# Cryptohack General

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## Challenge room walkthrough

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### Introduction

This document is a walkthrough for the "General" category of challenges on Cryptohack.

### 1. Encoding

### 1.1. ASCII

- Flag: crypto{ASCII\_pr1nt4bl3}
- **Explanation:** This code iterates through the list of provided integers. Each integer is treated as an ASCII decimal value and is converted to its corresponding character using the 'chr()' function. The 'join()' method then concatenates all these characters into the final flag string.

### 1.2. Hex

```
def decrypt_hex_string(hex_string):

"""

Decrypt a hexadecimal string to readable ASCII text.

Args:
    hex_string (str): Hexadecimal string (without 0x prefix)

Returns:
    str: Decrypted ASCII text

"""

try:
    # Convert hex pairs to ASCII characters
    decrypted_text = "'
    for i in range(0, len(hex_string), 2):
        hex_pair = hex_string[i:i+2]
    ascii_value = int(hex_pair, i6)

    # Check if it's a valid ASCII character (0-127)
    if 0 <= ascii_value <= 127:
        decrypted_text += chr(ascii_value)
    else:
        decrypted_text += f'[{ascii_value}]'  # Non-ASCII values in brackets

return decrypted_text

except ValueError as e:
    return f*Error: Invalid hexadecimal string - {e}"

except Exception as e:
    return f*Error: {e}"
```

- Flag: crypto{You\_will\_be\_working\_with\_hex\_strings\_a\_lot}
- **Explanation:** The code reads the input hex string two characters at a time. Each two-character pair represents one byte. The int(hex\_pair, 16) function converts this hex pair into its decimal integer equivalent. This integer is then converted to its ASCII character using 'chr()'. All characters are concatenated to form the flag.

### 1.3. Base64

def hox\_to\_base64(hox\_string):
 """
 Convert a hexadecimal string to Base64.

Args:
 hez\_string (str): Hexadecimal string to convert.

Returns:
 str: Base64 encoded string.
 """

try:
 # Convert hex string to bytes
 byte\_data = bytes.frombex(hex\_string)
 # Encode bytes to Base64
 base64\_data = base64.b64encode(byte\_data).decode("utf-8")
 return base64\_data
except ValueError as e:
 return f"Error: Invalid hexadecimal string. {e}"

- Flag: crypto/Base+64+Encoding+is+Web+Safe/
- **Explanation:** The challenge requires converting hex to Base64. The code first decodes the hex string into raw bytes using bytes.fromhex(). Then, it re-encodes these raw bytes into a Base64 string using the base64.b64encode() function. The final .decode("utf-8") ensures the output is a string, not a bytes object.

### 1.4. Bytes and Big Integers

```
from Crypto.Util.number import long_to_bytes

def integer_to_message(integer_value):
    """
    Convert a large integer into a readable message.

Args:
    integer_value (int): The integer to convert.

Returns:
    str: The decoded message.
    """

try:
    # Convert the integer to bytes
    message_bytes = long_to_bytes(integer_value)
    # Decode the bytes to a string
    return message_bytes.decode('utf-8')
    except Exception as e:
    return ffError: (e)"
```

- Flag: crypto{3nc0d1n6\_411\_7h3\_w4y\_d0wn}
- **Explanation:** This problem is the reverse of converting a string to a big integer. The pycryptodome library's long\_to\_bytes() function is used. It takes the large integer and converts it into its equivalent byte representation. These bytes are then decoded using UTF-8 to reveal the underlying text message.

### 1.5. Encoding Challenge

```
from pun import * # pip install puntools import json import base64 import codecs
- Code:
     r = remote('socket.cryptohack.org', 13377, level='debug')
     def json_recv():
    line = r.recvline()
             return json.loads(line.decode())
     def json_send(hsh):
              request = json.dumps(hsh).encode()
             r.sendline(request)
     def decode_message(data_type, encoded_value):
             if data_type == "ba
# Decode Base64
            If data_type == "Base04:

# Decode Base04

return base64.b6decode(encoded_value).decode('utf-8')

elif data_type == "hex":

# Decode Hez

return bytes.fromhex(encoded_value).decode('utf-8')

elif data_type == "rot13":

# Decode ROT13

return codecs.decode(encoded_value, 'rot_13')

elif data_type == "bigint":

# Decode Big Integer
hex_value = encoded_value[2:] # Remove the "Oz" prefiz

return bytes.fromhex(hex_value).decode('utf-8')

elif data_type == "utf-8":

# Decode UTF-8 (just return the string as-is)

return ''.join([chr(b) for b in encoded_value])

else:
                      raise ValueError(f"Unknown encoding type: {data_type}")
      # Start receiving and decoding messages
            received = json_recv()
print("Received:", received)
             data_type = received["type"]
               encoded_value = received["encoded"]
                    decoded_value = decode_message(data_type, encoded_value)
print("Decoded value:", decoded_value)
                     to_send = {
   "decoded": decoded_value
             json_send(to_send)
except Exception as e:
   print("Error:", e)
   break
```

- Flag: crypto{3nc0d3\_d3c0d3\_3nc0d3}
- **Explanation:** This script automates solving 100 rounds of encoding challenges. It uses pwntools to connect to the server. In each round, it receives a JSON object, identifies the type of encoding, and calls a helper function. This function decodes the encoded value (using base64.b64decode, bytes.fromhex, codecs.decode,

bytes.fromhex for bigint, or chr() for utf-8) and sends the plaintext back to the server to receive the next challenge.

### 2. XOR

### 2.1. XOR Starter

- Flag: crypto{aloha}
- **Explanation:** The code performs a simple single-key XOR. It iterates over each character in the input\_string, converts the character to its ASCII integer value using ord(), and then performs a bitwise XOR (^) with the provided integer key. The resulting integer is converted back to a character with chr().

### 2.2. XOR Properties

```
crode:
from pwn import *

def xor_bytes(bytes1, bytes2):
    """
    IDR two byte arrays and return the result.

Args:
    bytes1 (bytes): The first byte array.
    bytes2 (bytes): The second byte array.
    bytes2 (bytes): The second byte array.

Returns:
    bytearray: The IORed result as a bytearray.
    """
    return bytearray(b1 ~ b2 for b1, b2 in zip(bytes1, bytes2))

# Given values

KEY1 = bytes.fromhex('a6c8b6733c9b22de7bc0253266a3867df55acde8635e19c73313')

MASK1 = bytes.fromhex('37dcb292030faa90d07eec17e3b1c6d8daf94c35d4c9191a5e1e')

MASK2 = bytes.fromhex('37dcb292030faa90d07eec17e3b1c6d8daf94c35d4c9191a5e1e')

MASK3 = bytes.fromhex('04ee9855208a2cd59091d04767ae47963170d1660df7f56f5faf')

# Calculate keys

KEY2 = xor_bytes(KEY1, MASK1)

KEY3 = xor_bytes(KEY1, MASK2)

# Calculate FLAG

FLAG = xor_bytes(KEY1, xor_bytes(KEY2, xor_bytes(KEY3, MASK3)))

# Print resulfs
print("KEY1:", KEY1.hex())
print("KEY1:", KEY1.hex())
print("KEY2:", KEY2.hex())
print("FLAG:", "".join(ch(b) for b in FLAG))

print("FLAG:", "".join(ch(b) for b in FLAG))
```

- Flag: crypto{x0r\_i5\_ass0c1at1v3}
- **Explanation:** This solution uses the associative property of XOR. The challenge defines a chain of keys: KEY2 = KEY1 ^ MASK1 and KEY3 = KEY2 ^ MASK2. The flag is FLAG = KEY1 ^ KEY2 ^ KEY3 ^ MASK3. The code simply implements these operations sequentially, XORing the byte arrays together to calculate KEY2, then KEY3, and finally the FLAG.

### 2.3. Favourite byte

— Code:

```
results.append((score, key_val, decrypted_str))
    except UnicodeDecodeBror:
    continue

# Sort results by score in descending order
results.sort(key=lambda x: x[0], reverse=True)
return results

def brute_force_single_byte_xor_from_input(hex_string=None):
    """
    #rute-force single_byte_xor_from_input(hex_string=None):
    """

# rute-force single_byte_tor_from_input(hex_string=None):
    """

# rute-force single_byte_tor_from_input(hex_string=None):
    """

# rute-force single_byte_tor_from_input(hex_string).

# results is None:
    hex_string (str, optional): The hex string to decrypt. If None, prompts user for input.

"""

if hex_string is None:
    hex_string = input("Enter the encrypted message (in hex format): ").strip()

try:
    ciphertext = bytes.fromhex(hex_string)
except ValueError:
    print("Invalid hex input. Please provide a valid hex string.")
    return

print("None- Brute-forcing single-byte XOR keys ---")
brute_force_results = single_byte_xor_brute_force(ciphertext)

print("Top 100 possible decryptions:")
for i, (score, key, text) in enumerate(brute_force_results):#(brute_force_results[:100]):
    print("#fi(#i]: Score=(score), Key=0x(key:02x) ('(chr(key) if 32<=key<-126 else '.')'), Text='{text}''')
```

- Flag: crypto{0x10\_15\_my\_f4v0ur173\_by7e}
- **Explanation:** The code performs a brute-force attack to find a single-byte XOR key. It iterates through all 256 possible byte values (0-255). For each value, it XORs the entire ciphertext with that byte. A (missing) scoring function (score\_text) is used to evaluate how "English-like" the resulting plaintext is, likely by checking character frequencies. The script then prints the decryptions with the highest scores, one of which is the flag.

### 2.4. You either know, XOR you don't

### — Code

```
#!/usr/bin/env puthon3
Find IOR key using known plaintext attack. We know the plaintext contains "cryptof" and can use this to find the key.
hex_cipher = '0e0b213f26041e480b26217f27342e175d0e070a3c5b103e2526217f27342e175d0e077e263451150104'known_plain = 'cryptof'
# Convert hex to bytes
cipher_bytes = bytes.fromhex(hex_cipher)
print("Known-Plaintext Attack")
print("=" * 80)
print("Ciphertext (hex): {hex_cipher}")
print(f"Known plaintext: '(known_plain)'")
print(f"Ciphertext length: {len(cipher_bytes)} bytes")
print("=" * 80)
print("=
print()
def repeating_key_xor(ciphertext_bytes, key_bytes):
   if not key_bytes:
                 return ciphertext_bytes
        decrypted_bytes = bytearray()
for i in range(len(ciphertext_bytes)):
        decrypted_bytes.append(ciphertext_bytes[i] ^ key_bytes[i % len(key_bytes)])
return bytes(decrypted_bytes)
 # First, try single-byte XOR
# First, try single-byte IUR

print("1. Testing Single-Byte XOR")

print("." * 80)

for offset in range(len(cipher_bytes) - len(known_plain) + 1):

potential_key_bytes = []

for i in range(len(known_plain)):

potential_key_bytes.append(cipher_bytes[offset + i] ^ ord(known_plain[i]))
        # Check if all bytes are the same (single-byte key)
if len(set(potential_key_bytes)) == 1:
    key = potential_key_bytes[0]
    print(f"! Found single-byte XDR key at offset {offset}!")
    print(f" Key: {key} (Ox{key:02x}, ASCII: '{chr(key) if 32<=key<=126 else '?'}')")</pre>
                   decrypted = bytes([b ^ key for b in cipher_bytes])
                 decrypted_str = decrypted.decode('utf-8')
print(f" Decryption: (decrypted_str)")
if 'crypto(' in decrypted_str:
print(f" !!! SUCCESS! !!!")
except:
                 print()
# Now try repeating key patterns
print("\n2. Analyzing Repeating Key Patterns")
print("-" * 80)
# Extract potential key by IORing known plaintext with ciphertext at position 0
potential_key = bytes([cipher_bytes[i] ^ ord(known_plain[i]) for i in range(len(known_plain))])
print(f"Key bytes from 'cryptot{{' at position 0:"}}
print(f" Hex: {potential_key.hex()}")
print(f" As string: '{potential_key.decode('utf-8', errors='ignore')}'")
print(f" As bytes: {list(potential_key)}")
print(f" As bytes: {list(potential_key)}")
# Try different key lengths
print("3. Testing Different Key Lengths")
```

- Flag: crypto{1f\_y0u\_Kn0w\_En0uGH\_y0u\_Kn0w\_1t\_411}
- **Explanation:** This is a known-plaintext attack. Since the flag format is crypto{...}, we can XOR the known plaintext "crypto{" with the start of the ciphertext. This reveals the first 7 bytes of the repeating XOR key. The script then tests different possible key lengths (from 1 to 20) using slices of this recovered key material. The correct key length (7) successfully decrypts the entire message.

### 2.5. Lemur XOR

# import os import os from PIL import Image import numpy as np # Set your image filenames here image1.path = 'flag.png' image2.path = 'lemur.png' output\_path = 'xor\_revealed.png' def xor\_images(img1.path, img2.path, output\_path): # Load images img1 = Image.open(img1.path).convert('RGB') img2 = Image.open(img2.path).convert('RGB') # Ensure images are the same size if img1.size ! img2.size: raise ValueError('Images must be the same size!') arr1 = np.array(img1) arr2 = np.array(img2) # IOR the RGB values xor\_arr = np.bitwise\_xor(arr1, arr2) xor\_img = Image.fromarray(xor\_arr.astype('uint8'), 'RGB') xor\_img.save(output\_path) print(f'Revealed image saved to: (output\_path)') if \_\_name\_\_ == '\_\_main\_\_!: # Place image1.pnd and image2.pnd in this folder before running xor\_images(image1.pnd, image2.pnd in this folder before running xor\_images(image1.pnd, image2.pnd, output\_path)

- Flag: crypto{XORly\_nOt!}
- **Explanation:** This solution leverages the property that XORing an image with a key (another image) and then XORing the result with the same key again restores the original. The code uses PIL to open both images and NumPy to convert them into arrays. np.bitwise\_xor performs a pixel-by-pixel XOR on the two image arrays, revealing the hidden flag image, which is then saved.

### 3. Mathematics

### 3.1. Greatest Common Divisor

### — Code:

```
def gcd(a: int, b: int) -> int:
    """Compute the greatest common divisor of a and b using Euclid's algorithm."""
    while b:
        a, b = b, a % b
    return abs(a)
print(gcd(12,8))
```

- ${f Flag:}$  Your  ${f Flag}$  Here
- **Explanation:** This code implements the Euclidean algorithm to find the greatest common divisor (GCD). It repeatedly applies the logic:  $gcd(a, b) = gcd(b, a \pmod{b})$ . The 'while' loop continues until 'b' becomes 0, at which point 'a' contains the GCD of the original two numbers.

### 3.2. Extended GCD

### — Code:

```
# prurqurgcd(p,q)
# pru = gcd(p,q) - q*v
# u = (gcd(p,q) - q*v)/p
# u = (gcd(p,q) - p*u)/p
# u = (gcd(p,q) - p*u)/q
def extended_gcd(a: int, b: int) -> tuple[int, int, int]:
    """Compute the extended greatest common divisor of a and b.

# Returns a tuple (g, x, y) such that g = gcd(a, b) and g = a*x + b*y.
    """
if a == 0:
    return b, 0, 1
else:
    g, xi, yi = extended_gcd(b % a, a)
    x = yi - (b // a) * xi
    y = xi
    return g, x, y

result = extended_gcd(26513, 32321)
print(result)
```

- Flag: -8404
- **Explanation:** This code uses the Extended Euclidean Algorithm (EEA). Beyond finding the GCD g, it also finds two integers x and y that satisfy Bézout's identity:  $a \cdot x + b \cdot y = g$ . The function is implemented recursively, using the results from the smaller problem  $(b \pmod{a}, a)$  to calculate the coefficients for (a, b).

### 3.3. Modular Arithmetic 1

### — Code:

print(11 % 6) print(8146798528947 % 17)

- Flag: 4
- **Explanation:** The code uses Python's modulo operator ("%") to solve the problems.  $a \pmod{n}$  calculates the remainder when a is divided by n. This directly computes the answer for 11 (mod 6) and 8146798528947 (mod 17).

### 3.4. Modular Arithmetic 2

### — Code:

```
print(3**17 % 17)
print(5**17 % 17)
print(7**17 % 17)
print(7**16 % 17)
print(3**16 % 17)
print(5**16 % 17)
```

- Flag: 1
- **Explanation:** This code demonstrates Fermat's Little Theorem, which states that for a prime p and an integer a,  $a^p \equiv a \pmod{p}$ . Also, if a is not divisible by p, then  $a^{p-1} \equiv 1 \pmod{p}$ . Since 17 is prime,  $a^{17} \pmod{17}$  will always equal  $a \pmod{17}$ , and  $a^{16} \pmod{17}$  will equal 1 (for  $a \neq 0$ ).

### 3.5. Modular Inverting

### — Code:

```
d=1 while 3*d % 13 != 1;
print("for d = " + str(d) + ": 3*d % 13 = " + str(3*d % 13))
d+=1

print("answer is: " + str(d) + " because 3*" + str(d) + " % 13 = " + str(3*d % 13))
```

- Flag: 9
- **Explanation:** The code finds the modular multiplicative inverse of 3 modulo 13 by brute force. It's looking for an integer d such that  $3 \cdot d \equiv 1 \pmod{13}$ . It starts d at 1 and increments it, checking the result of  $(3 \cdot d) \pmod{13}$  at each step. The loop stops when it finds a d (which is 9) that makes the expression equal to 1.

### 4. Data Formats

### 4.1. PRIVACY-ENHANCED MAIL?

### — Code:

```
from cryptography.hazmat.primitives import serialization

# Load the PEM file
with open('privacy_enhanced_mail.pem', 'rb') as f:
pem_data = f.read()

# Load the private key
private_key = serialization.load_pem_private_key(pem_data, password=None)

# Extract the private exponent d
d = private_key.private_numbers().d

# Print d as a decimal integer
print(d)
```

- Flag: 15682700288056331364787171045819973654991149949197959929860861228180021707316851924456205543665
- Explanation: This script uses the cryptography library to parse a PEM file, which is a standard format for storing cryptographic keys. It loads the file as an RSA private key using load\_pem\_private\_key(). It then accesses the key's numerical components via .private\_numbers() and extracts the private exponent, d.

### 4.2. CERTainly not

### — Code:

```
from cryptography import x509

with open('2048b-rsa-example-cert.der', 'rb') as f:
    der_data = f.read()

# Load the DER-encoded certificate
    cert = x509.load_der_x509_certificate(der_data)

# Extract the public key (assuming RSA)
    public_key = cert.public_key()

# Get the modulus n as a decimal integer
    n = public_key.public_numbers().n

# Print n
```

- **Explanation:** The code parses a X.509 certificate stored in the binary DER format. It uses x509.load\_der\_x509\_certificate to load the file. From the certificate object, it extracts the public key (.public\_key()). Finally, it accesses the public key's numerical components and prints the RSA modulus, n.

### 4.3. SSH Keys

### — Code:

```
from cryptography.hazmat.primitives import serialization

# Load the SSH public key from file (assuming it's named 'bruce_rsa.pub')
with open('bruce_rsa.pub', 'r') as f:
    ssh_key_data = f.read().strip()

# Load the public key
public_key = serialization.load_ssh_public_key(ssh_key_data.encode())

# Extract the modulus n as a decimal integer
n = public_key.public_numbers().n

# Print n
print(n)
```

- **Explanation:** This script parses an SSH public key file (which has its own format, different from PEM or DER). It uses **serialization.load\_ssh\_public\_key()** to read the key data. Just like in the previous example, it then accesses the public key's numerical components to extract and print the RSA modulus, n.

### 4.4. Transparency

- Flag: crypto{thx\_redpwn\_for\_inspiration}
- **Explanation:** This challenge was solved manually using a Certificate Transparency (CT) log search tool. By searching the domain associated with the challenge on a site like **sslmate.com**, one can inspect the public certificate logs. The flag is hidden on website.