
Breaking Enigma

Codebreaking Techniques from WWII

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1 Introduction

The Enigma cryptography machine was invented in 1918 by Arthur Scherbius. It played an integral role during World War II as Nazi Germany used it to encode its messages. The Germans were able to communicate for nearly 10 years, between the early 1920s and 1933, before Enigma was first broken by the Polish Cipher Bureau. The breaking of Enigma was not a singular event, but rather several major events that led up to the creation of automated machines that could universally decode Enigma messages. The breaking of Enigma stands to be an elemental achievement during the second World War. The intelligence gathered thanks to the team at Bletchley Park saved countless lives and gave Britain and its allies a distinct edge in the war. From a mathematical standpoint, the breaking of Enigma is significant for the methods in which messages were decoded. From manual methods to increasingly more automated ones, the Polish Cipher Bureau and Bletchley Park both created some of the first automated decryption tools to aide the team in efficiently finding daily keys to ciphertext. Some of the largest breakthroughs in being able to break Enigma came from human error on the part of cipher clerks who would have habitual tendencies when enciphering messages, making it easier for the decryption teams to find keys. Several other fallacies in judgement from Germany's military helped the teams become even more learned about Enigma's inner workings. The combination of human error and cryptanalysis allowed the Polish and British teams to successfully break Enigma and automate their practices for finding message keys.

2 History



Figure 1: The Enigma Machine

2.1 Machine Encipherment

In the first World War, war radios began to have an increasingly large role in military communications. The greatest advantage was the increased range of distance from which one could communicate, but the greatest disadvantage was that messages were easily intercepted. This led to cipher systems to be developed, but the complexity had to be limited. Cipher clerks were not cryptanalysts or mathematicians. If the system used to encipher a message was too complex, there was an increasingly high

risk of error in the message, which could have had disastrous consequences in wartime. After the war, it was decided, in multiple countries, that the best way to encipher the messages was to have a user-friendly machine that would increase the complexity of encipherment, while decreasing the complexity of the tasks done by the cipher clerk. In the early 1920's a German man, Arthur Scherbius, developed Enigma for this very purpose. Enigma was an iteration on several difference cipher machines that centered around using a large number of substitution alphabets, where no single alphabet would repeat until thousands of letters had been processed. The first Enigma was based on several main components: a twenty-six letter keyboard, twenty-six lamps to illuminate the ciphertext, a power supply, three removable wired wheels that rotate on a common axis, a fixed wired reflector, and a fixed wired entry wheel[1]. Future iterations of Enigma would include a plug board where one could essentially swap two characters.

2.2 Before the War

The first Enigma was shown in 1923 at the Universal Post Union Congress in Vienna. Germany, soon after, began to adopt the machines for military and government communications and used them without much issue for many years. It wasn't until 1930, with tensions remaining at a high level in Europe, that Poland felt the need to start protecting themselves, from Germany. They began intercepting German messages and attempting to decipher them. In the early 1930s, a member of the French General Staff, Capt. Gustave Bertrand, took initiative to communicate with his opposite but equal peer in the Polish General Staff, after the French General Staff rejected a proposal by Poland to coordinate their intelligence gathering. Thanks to the direct communication between the men of different nations, intelligence gathered by France, particularly that which related to solving Enigma, was discretely shared with Poland; not the least of which was operating instructions and keying instructions of Enigma. The operating instructions helped the Polish Cipher Bureau determine the inner workings of the military Enigma machines. The keying instructions helped the cryptanalysts understand how the messages they were intercepting were structured. In early 1933 the Polish Cipher Bureau team had deduced the inner workings of Enigma and has commissioned the building of fifteen duplicates. Duplicating the machine, however, was not enough as the machines had to be given the correct settings to decipher a message correctly. These settings were, the public key that had to be transmitted with cipher text. At first they were simply found by process of

elimination. In 1934 a member of the Polish Cipher Bureau team, Rejewski, made the cyclometer, which allowed the team to create a catalog of characteristics from the over 100,00 settings [1]. This made it much easier to find a key based on a given ciphertext, because a cryptanalyst could compare it with the cataloged characteristics. The cyclometer along with several other tools and practices, enabled the team to successfully decipher messages for over 5 years.

2.3 Enigma in World War II

In 1938, Germany made an effort to increase the complexity and security of their system by changing the keying practices, allowing for rotors to be placed in various slots, and other small changes to their enciphering practices. At the same time, the Polish Cipher Bureau team had made strides toward further automating the discovery of message keys. The Cryptological Bomb, or Bomba, was an electromechanical machine that in under 2 hours, would iterate over seventeen-thousand possibilities, stopping automatically when the desired one was found, and would turn on an indicator light. Also around this time, Germany began to occupy its neighboring nations, beginning with Austria. Throwing European politics into chaos, Britain and France were both looking for an ally with which to align themselves. Poland arose as the choice, and shortly before Germany's occupation of Poland in late 1939, there had been a meeting of the three nations where Poland's accomplishments were shared along with a great number of documents and resources, including one of the duplicate Enigma machines. As soon as the German forces made way into Poland, all work and remnants of the work done by the Cipher Bureau was destroyed, as the team of cryptanalysts fled to France. Before the end of the year, Britain had established Bletchley Park, the campus where the Ultra team would work to continue what the Polish Cipher Bureau had started. By all definitions, the Polish broke Enigma, and the British capitalized on their given knowledge to find solutions in record time [1]. Both extremely important to wartime intelligence. The British Bomb, or Bombe, was developed by Alan Turing who began work on the machine just after Britain's first meeting with Poland and France. It accomplished the same task of the Bomba, determine the keyspace for a given ciphertext, but the Bombe looked at the entire text rather than just the encrypted settings at the beginning of the message. This enabled the machine to find a solution in 20 minutes rather than 2 hours. The accomplishments of each nation held great significance in the War and the efforts towards bringing it to an end.

3 Background

The following will provide an introduction into some of the core concepts necessary to understand how Polish cryptologists were able to break Enigma in 1932. We will introduce the hardware of the Enigma machine, as well as provide a brief overview of permutation theory. We will also prove a theorem which is integral in creating the permutations used in the set of equations that model the electrical circuit inside Enigma.

3.1 Enigma Hardware

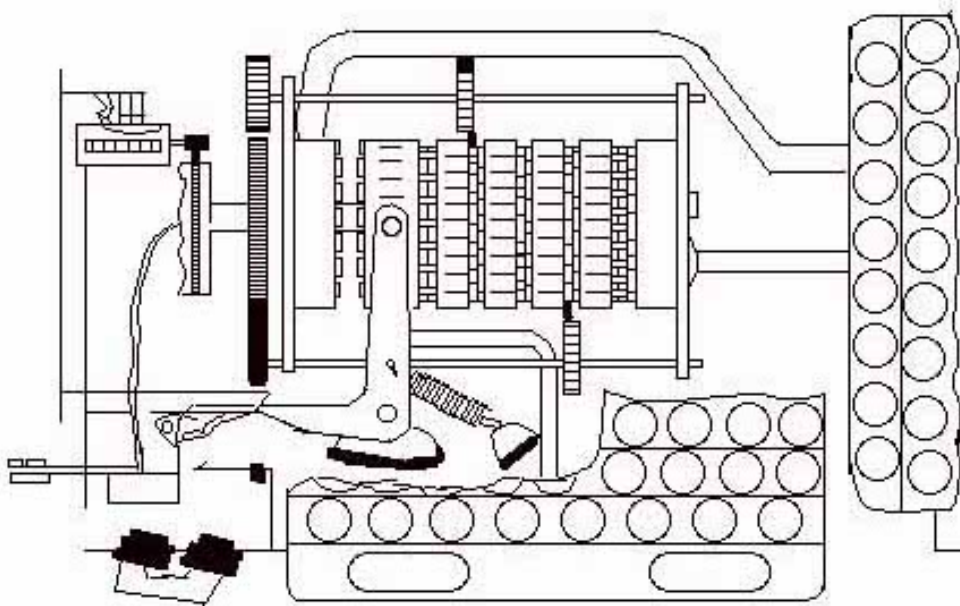


Figure 2: Hardware of the Enigma Machine

In order to understand how the ciphertexts created by the Enigma machine were

broken, it is important to understand the inner workings of the machine itself. Figure 2 shows a schematic of the hardware.

On the outside of each machine, there is a keyboard and a row of glowlamps. Each key on the keyboard is connected to a glowlamp through a changing electric circuit, so when a key is pressed it lights up a corresponding glowlamp. Below the keyboard, there is a plugboard with between six (6) and twelve (12) switches. These switches allow for two letters of the alphabet to be transposed prior to being sent into the machine's hardware. It introduced a "reciprocal monoalphabetic substitution between the keyboard and the first rotor" [2]. This adds a layer of security beyond the rotors on the inside of the machine.

Inside each machine, there are anywhere from three (3) to as many as eight (8) rotors and a reflector (or reversing drum). These rotors are the main ciphering components. Each rotor has the alphabet inscribed on the rim, twenty-six (26) fixed contacts on one face, and twenty-six (26) spring loaded contacts on the other face [3]. Each rotor has a unique circumference, as well as a unique set of connected contacts. These contacts are randomly connected, and are different on each rotor [2]. The reversing drum is responsible for creating the reciprocal nature of the machine, meaning that if an 'A' is pressed on the keyboard and an 'F' lights up on the glow lamps, it also means that if an 'F' is pressed on the keyboard, the 'A' will light up on the glow lamps.

Each rotor inside the machine is set up in such a way that it will rotate corresponding to different key presses. The rotor closest to the keyboard rotates every time a key is pressed, meaning that the substitution changes every time a key is pressed. The other two (2) to seven (7) rotors rotate at variable rates, depending on how the hardware is configured. The second rotor's rotation is dependent on the first rotor's rotation, the third rotor is dependent on the second, and so on and so forth. This rotation of the rotors adds another level of complexity on top of the already complex substitution cipher that Enigma creates.

3.2 Important Mathematical Concepts

To understand some of the mathematical theory later on in this paper, one must first understand some basics of permutation groups. A permutation is a rearrangement of elements in a set. An example of this kind of permutation is rearranging the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 into 3, 5, 4, 2, 1. This could be expressed in the standard matrix

form $P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 4 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, or in cyclic notation as $P_c = (13425)$. Notice in cyclic notation that there is an implied transposition from 5 to 1 from the last element in P_c .

Permutations can be multiplied as well. In multiplying permutations, order is important. If we have

$$P = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 4 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

One can multiply

$$QP = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 4 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

To multiply, rearrange the columns of the Q permutation (leftmost) so that the first row matches the P permutation (or the rightmost). Then, take the non-matching rows of P and Q as the product. In this example, we get

$$QP = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 4 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 5 & 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 5 & 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 4 & 2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 4 & 5 & 3 & 1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

In cyclic notation, $QP = (14)(25)(3)$.

Another important concept necessary in order to fully understand the theory behind cracking the Enigma machine cipher is the *Theorem on the Product of Transpositions*. First, a transposition is a 2-cycle permutation, for example $P = (13)$. A group of disjunctive transpositions, then, is a group of non-overlapping 2-cycles.

The Theorem on the Product of Transpositions states that:

If two permutations of the same degree consist solely of disjunctive transpositions, then their product will include disjunctive cycles of the same lengths in even numbers.

The proof is as follows:

We assign two permutations to be multiplied to be X and Y , with total degree $2n$. If both X and Y have identical transpositions within them, such as (ab) , then the product will have two distinct cycles (a) and (b) . This makes up our base case, as any two permutations with identical transpositions will have an even number of disjunctive transpositions.

Our next step occurs as such. If permutation X includes a transposition (a_1a_2) , there must be a permutation in Y that begins with a_2 , such as (a_2a_3) . We have already ruled out the possibility of Y including (a_2a_1) in our base case. We can continue this logic and say the following:

$$(a_1a_2), (a_3a_4), \dots, (a_{2k-3}a_{2k-2}), (a_{2k-1}a_{2k}) \in X$$

$$(a_2a_3), (a_4a_5), \dots, (a_{2k-2}a_{2k-1}), (a_{2k}a_1) \in Y$$

From these two sets X and Y , when we multiply them together we will always obtain two cycles of the same length $k \leq n$:

$$(a_1a_3\dots a_{2k-3}a_{2k-1})(a_{2k}a_{2k-2}\dots a_4a_2)$$

We continue this step until there are no more elements in X and Y , with the result that the product will only include disjunctive cycles of the same lengths in even numbers, which concludes the proof. This proof was adapted from Appendix E from Kozaczuk [3].

In the breaking of Enigma, Polish mathematicians also used the converse of the above proof, which states that *if a permutation of even-numbered degree includes disjunctive cycles of the same lengths in even numbers, then this permutation may be regarded as a product of two permutations, each consisting solely of disjunctive transpositions.*

4 Examples

4.1 Encryption Process

In accordance with Kerchoff's principle, the method of encrypting a message was known by the Polish and British cryptologists attempting to break the cipher. In this paper, we will touch on two (2) separate methods of encrypting a message that were used during World War II. The first method was common practice until September 1938, when Germany decided to increase security by changing to the second method, which was used from then on.

4.2 Encryption Process Pre-1938

Prior to the security changes in 1938, the process for encryption stayed mostly static. The encipherer, person who wanted to encrypt a message, would begin by setting their machine to the daily settings found in the widely dispersed codebook. These daily settings would correspond to initial settings of the rotors (which alphabetic character was visible from the top of the machine), as well as the settings of the plugboard (which letters would be transposed with which other letters). From there, the encipherer would choose their own individual key, which was supposed to be a random set of three (3) characters that was unique to the individual message. They would type their individual key into the Enigma machine twice, thus encrypting it twice using the daily settings. They typed it twice so as to ensure that there were no errors in encrypting the key, similar to how websites ask for a password confirmation on creation of a password. After encrypting the password using the daily settings, the encipherer would set the machine to their individual key, and encrypt the actual message. [4].

In order to decipher the message received, the decipherer would follow an almost identical process. They would set their machine to the daily key, and type the first six (6) letters of the message into the machine. This would reveal the individual key. After ensuring that it matched, the decipherer would set their machine to the

individual key, and type in the rest of the message to reveal the plain text. Note that the same machine (the same internal hardware) is used to both encrypt and decrypt the message.

4.3 Mathematical Theory Behind Cracking Enigma

The initial goal in cracking the Enigma machine was to determine the hardware connections on the rotor closest to the keyboard. Knowing the hardware connections on that rotor would allow the Polish mathematicians to reconstruct their own Enigma machine, and use that to decrypt more messages. It would open the doors for more rapid and widespread decryption.

Of course, it was not easy to find out what the hardware connections on the rotor were. All the mathematicians had to work with were ciphertexts that had been intercepted throughout the day, so they could only attempt ciphertext-only attacks. However, Polish mathematicians Marian Rejewski, Jerzy Rozycki, and Henryk Zygalski were able to crack the Enigma cipher in 1932. The solution to this believed 'impossible' problem took its roots in the permutation theory that was covered in Section 3.2, with some help from the enciphering process itself, covered in Section 4.2.

Since every message was encrypted with a different individual key, coupled with the fact that each rotor rotated at different speeds, it was impossible to determine the plain text just by comparing ciphertexts. However, with knowledge of the encryption process, it was possible to draw conclusions about the first six (6) letters of each ciphertext, and with enough ciphertexts, draw conclusions about the inner workings of the Enigma machine. The mathematicians knew that the first six (6) letters were a repeat of the same three (3) letter key, they could draw two conclusions.

1. All message keys started from the same position, set from a codebook.
2. The first letter in the plaintext was the same as the fourth, the second the same as the fifth, and the third the same as the sixth.

This is where permutation theory comes in. In this section of the paper, we will make reference to permutations $A - F$, which correspond in kind to a different substitution cipher created by Enigma. A corresponds to the transposition of letters (of the form $(ab)(cd)(ef)...$ where each letter occurs once) that occurs on the very first keypress in an encryption, which correlates to the first value in the encipherer's

individual key. B then corresponds to the transposition that occurs on the second keypress, C on the third, and so on. One will notice that A and D both correspond to the first value in the encipherer's individual key, B and E correspond to the second, and C and F correspond to the third. This was one of the first conclusions drawn by the Polish mathematicians as well.

The first step to cracking Enigma involved gathering as many ciphertexts as possible and recognizing products of permutations within them. We know that A and D correspond to the same letter. This means that when the encipherer types a character x , he obtains the value a as his ciphertext, and when he types the same character x for the double enciphering of his individual key (in the fourth place), he obtains the value b , indicating a relationship between the values a and b . This relationship between keys here can be modeled as a product of permutations AD , which is the product of the individual permutations A and D .

As an example, take the ciphertexts

```
dmq vbn
von puy
puc fmq
```

One can see that $d \rightarrow v$, $v \rightarrow p$, and $p \rightarrow f$. That means that the permutation AD contains $dvpf$. The same process can be applied to see that $oumb$ is in BE and $cqny$ is in CF . If enough ciphertexts are gathered such that each letter of the alphabet is seen in each position at least once, entire permutations can be constructed. The permutation sets created from the daily ciphertexts are called the 'characteristic' for the day [3].

Next, it is important to understand how the machine works, with regards to a circuit. Figure 3 shows the circuit that is created when a key is pressed. If we label the commutator (or plugboard) as S , the three rotors from left to right as L , M , N respectively, and the reversing drum R , we can represent the path of the current as the product of the permutations $SNMLRL^{-1}M^{-1}N^{-1}S^{-1}$. However, we also need to account for the fact that the N rotor revolving $1/26th$ of a turn each time a key is pressed, and we can represent that with the permutation $P = (abcdefghijklmnopqrstuvwxyz)$. Thus, if the N rotor rotates twice, we will have P^2 , and so on and so forth. With this, we can rewrite the previous equation for each individual keypress, including P .

$$A = SPNP^{-1}MLRL^{-1}M^{-1}PN^{-1}P^{-1}S^{-1}$$

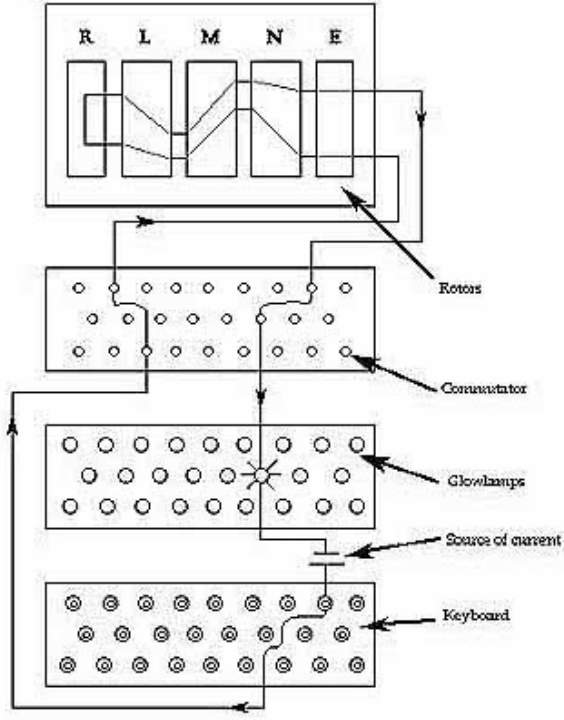


Figure 3: Electric Current Through Enigma

$$B = SP^2NP^{-2}MLRL^{-1}M^{-1}P^2N^{-1}P^{-2}S^{-1}$$

$$C = SP^3NP^{-3}MLRL^{-1}M^{-1}P^3N^{-1}P^{-3}S^{-1}$$

$$D = SP^4NP^{-4}MLRL^{-1}M^{-1}P^4N^{-1}P^{-4}S^{-1}$$

$$E = SP^5NP^{-5}MLRL^{-1}M^{-1}P^5N^{-1}P^{-5}S^{-1}$$

$$F = SP^6NP^{-6}MLRL^{-1}M^{-1}P^6N^{-1}P^{-6}S^{-1}$$

It is clear that $MLRL^{-1}M^{-1}$ is repeated in every one of these equations, so we can replace that value with the value Q . [3] We also must calculate the products AD , BE , and CF with respect to the above equations, and we get the following equations:

$$AD = SPNP^{-1}QPN^{-1}P^3NP^{-4}QP^4N^{-1}P^{-4}S^{-1}$$

$$BE = SP^2NP^{-2}QP^2N^{-1}P^3NP^{-5}QP^5N^{-1}P^{-5}S^{-1}$$

$$CF = SP^3NP^{-3}QP^3N^{-1}P^3NP^{-6}QP^6N^{-1}P^{-6}S^{-1}$$

In order to solve these equations, we can take one of two routes. One, we can solve for S , N , and Q using AD , BE , and CF . Two, we can solve for $A - F$, S , Q , and N . One may notice that there are more unknowns than equations, which makes these sets impossible to solve. This is where the Polish mathematicians hit a stopping point. That is, until the French Cipher Bureau was able to provide the Polish Cipher Bureau with some codebooks that they had recovered from the Germans [3]. This gave the Polish mathematicians the values of S that they needed. They were also able to determine $A - F$ based on encipherer's habits, and applications of the converse Theorem on the Product of Transpositions discussed in Section 3.2. Therefore, the four (4) unknowns from the equations was reduced to two (2), which is solvable.

$$SAS^{-1} = PNP^{-1}QPN^{-1}P^{-1}$$

$$SBS^{-1} = P^2NP^{-2}QP^2N^{-1}P^{-2}$$

$$SCS^{-1} = P^3NP^{-3}QP^3N^{-1}P^{-3}$$

$$SDS^{-1} = P^4NP^{-4}QP^4N^{-1}P^{-4}$$

$$SES^{-1} = P^5NP^{-5}QP^5N^{-1}P^{-5}$$

$$SFS^{-1} = P^6NP^{-6}QP^6N^{-1}P^{-6}$$

N and Q were able to be solved using the known values, and the resulting N permutation corresponded to the connectors in that specific rotor [3]. That N was the result the mathematicians were after, and it was this permutation that was integral to continuous decryption of messages throughout the 1930s.

4.4 Encryption Process Post-1938

4.5 Cryptological Machines

5 Conclusion

(TODO: Add conclusion content)

6 References

(TODO: Add references)

7 Introduction

This is a template for an undergraduate or master's thesis. The first sections are concerned with the template itself. If this is your first thesis, consider reading Section 7.3. Of course, the structure of this thesis is only an example. Discuss with your adviser what structure fits best for your thesis.

7.1 Template Structure

- To compile the document either run the makefile or run your compiler on the file 'thesis_main.tex'. The included makefile requires latexmk which automatically runs bibtex and recompiles your thesis as often as needed. Also it automatically places all output files (aux, bbl, ...) in the folder 'out'. As the pdf also goes in there, the makefile copies the pdf file to the parent folder. There is also a makefile in the chapters folder, to ensure you can also compile from this directory.
- The file 'setup.tex' includes the packages and defines commands. For more details see Section 7.2.
- Each chapter goes into a separate document, the files can be found in the folder chapters.
- The bib folder contains the .bib files, I'd suggest to create multiple bib files for different topics. If you add some or rename the existing ones, don't forget to also change this in thesis_main.tex. You can then cite as usual [2, 3, 4].
- The template is written in a way that eases the switch from scrbook to book class. So if you're not a fan of KOMA you can just replace the documentclass in the main file. The only thing that needs to be changed in setup.tex is the caption styling, see the comments there.

7.2 setup.tex

Edit setup.tex according to your needs. The file contains two sections, one for package includes, and one for defining commands. At the end of the includes and commands there is a section that can safely be removed if you don't need algorithms or tikz. Also don't forget to adapt the pdf hypersetup!!

setup.tex defines:

- some new commands for remembering to do stuff:
 - `\todo{Do this!}`: **(TODO: Do this!)**
 - `\extend{Write more when new results are out!}`:
(EXTEND: Write more when new results are out!)
 - `\draft{Hacky text!}`: **(DRAFT: Hacky text!)**
- some commands for referencing, 'in `\chapref{chap:introduction}`' produces 'in Chapter 7'
 - `\chapref{}`
 - `\secref{sec:XY}`
 - `\eqref{}`
 - `\figref{}`
 - `\tabref{}`
- the colors of the Uni's corporate design, accessible with `{\color{UniX} Colored Text}`
 - UniBlue
 - UniRed
 - UniGrey
- a command for naming matrices `\mat{G}`, **G**, and naming vectors `\vec{a}`, **a**. This overwrites the default behavior of having an arrow over vectors, sticking to the naming conventions normal font for scalars, bold-lowercase for vectors, and bold-uppercase for matrices.
- named equations:
`\begin{align}`

$$d(a,b) = d(b,a) \quad \text{\eqname{symmetry}}$$

$$d(a,b) = d(b,a) \tag{1}$$

symmetry

7.3 Advice

This section gives some advice how to write a thesis ranging from writing style to formatting. To be sure, ask your advisor about his/her preferences.

For a more complete list we recommend to read Donald Knuth's paper on mathematical writing. (At least the first paragraph). http://jmlr.csail.mit.edu/reviewing-papers/knuth_mathematical_writing.pdf

- Don't use passive voice. It's harder to read, more likely to produce errors, and most of the times less precise. Of course there are situations where the passive voice fits but in scientific papers they are rare. Compare the sentence: 'We created the wheel to solve this.' to 'The wheel was created to solve this', you don't know who did it, making it harder to understand what is your contribution and what is not.
- If you use formulas pay close attention to be consistent throughout the thesis!
- Usually in a thesis you don't write 'In [24] the data is..'. You have more space than a paper has, so write 'AuthorXY et al. prepare the data... [24]'. Also pay attention to the placement: The citation is at the end of the sentence before the full stop with a no-break space. ... last word~\cite{XY}.
- Pay attention to comma usage, there is a big difference between English and German. '...the fact that bla...' etc.
- Do not write 'don't', 'can't' etc. Write 'do not', 'can not'.
- If an equation is at the end of a sentence, add a full stop. If it's not the end, add a comma: $a = b + c$ (1),
- Avoid footnotes if possible.
- Use '‘ ’' for citing, not '" '.

Bibliography

- [1] R. Churchhouse, “Codes and ciphers,”
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