

# Cryptology and redaction – a strange symbiosis

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## Abstract

This paper explores the relationship between cryptology and redaction. Redaction can be a frustration to historical cryptology research. Examples of redactions of historical papers relevant to cryptology are presented. It is concluded that the practice of redaction is often ineffective and the policy rationale behind redactions difficult to understand.

## 1 Introduction

Cryptography is concealment: concealment of content of a communication, while the communication itself is overt. For historians of cryptology, the concealment can go further than the content of communications. The processes of cryptography and cryptanalysis may themselves be secret, requiring a further layer of obfuscation, created through security laws, non-disclosure contracts and censorship. When disclosures are allowed, they are frequently partial, with documentation released into the public domain only with redactions. This paper examines the interplay between redaction and cryptology.

State-imposed secrecy concerning the cryptologist's art is probably as old as the art itself. For the last hundred years it has become increasingly difficult for state authorities to deny or obscure the existence of official cryptanalysis. Public demand can encourage disclosure of historical documents, but disclosure is rarely comprehensive. In different countries, there are different policy objectives and different standards. Some documents are withheld, others redacted. The UK's Public Records Act 1958 requires that public records be transferred to the National Archives within 20 years of their creation, unless they 'are required for administrative purposes or ought to be retained

for any other special reason'.<sup>1</sup> 'Retained' is an expression broad enough to include redaction. In the United States, redaction may be justified under section 3605 of the National Security Agency Act of 1959 (50 USC 3605), which states: '... nothing in this chapter or any other law ... shall be construed to require the disclosure of the organization or any function of the National Security Agency ... or of the names, titles, salaries, or number of the persons employed by such agency.'

Redaction is, evidently, integral to the process of declassification of historical records. Declassification has previously been covered extensively in the literature (summaries can be found in Bennett, 2002, and on the NSA's 'Declassification and Transparency Initiatives' webpage<sup>2</sup>). However, this paper is not about declassification per se: its aim is to consider redactions in the field of cryptology, and to highlight certain curious relations between the two subjects.

## 2 Redaction of Cryptological Papers

To understand the theory and practice of redaction as applied to cryptology, one may consider a few examples, chosen from among the many instances which researchers encounter. The first is a file seized at the end of World War 2 by the Allied TICOM squads sent to Germany to obtain materials and information relating to German cryptanalytic capabilities (Rezabek, 2016). This was numbered T-1650 by the TICOM registry and, many years later, returned to Germany as part of a collection now in the

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<sup>1</sup> Section 3(4).

<sup>2</sup> <https://www.nsa.gov/Helpful-Links/NSA-FOIA/Declassification-Transparency-Initiatives/> (accessed 3 April 2024), which has links not only to declassified material but also to policy memoranda.

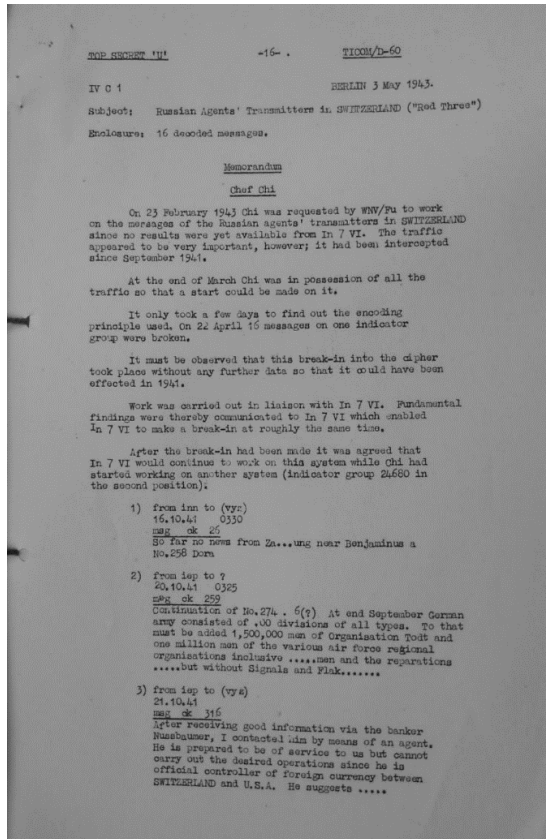
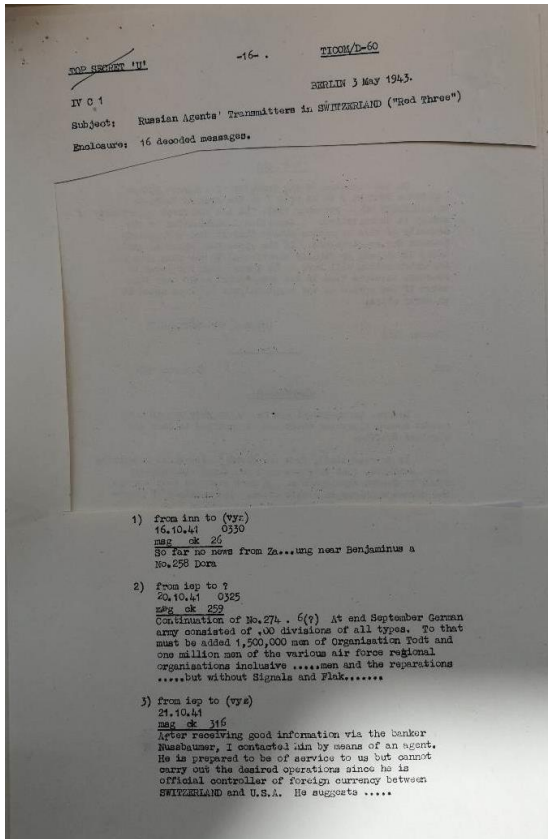
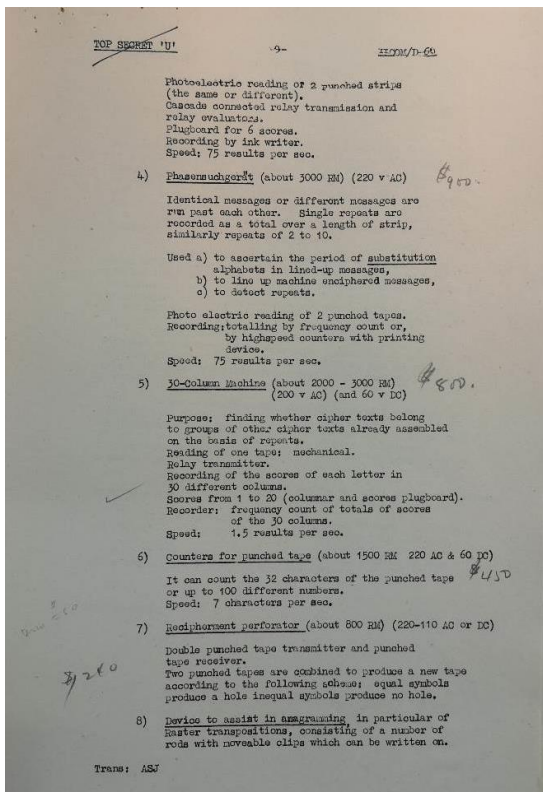


Exhibit 1. TICOM document D-60. Above left: page 16, redacted in the US copy. Above right: page 16 in the UK copy. Below: page 9, withheld from the UK copy. US declassification authority NW48901.



Political Archive in Berlin.<sup>3</sup> TICOM translated the file's contents into English and circulated the translation as document D-60 among the American and British signals intelligence services. Copies of D-60 are available at the US National Archives Records Administration and the UK National Archives.<sup>4</sup> In the British copy, pages 8 and 9 have been excised completely, retained under the Public Records Act. These pages are, however, open to view in the American copy, but page 16 is heavily cut from the American version notwithstanding that the page is completely open to view in the British copy (see Exhibit 1). The differences are, perhaps, surprising, given the oft-celebrated cooperation between the US and UK signals intelligence services (Smith, 2022).

Such inconsistencies allow us to consider the content of the excised passages. The pages cut from the British copy of D-60 in 2004 concern eight types of machinery invented by German

<sup>3</sup> Auswärtiges Amt, Berlin, Collection S8.

<sup>4</sup> NARA RG 457 Entry P4 Box 8; UK HW 40/174.

codebreakers to simplify attacks on superenciphered codes. Little technical detail is included in these pages. The heavily cut page 16 of D-60, cut out when the document was declassified in 2009, concerned the breaking of messages of a group of agents in Switzerland feeding intelligence on Germany to the Soviet Union (but not the decoded messages themselves). Why these subjects appeared to be sensitive to the different authorities, well after the discontinuance of code systems vulnerable to the machine methods outlined in D-60 and public knowledge of the German success against the agents' messages (Flicke, 1957) is hard to comprehend.

The next example relates to lesser redactions, where only individual words or phrases are covered up. One comes from another TICOM-related paper where people's names have been concealed (see Exhibit 2). Keeping people's names confidential might indicate a good rationale for redaction. But enough information remains to allow the researcher to fill in the blank spaces: the source documents (I-8, I-12, etc) are cited in the document, and these are publicly available, enabling the missing names to be reconstructed (here Schulze, Biege, Holtermann, and von Baumbach). It is unclear why these individuals' names were to be obscured, when that of Wilhelm Tranow, the German Navy's premier cryptanalyst who personally broke many Allied naval codes in World War 2 to devastating effect, was not. Perhaps the answer is that Tranow's achievements had been in the public domain for over thirty years by 2011 when this document was declassified (Kahn, 1978).

Similar examples can be found in the papers of the celebrated American cryptologist, William F. Friedman, which were declassified by the NSA in November 2014 and are available to view on its website in redacted form. Here, uniform length of each letter or number in the redacted telexed original facilitates a letter-count as a clue to the missing element. The potential solution can be checked by referring to other declassified documents, which freely give the names of the relevant personnel. Furthermore, so far from concealing information, the redaction has actually supplemented it. The redaction note references 50 USC 3605, implying that the persons whose names were concealed were linked to the NSA (see Exhibit 3).

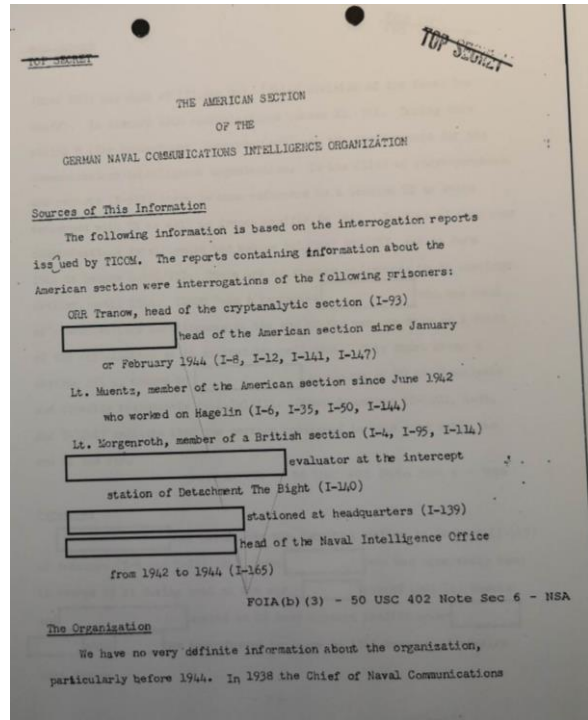


Exhibit 2. Page from NARA RG 38 Entry A1-1030 Box 74 Folder 3640/10. US declassification authority 003003.

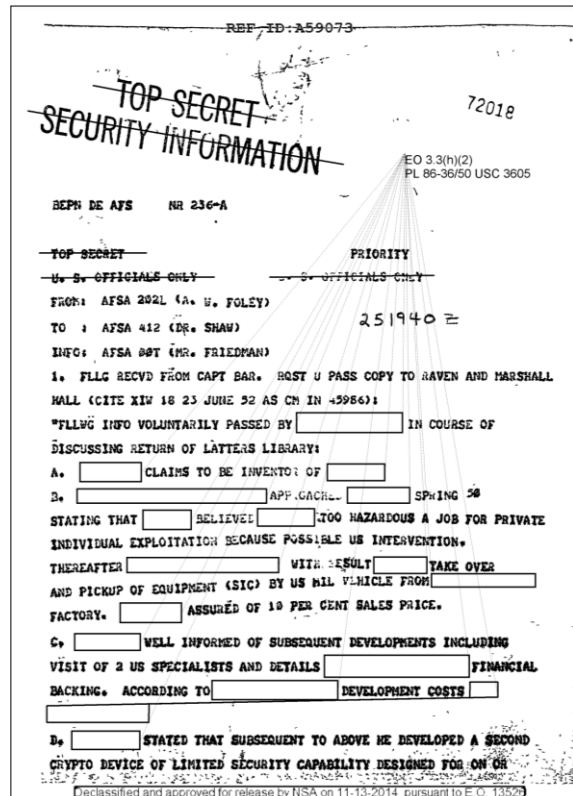


Exhibit 3. NSA Friedman collection, Folder 395, doc A59073. Papers enabling reconstruction are in NARA RG 457 Entry P4 Box 20 ("Professor Vierling's library"), previously declassified in March 2012. Note the redaction authority cited top right (50 USC 3605).

### 3 Discussion and Conclusions

What can we learn from these rather unsatisfactory redactions? First, it seems that redaction is a weak way to protect secrets. Redaction techniques are, in general, susceptible to textual analysis or even to simple copy-paste removal of superimposed blanking (Bland et al., 2023; Ingram, 2019). Redactions applied to historical cryptological papers are vulnerable to techniques which would be recognised by codebreakers of the period from which they originate: contextual analysis allowing linguistic interpolation; parallel availability of the same text in a different communication; word length analysis; and fingerprinting. The fact that these documents are likely to be of interest to students of cryptanalysis – the very techniques which the authorities wish to obscure – adds a spice of irony to the redaction exercise.

One may then ask why the redactions were made in the first place. In a democracy, there is a tug-of-war between the security imperative of protecting the state and the expectation of openness and accountability of state agencies. One category of legitimate non-disclosure arises from the need to protect vulnerable persons from reprisals or breach of privacy, a particular concern where the individuals concerned are or were agency members. Another is where the papers reveal a cryptanalytical technique, or a pathway towards a technique, which could expose current national secrets.

But other, more dubious rationales may be at play: protection of official or national reputation, predilection for secrecy ('if in doubt, leave it out'), the power of mystique, and so forth. It is odd that many mid-twentieth century papers on codebreaking remain classified: surely security-

related reasons for concealment have now lapsed. It is, unfortunately for historians, possible that they may remain under wraps indefinitely, since political priorities and budgets do not lend themselves readily to reviews of previous classification decisions.

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