.

Arne Beurling was not the only master cryptanalyst at FRA during the war. He was perhaps the only genius, but there were also other excellent cryptanalysts, who performed great achievements. A group of three people, Carl-Gösta Borelius, Tufve Ljunggren and Bo Kjellberg, under the leadership of Lars Carlbom succeeded in breaking the Lorenz SZ40 and SZ42 machines. The SZ40 traffic had been observed on the German cable connections in November 1941 and in January 1943 FRA also observed the same traffic on radio circuits. Their first break occurred on 9 April 1943, based on the cable traffic, while they also succeeded in breaking the SZ42, which was then used on radio, in September 1943.

The solution of the SZ40 came later than the first British solution of the same machine in January 1942. However, Arne Beurling’s solution of the T52a/b machine in June 1940, based on a set of messages in depth intercepted on 25 and 27 May, constituted the first break of a modern, on-line teleprinter cipher. As with the Siemens T52 solutions the Lorenz machines were also

broken by hand methods. The only tool was a SZ40 “replica” which was constructed using bicycle chains of different length to simulate the action of the twelve coding wheels.

FRA’s resources were very limited. With a peak staff of 384 people in 1942 it was a tiny organization compared with Bletchley Park (BP) and Arlington Hall. It is therefore of interest to compare FRA’s Geheimschreiber group with the corresponding Fish⁶ sections at Bletchley Park. FRA’s Geheimschreiber group, which consisted of the sections 31f, 31g, 31m, and 31n, saw its peak performance in November 1942 while the Fish sections at BP had their peak in the autumn of 1944. In November 1942, 31f, which was responsible for tidying up the texts and typing the final results, provided 10638 messages. It was staffed by 56 people handling the tidying up process and 18 typists. At the same time, the line intercept section, 31n, had nine technician and eight young women who glued the printed teleprinter tapes on sheets of paper. The Post Office supplied up to three maintenance people on demand who would tend to the 72 line receivers and the 36 teleprinters. The cryptanalytic section, 31g, had 14 cryptanalysts and 60 women who manned the decoding machines, the “Apps”. There were a total of 32 “Apps” of which 22 had the special T52c adapter and 26 specially connected teleprinters. Finally, in the translation and compilation section, 31m, there were seven compilers and 13 translators including a few persons taking care of the odd jobs. In total the Geheimschreiber group had about 185 people.

In September 1944,⁷ at the inauguration of BP’s new Block H which was built to house Max Newman’s section and his machines, there were a total of 345 people working on the Tunny problem in the two sections, the Newmanry and the Testery. The Newmanry comprised 20 male civilians, at least 10 of them with honours degrees in mathematics, one US Navy officer, 2 US Army officers, and 186 Wrens from the Women’s Royal Naval Service, a total of 209 people. In Major Tester’s section, the Testery, there were at this time 21 officers, including two US Army officers, 77 other ranks, 25 ATS (Auxiliary Territorial Service) women, and 26 male civilians, a total of 136 people. They included six mechanics and 37 machine operators, while 30 people were working on registration of traffic and 20 others were engaged on breaking “dechis”⁸ and anagramming depths. In addition there were 34 “setters” whose job it was to carry a break back to the beginning of a message and compute the settings for the machine operators. The remaining nine people were taking care of a variety of jobs.

⁶ Fish was the BP codename for the non-morse, teleprinter, transmissions and the ciphers they employed. The Lorenz SZ40/42 was labelled Tunny while the Siemens T52 machines were known as Sturgeon.

⁷ Captain Walter J. Fried’s report No. 96 of 29 Sep. 1944. National Archives and Records Administration (NARA), RG 457, NSA Hist. Col. Box 880, Nr. 2612.

⁸ Dechi is a kind of “pseudo plain text” as given by the expression $D = Z + \mathcal{X} = P + \Psi$. The dechi is part of the method used to strip off the influence of the Chi wheels of the Lorenz SZ40/42 machine.

At the end of September 1944, Colossus 5 had been installed in the new Block H and was fully operational, while Colossus 6 had also been installed but was not yet connected. A total of 12 Colossi were planned and ten machines were in operation at the end of the war. The sections also had up to 16 Tunny machines to decode messages on already broken keys. Tunny was also used for the “dechi” process and the Newmanry was equipped with three of these machines. During September over 2.5 million plain text characters were produced by the two Fish sections from a total of 40 million intercepted characters.⁹ This is only 6.25 %, however, the majority of the intercepted signals, 82 %, consisted of transmissions of fewer than 2000 characters, which were too short to be broken.

What is immediately apparent in this comparison is the difference in approach. The FRA group appears more like a production unit where the daily cryptanalytical problem was well in hand and was solved with a minimum of specialist staff and without any machines. In BP’s Tunny sections the cryptanalytical problem clearly demanded the biggest resources both in cryptanalysts and machine operators who attended to the Colossi and other specialised machines. One reason for this is due to the differences in the two cipher machines. In the Siemens T52 the code wheel patterns remained fixed while for the Lorenz SZ40/42 they had to be broken every day for some of the links. This required a major effort from the cryptanalysts. FRA also had the advantage of working with intercepted transmission that were as good as the intended German recipient. This was never the case for BP who very often had to work with marginal material due to the difficulty of receiving and transcribing the very faint Fish signals. However, the T52’s cryptographic algorithm, which used permutation together with modulo two addition, was more difficult than the principle used for the SZ40/42 machines.

Seen in this light, FRA’s results are astounding, which can only partly be explained by the dedication of the people and their leadership. One important factor must have been the quality, professionalism and experience of those involved. The majority were highly educated and those who lacked formal education were extremely talented. One person who comes to mind is Gösta Wollbeck, then Gösta Eriksson, who, when he joined FRA, lacked formal academic education but had a good knowledge of Russian acquired through self-study. He would, over the years, assimilate one language after the other and undertake whatever translations were needed.

However, there is yet another factor. Even though there appear to have been tensions within the organisation, something that probably can be explained by the close proximity of so many strong and somewhat eccentric personalities, most of them clearly loved the work they were doing. As Arne Beurling’s student and very good friend over many years, Bo Kjellberg, said

⁹ Captain Walter J. Fried’s report No. 101 of 14 Oct. 1944. NARA, RG 457, NSA Hist. Col. Box 880, Nr. 2612.

recently at a meeting of FRA veterans: “That was the most wonderful time of my life. To have all those unsolved problems in front of me.”

12 Acknowledgements

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14 Appendix AModified teleprinters with International Telegraph Alphabet
No.2

| Lower Case Code elements (letters) | 1 2 3 4 5 | Upper Case (figures) |
|---------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------------|
| A | 1 1 0 0 0 | - |
| B | 1 0 0 1 1 | ? |
| C | 0 1 1 1 0 | : |
| D | 1 0 0 1 0 | "Who are you" |
| E | 1 0 0 0 0 | 3 |
| F | 1 0 1 1 0 | *) |
| G | 0 1 0 1 1 | *) |
| H | 0 0 1 0 1 | *) |
| I | 0 1 1 0 0 | 8 |
| J | 1 1 0 1 0 | Bell |
| K | 1 1 1 1 0 | (|
| L | 0 1 0 0 1 |) |
| M | 0 0 1 1 1 | . |
| N | 0 0 1 1 0 | , |
| O | 0 0 0 1 1 | 9 |
| P | 0 1 1 0 1 | 0 |
| Q | 1 1 1 0 1 | 1 |
| R | 0 1 0 1 0 | 4 |
| S | 1 0 1 0 0 | , |
| T | 0 0 0 0 1 | 5 |
| U | 1 1 1 0 0 | 7 |
| V | 0 1 1 1 1 | = |
| W | 1 1 0 0 1 | 2 |
| X | 1 0 1 1 1 | / |
| Y | 1 0 1 0 1 | 6 |
| Z | 1 0 0 0 1 | + |
| 1 | 0 0 0 1 0 | Carriage Return (BP code: 3) |
| 2 | 0 1 0 0 0 | Line Feed (BP code: 4) |
| 3 | 1 1 1 1 1 | Letters (BP code: 8 or -) |
| 4 | 1 1 0 1 1 | Figures (BP code: 5 or +) |
| 5 | 0 0 1 0 0 | Space (BP code: 9 or .) |
| 6 | 0 0 0 0 0 | No Action (BP code: /) |

Note: *) Unassigned, reserved for domestic use.

15 Appendix B

Chronological List of Swedish Geheimschreiber Events^{††}

| | | | |
|-------------|-----|--|------------------------------|
| 1940 | Apr | T52a/b, first observations, to/from Norway | |
| | Jun | T52a/b, first solutions | <u>Dec 40:</u> 7100 msgs |
| | Sep | T52a/b, first routine production | 20–30 staff 1–2 “apps” |
| 1941 | May | T52a/b, to/from German Legation in Stockholm | |
| | Jun | T52a/b, to/from Finland | <u>Dec 41:</u> 41400 msgs |
| | Nov | SZ40 observed on cables | 94 staff 10 “apps” |
| 1942 | Jun | Rumours in Berlin about Swedish breaks | |
| | Jul | T52c, first observations | <u>Dec 42:</u> 120000 |
| | Sep | T52c, first solutions | msgs 185 staff |
| | Dec | New key system | 32 “apps” |
| 1943 | Jan | SZ40 on radio, first observations | |
| | Feb | T52ca, first observations | |
| | Mar | T52ca, first solutions | |
| | Apr | SZ40 on cables, first solutions | |
| | May | New key system | |
| | Jun | SZ40 on radio, first solutions | |
| | Sep | SZ42 on radio, first solutions | <u>Dec 43:</u> 71000 msgs |
| | Dec | T52d, first observations | 51 staff |
| 1944 | Feb | No more solutions of cable traffic | |
| | Sep | T52e, first observations | |

^{††} Reproduced with permission from FRA’s Monograph *A Swedish Success* [6]

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