APACHE HTTP SERVER
COOKBOOK
Hot Recipes for the Apache Web Server

GABRIEL CANEPÁ

SYSTEM CODE GEEKS
SYSADMINS RESOURCE CENTER
Apache HTTP Server Cookbook
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Preface

The Apache HTTP Server, colloquially called Apache, is the world’s most used web server software. Originally based on the NCSA HTTPd server, development of Apache began in early 1995 after work on the NCSA code stalled. Apache played a key role in the initial growth of the World Wide Web, quickly overtaking NCSA HTTPd as the dominant HTTP server, and has remained most popular since April 1996. In 2009, it became the first web server software to serve more than 100 million websites.

Apache is developed and maintained by an open community of developers under the auspices of the Apache Software Foundation. Most commonly used on a Unix-like system (usually Linux), the software is available for a wide variety of operating systems besides Unix, including eComStation, Microsoft Windows, NetWare, OpenVMS, OS/2, and TPF. Released under the Apache License, Apache is free and open-source software.

As of November 2015, Apache was estimated to serve 50% of all active websites and 37% of the top servers across all domains. (Source: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Apache_HTTP_Server/)

In this ebook, we provide a compilation of Apache HTTP Server tutorials that will help you get started with this web server. We cover a wide range of topics, from installing the server and performing a basic configuration, to configuring Virtual Hosts and SSL support. With our straightforward tutorials, you will be able to get your own projects up and running in minimum time.
About the Author

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When he’s not typing commands or writing code or articles, he enjoys telling bedtime stories with his wife to his two little daughters and playing with them, the great pleasure of his life.
Chapter 1

How to install the Apache web server

In this example we will show how to install the Apache web server in CentOS 7.2 and Ubuntu 14.04.3 using the command line. According to recent reports, Apache continues to keep the lead in the number of websites and Internet-facing machines when compared to other web servers, such as Microsoft’s IIS or Nginx. Such has been the case for a long time, and that is why the skill of knowing how to install, configure, and leverage Apache is on the rise everywhere.

In other words, by acquiring Apache skills you will learn how to use the number one server on the Internet.

1.1 Installing Apache and utilities

Perhaps the first thing that we need to note is that the package that includes Apache has different names in CentOS (httpd) and Ubuntu (apache2). The good news is that in both cases, the package is included in the repositories that are configured when the operating system is installed. For that reason, you do not need to make any modifications to the repositories in order to install Apache.

In addition, we will install an extra package named apache2-utils and httpd-tools in Ubuntu and CentOS, respectively. This package includes tools that will be useful to benchmark Apache, manage basic and digest authentication to web pages, and resolve IP addresses to host names in the logs, among other things.

However, before you proceed please keep in mind that installing packages require administrative privileges, so you will need to run the following commands either as root (in CentOS) or using sudo (in Ubuntu). With that in mind, let us proceed with the installation.

In CentOS, type

```
yum update && yum install httpd httpd-tools -y
```

and press Enter.

In Ubuntu, do

```
sudo apt-get update && apt-get install apache2 apache2-utils -y
```

The package management system (yum or apt-get) will take care of installing all necessary dependencies required by the web server.

1.2 Checking running status of Apache

Once the installation completes, we need to check whether the web server has been automatically started. Typically, that is the case in Ubuntu but not in CentOS.

To check the running status of Apache in Ubuntu, type
service apache2 status

In Fig. 1.1 you can see the expected output when the web server is running. Otherwise, if it is stopped (as we forced it to using

```
sudo service apache2 stop
```

which is also shown in the image) you will need to run

```
sudo service apache2 start
```

to restart it. By now, you can safely ignore the AH00558 error message as it refers to an aspect of the web server configuration that we will cover in the next tutorial of the Apache series.

![Figure 1.1: Checking the running status of Apache in Ubuntu](image)

In CentOS, you will use systemctl (the system and service manager tool) to verify the status of Apache:

```
    systemctl status httpd
```

Fig. 1.2 shows the expected output when the web server is running and when it is not.
Last but not least, we need to ensure that the web server is started automatically the next time the system boots. In Ubuntu, the installation process by default will configure it to start after a reboot whereas in CentOS, you will need to start it by hand:

```bash
systemctl start httpd
```

and enable it for future reboots:

```bash
systemctl enable httpd
```

This ensures that Apache will be started by `systemd` each time the machine boots.

In Ubuntu, you can also get more information about Apache (web traffic statistics, server load and uptime, percentage of CPU usage, number of requests currently being processed, to name a few examples) using

```bash
apachectl status
```

In CentOS this command is aliased to

```bash
systemctl status httpd
```

so you will not get more details than those shown in Fig. 1.2).

### 1.3 Serving your first website with Apache

After you have successfully installed Apache and got it running, it is time to look into serving web pages. Although we will discuss this further in later articles, you need to know that Apache not only is used as a standalone server (that is, to store a single website or application), but also to run several sites (also known as **virtual hosts**) at the same time.

For the time being, it is sufficient to indicate the place where the web server stores pages and see how it returns them upon a request performed by a client - all in the context of a standalone server. To see Apache in action for the first time, launch a web
browser and point it to the IP address of the machine where Apache is running, as shown in Fig. 1.3 (192.168.0.29 is a CentOS and 192.168.0.30 is Ubuntu).

If you cannot see the test page after starting Apache in CentOS and your web browser says it can’t establish a connection to the web server, please check the following:

- Did you misspell the IP address in the browser’s URL bar?
- Is firewalld, the default firewall in CentOS 7 allowing http traffic?

You can check #2 as follows:

Type

```
firwall-cmd --add-services=http
```

then
firewall-cmd --add-services=http --permanent

and hit Enter. Then try to access the web server by IP as explained earlier.

To replace this default test page by one of ours, create a simple html file and save it as index.html in /var/www/html. You can use the following example if you want:

```html
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>
<head>
  <meta charset=utf-8 />
  <title>Your first page served by Apache</title>
</head>
<body>
<h1>Check out the Apache series in SystemCodeGeeks.com!</h1>
</body>
</html>
```

The result can be seen in Fig. 1.4:


Figure 1.4: Your first web page served by Apache

Next, feel free to create other subdirectories under /var/www/html and more html pages, and hyperlinks between them. Congratulations! You have already taken your first step towards mastering Apache.
1.4 Wrapping up

In this tutorial we have explained how to install Apache, the most used server used by websites and Internet-facing computers, in CentOS 7 and Ubuntu 14.04. In addition, we showed you how to replace the default test page with a custom one.

In the next articles of this series, we will discuss in greater depth the capabilities of Apache. Stay tuned.
Chapter 2

Apache Configuration Tutorial

In the first article of this series we introduced you to Apache. If you took the time to read the introduction, you will have noticed that it is the number one server powering websites and Internet-facing computers - and there are plenty of good reasons for that.

In this guide we will discuss one of those reasons: its easiness of configuration and seamless integration with server-side scripting languages such as PHP in the context of a standalone web server. In this type of setup, Apache is used to serve a single domain or application, as opposed to running several sites off a single system (also known as virtual hosting, the topic of our next tutorial).

Note: The configuration syntax and directives of Apache have changed a bit from version 2.2 to 2.4. In addition, some well-known directives in version 2.2 have been deprecated in 2.4. If you followed the steps in the previous tutorial, you should have installed the latest version of the web server (2.4 at the time of this writing).

As you can see in Fig. 2.1, you can verify the Apache version in CentOS with

```
httpd -v
```

and in Ubuntu using

```
apache2 -v
```

![Figure 2.1: Viewing the installed Apache version](image)
2.1 Inspecting the Apache configuration file

As you can already tell based on the first article, the only difference between the Apache installations in CentOS and Ubuntu is the package name. Thus, it is to be expected that the main configuration file be named differently (httpd.conf in CentOS and apache2.conf in Ubuntu) and located in a different place in each distribution (/etc/httpd/conf/ and /etc/apache2/, respectively).

Regardless of the distribution, the main configuration file contains the configuration directives that give the server its instructions. You will use this file to configure system-wide settings for the web server, and additional files to set up virtual hosts (but again, we will expand more on that last topic in the next guide).

It is important to note that you should understand and familiarize yourself with the directives in the configuration file before making changes that can potentially affect the operation of the web server.

2.2 Apache modules

You can easily extend the web server’s operation by using independent, separate pieces of software called modules that provide specific functionality. Some modules come built-in with Apache, while others can be installed using your distribution’s package management system and enabled to integrate with the web server. Although we will discuss modules in later guides of this series, it is important to have this definition in mind before we dive into the configuration directives. You will see the reason in a minute.

2.3 Configuration directives

The following directives are listed in the main configuration file. All of them (and many, many more!) are explained thoroughly in the Apache 2.4 configuration docs online at https://httpd.apache.org/docs/current/.

If you want or need to read the Apache documentation offline, you can install the package httpd-manual in CentOS:

```
yum install httpd-manual
```

and apache2-doc in Ubuntu:

```
sudo apt-get install apache2-doc
```

You can then access the docs through a web browser (https://server/manual, where server must be replaced with the hostname or the IP address of the machine). This tool can come in handy if at a given time you cannot access the Internet to check the same resource online.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Directive</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ServerRoot</td>
<td>The directory tree where the server’s configuration, error, and log files are kept.</td>
<td>Example</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listen</td>
<td>The IP and port where Apache is bound. The default is listening on port 80 of all network interfaces, although it is more secure to specify a single IP address.</td>
<td>Listen 192.168.0.100:80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>User Group</td>
<td>The name of the user/group to run the web server as. It is usually good practice to create a dedicated user and group for running Apache, as it is the case with most system services. You can also use the UID and the GID instead of the username and groupname, although it is not common to do so.</td>
<td>User apache Group apache</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directive</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ServerAdmin</td>
<td>The system administrator’s email address. Problems with the server will be sent to this address.</td>
<td>ServerAdmin root@localhost</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ServerName</td>
<td>The hostname and port that the server uses to identify itself.</td>
<td>ServerName <a href="http://www.example.com:80">www.example.com:80</a></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DocumentRoot</td>
<td>The root directory where web pages and directories will be stored by default. Although all requests are taken made to this directory, you can create symbolic links to point to other locations.</td>
<td>DocumentRoot &quot;/var/www/html&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ErrorLog</td>
<td>The location of the error log file</td>
<td>ErrorLog &quot;logs/error_log&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LogLevel</td>
<td>Controls the verbosity of messages logged to ErrorLog. Possible values include: debug, info, notice, warn, error, crit, alert, emerg. When a particular level is specified, messages from higher levels (indicated by the numbered list above) will be logged as well.</td>
<td>LogLevel warn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Directory</td>
<td>Used to enclose a group of directives that will apply only to the named directory and all its contents.</td>
<td>&lt;Directory /&gt; AllowOverride none Require all denied /&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Files</td>
<td>Use to limit the scope of the enclosed directives by filename instead of by directory. Wildcards and other regular expressions are allowed.</td>
<td>&lt;Files &quot;restricted.html&quot;&gt; #Insert here directives that apply only to restricted.html /&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IfModule</td>
<td>Used to specify directives that are only applied if a specific module is present.</td>
<td>&lt;IfModule mod_rewrite.c&gt; RewriteEngine on /&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Include</td>
<td>Includes other existing configuration files. If an absolute path is not used, it is relative to the ServerRoot directory.</td>
<td>Include conf/ssl.conf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IncludeOptional</td>
<td>Similar to the Include directive, with the only difference is that it is ignored if there are no matches instead of causing an error (as it is the case with Include).</td>
<td>IncludeOptional sites-enabled/*.conf</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To view the values of a certain directive quickly from the command line instead of opening the configuration file, you can use `grep` as follows. Let’s say we want to find out what is the directory where Apache is expecting web pages and directories to be stored by default. Yes, you guessed it right - that information is provided by the value of the `DocumentRoot` directive:

```
grep -i documentroot /etc/httpd/conf/httpd.conf
```

or

```
grep -i documentroot /etc/apache2/apache2.conf
```

in CentOS and Ubuntu, respectively.

As we said before, these and all of the Apache directives are well documented in the project’s website and through the `httpd-manual` and `apache2-doc` packages. If you click on the `Directives` link at the top of the page (see Fig. 2.2):
Figure 2.2: The Directives page

you will be taken to the complete list of directives available in the current version of Apache. Choose any directive (we will use Include as example) and click on the link to be redirected to the detailed description. Pay attention to the highlighted area in Fig. 2.3 below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Include Directive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Description:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Syntax:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Context:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Status:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Module:</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Compatibility:</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This directive allows inclusion of other configuration files from within the server configuration files.

Shell-style (fnmatch()) wildcard characters can be used in the filename or directory parts of the

Figure 2.3: Context of an Apache directive

Each directive has a Context, or in other words, a place where it is valid and has meaning to the operation of the web server. In the case of Include, the description indicates that it can only be used in the system-wide server configuration, inside a virtual host definition, and within Directory tags. If you attempt to use it in a different place or inside the wrong set of tags (such as inside IfModule or Files), the web server will complain about it by refusing to restart correctly.

### 2.4 Basic authentication

Another set of directives, not outlined in the table above as they are not typically present out of the box in the configuration file, are those related with authentication and authorization. These settings allow to grant access to resources after a user has entered valid credentials.

Although there are other authentication mechanisms, we will only cover basic authentication in this guide (which consists of username and password) for brevity. Please be aware that this method sends the password from the server to the client unencrypted, so it should not be used with sensitive data (in a later tutorial we will introduce more secure options). You can refer to the Authentication and Authorization page of the documentation for further details.

To create a password for user jdoe (which does not necessarily have to exist as a system user) and store them securely in a new password file named passwd inside /etc/httpd/conf or /etc/apache2 (in CentOS and Ubuntu, respectively), follow these steps (don’t forget to use sudo to gain administrative privileges and to change the path to the file to /etc/apache2/passwd if you’re using Ubuntu):
**Step 1** - Create the file with htpasswd, the tool that is used to manage basic authentication credentials. Use the `-c` option to indicate that we are creating a non-existent file:

```
htpasswd -c /etc/httpd/conf/passwds jdoe
```

**Step 2** - Choose a new password for jdoe and enter it twice when you are prompted to do so.

**Step 3** - Change ownership of the file to the user Apache is running as and set its permissions to 600:

In CentOS:

```
chown apache:apache /etc/httpd/conf/passwds
chmod 600 /etc/httpd/conf/passwds
```

In Ubuntu:

```
chown www-data:www-data /etc/apache2/passwds
chmod 600 /etc/apache2/passwds
```

Let’s take a look at what the contents of the file looks like in Fig. 2.4 (username and encrypted password are separated by a colon):

![Figure 2.4: The Apache passwords file](image)

In the following section you will see how to use these credentials to authenticate user **jdoe** and authorize him to access a resource served by Apache.

If you want to add other users to the same file, use `htpasswd` as explained earlier, only omitting the `-c` switch since the file now exists (no need to create a different one).

### 2.5 Directives in action

To put into practice all of what we have discussed so far, let us work with and modify the example given in the first article of this series. You will recall that we created a simple page named **index.html** inside `/var/www/html`. This directory, as you have learned in this guide, is of special importance as it is the default DocumentRoot.

Let’s picture the following scenario. We need to serve a file named **restricted.html** (also located inside `/var/www/html`) but only allow user **jdoe** to access such file after entering his password. Other files present inside DocumentRoot must be accessible to all users without authentication. Of course, this approach assumes this file exists in that directory already.

If not, you can use the following example (open with your preferred text editor and save as **restricted.html**):

```html
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>
<head>
<meta charset=utf-8 />
<title>Restricted file</title>
</head>
```
To accomplish our goal, let’s open the Apache configuration file and add the following Directory block:

```html
<Directory /var/www/html>
<Files restricted.html>
AuthType Basic
AuthName "SystemCodeGeeks - Restricted file"
AuthBasicProvider file
AuthUserFile /etc/apache2/passwds
Require user jdoe
</Files>
</Directory>
```

Now restart Apache:

In CentOS:

```
systemctl restart httpd
```

In Ubuntu:

```
service apache2 restart
```

And browse to https://server/restricted.html (where, again, you will need to replace server with the hostname or IP address of your server) as shown in Fig. 2.5:

![Figure 2.5: Browsing to the restricted page](image)

If you do not enter valid credentials, you will get the following error message:
Figure 2.6: Without valid credentials, a restricted resource cannot be accessed

Otherwise, you will be able to see the page:

Figure 2.7: With valid credentials, the resource can be accessed

Congratulations! You have configured your Apache web server to serve content based on user basic authentication.
2.6 Basic security considerations

It is advised, though not strictly required, to hide the Apache and operating system versions in error pages (as seen in Fig. 2.6). To do that, make sure the following directives have the indicated values in the configuration file. This will prevent (or at least, make it more difficult for) potential attackers from targeting known vulnerabilities either the web service or your server as a whole.

Add these lines at the end of the main configuration file:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ServerSignature Off</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ServerTokens Prod</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and you’re good to go.

2.7 Conclusion

In this guide we have explained how to set up Apache using directives in its configuration file. Don’t forget to check the official documentation for more details and options.
Chapter 3

Name-based Virtual Host Configuration

In our previous tutorial we discussed how to configure Apache as a standalone web server (hosting a single site) and how to configure it. In addition, we outlined the most frequent directives and explained the concept of context, which indicates the place where a directive is valid. If you have not read the Apache configuration tutorial yet, you are highly encouraged to do so before proceeding.

In this guide we will show you how to use Apache to run multiple sites using a single machine. This practice is known as name-based virtual hosting, and is key to our understanding of how a web server works. Using one machine to run several domains clearly has its advantages (low maintenance costs, for example) and a few disadvantages as well (without a bandwidth balancer in place, a single site can end up consuming the entire bandwidth allocated for the server, thus impacting negatively the operation and performance of the rest).

3.1 Reviewing the Apache configuration file

As you will recall from the previous guide, the main configuration file for Apache (where system-wide settings are found) is located in /etc/httpd/conf/httpd.conf in CentOS or /etc/apache2/apache.conf in Ubuntu. Note how we now refer to such file as the “main configuration file” and not only as “the configuration file” because we will see in a moment how you will use other files to define the directives for each virtual host. Although you can define virtual hosts inside the main configuration file, such practice is often discouraged. Instead, the preferred method for defining virtual hosts consists of using separate .conf files as it allows for scalability and easier maintenance.

Near the bottom of the main configuration file you will see the following lines:

In CentOS:

```
# Load config files in the "/etc/httpd/conf.d" directory, if any.
IncludeOptional conf.d/*.conf
```

In Ubuntu:

```
# Include the virtual host configurations:
IncludeOptional sites-enabled/*.conf
```

As the comment indicates, and as the IncludeOptional directive suggests, Apache will look for .conf files in the /etc/httpd/conf.d (in CentOS) or /etc/apache2/sites-enabled (Ubuntu) which, if present, are used to indicate the various directives that define a virtual host.

3.2 Defining virtual hosts

To begin, we will need to either
a) use 2 dummy domains (such as www.example1.com and www.example2.com, as in this guide, or others of your choosing), or
b) use 2 “real” domains that you have registered. This last option also requires that you have set up DNS entries for those domains with your cloud hosting provider, but such procedure is out of the scope of this tutorial as it is specific for each provider. If you want to implement name-based virtual hosting in your cloud VPS using domains you have previously registered, consult with your provider to set up the necessary DNS entries for each domain, or use a free service such as FreeDNS (https://freedns.afraid.org/).

Note that each virtual host will need a directory structure to store files and logs. In addition, the user Apache runs as (apache in CentOS or www-data in Ubuntu) needs to be able to read the web content. To do it, create the following directories and assign the indicated permissions:

- For CentOS:
  ```bash
  mkdir -p /var/www/example1.com/public_html
  mkdir -p /var/www/example2.com/public_html
  chmod -R 0755 /var/www/
  ```

- For Ubuntu:
  ```bash
  mkdir -p /var/www/example1.com/public_html
  mkdir -p /var/www/example2.com/public_html
  chmod -R 0755 /var/www/
  ```

Let’s start by defining www.example1.com. To do it, insert the following block in `/etc/httpd/conf.d/example1.com.conf` (CentOS) or `/etc/apache2/sites-available/example1.com.conf` (Ubuntu):

```xml
<VirtualHost *:80>
    DocumentRoot "/var/www/example1.com/public_html/
    ServerName www.example1.com
    ServerAlias example1.com
    ErrorLog /var/www/example1.com/error.log
    LogLevel info
    CustomLog /var/www/example1.com/access.log combined
</VirtualHost>
```

Then repeat for the other domain:

```xml
<VirtualHost *:80>
    DocumentRoot "/var/www/example2.com/public_html/
    ServerName www.example2.com
    ServerAlias example2.com
    ErrorLog /var/www/example2.com/error.log
    LogLevel info
    CustomLog /var/www/example2.com/access.log combined
</VirtualHost>
```

In CentOS, creating those files and restarting Apache is enough to define your two virtual hosts. In Ubuntu, however, you will need to use the `a2ensite` utility to create a symbolic link inside `/etc/apache2/sites-enabled` that points to the configuration file in the `sites-available` directory, as shown in Fig. 3.1:

```bash
scg@ubuntu:~$ sudo a2ensite example1.com
Enabling site example1.com.
To activate the new configuration, you need to run: service apache2 reload
scg@ubuntu:~$ sudo a2ensite example2.com
Enabling site example2.com.
To activate the new configuration, you need to run: service apache2 reload
```

Figure 3.1: Enabling virtual hosts in Ubuntu
sudo a2ensite example1.com
sudo a2ensite example2.com

Then restart Apache:
In CentOS:
systemctl restart httpd
In Ubuntu:
service apache2 restart

Finally, let’s create a sample `index.html` inside `/var/www/example1.com/public_html`. By indicating the presence of the jQuery library as a resource in this simple page, we will be able to recognize success and failures in the logs later:

```html
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>
<head>
<meta charset="utf-8">
<title>Example1.com</title>
<script src="jquery-1.12.0.min.js"></script>
</head>
<body>
<h1>Welcome!</h1>
<h3>This is Example1.com</h3>
</body>
</html>
```

and another one inside `/var/www/example2.com/public_html`:

```html
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>
<head>
<meta charset="utf-8">
<title>Example2.com</title>
<script src="jquery-1.12.0.min.js"></script>
</head>
<body>
<h1>Welcome!</h1>
<h3>This is Example2.com</h3>
</body>
</html>
```

Since both `www.example1.com` and `www.example2.com` are dummy domains, we need to tell our client computer how to find them. The most basic name resolution method is using the `/etc/hosts` file in our computer to map the IP address of our web server to those domains.

Using the Ubuntu server’s address (192.168.0.30, change to fit your environment) as example, add the following lines to the `/etc/hosts` file in each client computer that you want to access the virtual hosts:

```
192.168.0.30 example1.com www.example1.com
192.168.0.30 example2.com https://www.example2.com[www.example2.com]
```

Save the changes and launch your web browser. When you enter `www.example1.com` and `www.example2.com` in the URL bar and press Enter, the result should be similar to that shown in Fig. 3.2:
3.3 Troubleshooting

When we defined the virtual hosts in each individual file, we declared an `ErrorLog` and a `CustomLog` to log errors and successes, respectively, while requesting a resource from the virtual hosts. If you experience an error while browsing, you can refer to each log to find out what is wrong. Also, the access log can help you detect which resources are being requested in each virtual host, the source IP address, the date and time, and more details.

Here are portions of `error.log` and `access.log` for example1.com:

**Error log** - the client tried to access 3 non-existent resources inside www.example1.com (`/systemcodegeeks`, `/javacodengeeks`, and `/jquery-1.12.0.min.js`) and received a 404 HTTP response (ERROR):

```
```

**Access log** - let’s see what happens when we download the jQuery library to the public_html directory and request the index.html file of www.example1.com:

```
192.168.0.104 -- [13/Feb/2016:15:11:16 -0300] "GET / HTTP/1.1" 200 494 "--" "Mozilla/5.0 (X11; Ubuntu; Linux x86_64; rv:42.0) Gecko/20100101 Firefox/42.0"
```

As you can see above, this time the request received a 200 (OK) HTTP response in return. Make it a habit to inspect the logs for your virtual hosts often.

To temporarily disable a virtual host, follow this instruction depending on your distribution:

In CentOS, rename the configuration file (`/etc/httpd/conf.d/example1.com.conf` or `/etc/httpd/conf.d/example2.com.conf`) to something else not using the `.conf` extension. For example:
mv /etc/httpd/conf.d/example1.com.conf /etc/httpd/conf.d/example1.com

In Ubuntu, you can use the `a2dissite` utility as follows:

```bash
sudo a2dissite example1
```

In either case, this will prevent the `IncludeOptional` directive at the bottom of the main configuration file to load the definition of that specific virtual host.

### 3.4 Limiting bandwidth

As we explained in the introduction, you do not want a virtual host to consume all the bandwidth that is available in your server. To avoid this situation, we will make use of `mod_bw`, an Apache module that will allow us to limit the allocated bandwidth per virtual host.

Since `mod_bw` is not made available by default along with Apache, we will need to install it and make sure it is loaded before proceeding.

In CentOS 7, `mod_bw` is not available in an official repository. For that reason we will use an unofficial repo to install the package:

```bash
yum install https://repo.unmanarc.com/CentOS/7/RPMS/x86_64/mod_bw-0.92-2.el7.centos.x86_64.rpm
```

Once installed, we need to replace the path to the installed module in `/etc/httpd/conf.d/mod_bw.conf`:

```bash
sed -i 's@extramodules/mod_bw.so@modules/mod_bw.so@g' /etc/httpd/conf.d/mod_bw.conf
```

Then restart Apache.

In Ubuntu, the installation is more straightforward as `mod_bw` is provided by the `libapache2-mod-bw` package:

```bash
sudo apt-get install libapache2-mod-bw
```

Apache will then be restarted following the installation of `libapache2-mod-bw`.

As a totally silly test, let’s modify the total bandwidth allocated for `www.example1.com` to only 256 bytes for all clients (Bandwidth all 256 and MinBandwidth all -1) and limiting the number of connections from all sources to 5:

```xml
<VirtualHost *:80>
  DocumentRoot "/var/www/example1.com/public_html/"
  ServerName www.example1.com
  ServerAlias example1.com
  ErrorLog /var/www/example1.com/error.log
  LogLevel info
  CustomLog /var/www/example1.com/access.log combined
  BandwidthModule On
  ForceBandWidthModule On
  Bandwidth all 256
  MinBandwidth all -1
  MaxConnection all 5
</VirtualHost>
```

If you now restart Apache and try to browse to `www.example1.com`, you will notice a significant delay to load the page, while `www.example2.com` can be loaded just as fast as before.

You will agree with us that the 256-byte bandwidth limit is an over-exaggeration, but it is helpful to view the results quickly. Feel free to check out the `man page of mod_bw` online for further examples on how to limit bandwidth per IP, network, file types, and other criteria. Then you will be able to come up with a bandwidth usage limit that applies accurately to your needs per virtual host.
Let’s take a look at another example. Perhaps you need to store big files (high resolution images, music, or videos, to name a few examples) in a separate directory of your virtual host for people to download - separate from the site pages. As we mentioned in the above paragraph, we can limit the bandwidth available by file type, and we can do so on a specific directory or on the virtual host definition.

That said, let’s create a directory named `media` inside the DocumentRoot of `www.example1.com`. Note that this will not interfere with the operation of the rest of the site:

```bash
mkdir /var/www/example1.com/public_html/media
```

and add a `Directory` block inside the virtual host definition (`/etc/httpd/conf.d/example1.com.conf` in CentOS or `/etc/apache2/sites-available/example1.com.conf` in Ubuntu):

```apache
<VirtualHost *:80>
    DocumentRoot "/var/www/example1.com/public_html/"
    ServerName www.example1.com
    ServerAlias example1.com
    ErrorLog /var/www/example1.com/error.log
    LogLevel info
    CustomLog /var/www/example1.com/access.log combined
    BandwidthModule On
    ForceBandwidthModule On
    Bandwidth all 20480
    MinBandwidth all -1
    MaxConnection all 5
    <Directory "/var/www/example1.com/public_html/media">
        LargeFileLimit * 1024 10240
    </Directory>
</VirtualHost>
```

The `LargeFileLimit` directive above will limit the bandwidth available for all files in the media directory, greater than or equal to 1 MB (1024 KB) to 10 KB/s.

If you want to limit by extension, replace the star (*) with the file extension (such as `.avi` or `.mp3` for example). If you want to limit more than one file extension, use separate `LargeFileLimit` directives for each.

Let’s see what happens when we attempt to download a `.mp3` file from the media directory, as shown in Fig. 3.3:

![Figure 3.3: Limiting the bandwidth on a specific directory](image)

You can place big files in the media directory and limit the bandwidth on that specific directory without interfering with the operation of the rest of the site.

### 3.5 Summary

In this article we have explained how to configure Apache as a web server for name-based virtual hosts. In order to prevent one (or more) virtual host(s) from consuming all, or a significant amount of the available bandwidth, we also discussed how to use `mod_bw`. On top of it, we showed you how to check the individual logs of each virtual host to monitor their activity (requests and responses).

Feel free to experiment with the various Apache 2.4 directives and with `mod_bw` - you will be surprised at how much you can accomplish combining these two tools!
Chapter 4

mod_rewrite: Redirecting and rewriting URLs

In a previous article we mentioned that one of Apache’s most distinguishing features is its extensibility via modules, which we defined as "independent, separate pieces of software that provide specific functionality".

Some modules are built-in into Apache as part of the core functionality and are present when the web server is installed as we explained in “How to install the Apache web server”.

Others, such as mod_bw (which we covered in “Apache name-based Virtual Host Configuration Example”), can be installed using your distribution’s package management system.

The current list of all of the modules that come as part of the Apache HTTP Server can be found at https://httpd.apache.org/docs/current/mod/.

In this article we will explain how to use mod_rewrite (a well-known and widely used module) to dynamically map incoming HTTP requests targeting arbitrary URLs to specific documents in your web server’s or virtual host internal structure, or to another external URL.

In other words, this module will allow you to redirect (as the rewrite in the name suggests) an URL (https://www.example.com/scg/results.php?country=Argentina&province=Cordoba) to a more user or SEO friendly URL (https://www.example.com/scg/Argentina/Cordoba) in order to get a higher position in search engines rankings, which ultimately leads to more visitors.

To accomplish this purpose, mod_rewrite relies heavily on PCRE (Perl Compatible Regular Expressions) vocabulary, which we will introduce next. Please be advised, however, that this topic can be a little burdensome until you start reaping the benefits out of it.

4.1 Introducing regular expressions (regexes)

In simple words, a regular expression is a text string that represents a search pattern. The following list, adapted from the Apache documentation on PCRE, shows the most common characters used in regular expressions, their meaning, and an example:

. (a dot) matches any single character. Thus, b.t will match b*a*t, b*e*t, b*i*t, b*o*t, and b*u*t.
+ (the plus sign) repeats the previous characters one or more times. For example, o+ matches oo, ooo, etc.
* (star) repeats the previous match zero or more times. Additionally, * is also used to match an empty string. In other words, the matches returned by a+ are a subset of the matches of a*.
? (question sign) makes the match of the previous characters optional, so colou?r will match both color and colour.
ˆ (caret) matches the beginning of the string. For example ˆa matches a string that begins with a.
$ (dollar sign) matches the end of the string, so a$ matches a string that ends with a.

In addition, you can also group characters into groups of classes:

• A set of parentheses ( ) is used to group several characters into a single unit. You can then apply the above regex characters to the group as it was a single character. Thus, (ab)+ matches abab, ababab, etc. Keep in mind that the + here applies to the group of characters surrounded by parentheses.
• A character class \[ \] matches at least one of the characters in the set inside square brackets. For example, [alnum] matches any letter of the alphabet or numerical digit. Character classes are well explained in the PCRE regex syntax for PHP.

• On the opposite, a negative character class \[^\] matches any character not specified. Thus, c[^/]t matches cat or c2t but not c/t.

Finally, you can use the exclamation sign (!) to negate it.

Now we are ready to discuss the RewriteRule and RewriteCond directives, which are essential to the operation of mod_rewrite.

### 4.2 Introducing RewriteRule and RewriteCond

The RewriteRule directive, as its name implies, substitutes a given pattern with either one of three things:

- An absolute path to a local resource found inside the system
- A path to a local web resource
- An absolute URL

Its basic syntax is:

```plaintext
RewriteRule [Pattern] [Substitution] [Optional --> Flags]
```

Since the [Flags] parameters is optional, we will not cover it in detail, but only mention it when we use it in an example. You can find the full [Flags] documentation here. Last, but not least, we need to mention that you can place this directive inside the main configuration file, inside a Virtual host definition or Directory block. You can use multiple RewriteRule directives in the same context, each one with its own [Pattern], [Substitution] and (optionally) [Flags]. Alternatively, you can insert RewriteRule directives in .htaccess files. Although this is a widely used but not very secure method, we have chosen to not cover it during this series. However, you can learn more about it in the Apache documentation here. The RewriteCond directive introduces a condition that must be met before the RewriteRule rules are “activated”.

To better understand this topic, let’s illustrate with a few examples.

### 4.3 Examples

Before we proceed with some examples, there are some considerations that we must take into account. In order to actually use mod_rewrite, we need to add the directives listed below in the context where we will use this module. Additionally, we need to make sure the module is loaded. We do this by running (in Ubuntu)

```plaintext
sudo a2enmod rewrite
```

In CentOS, it is enabled by default, which you can confirm with

```plaintext
httpd -M | grep rewrite
```

You should get the following output:

```plaintext
rewrite_module (shared)
```

If not, you will need to check the presence of the module file (mod_rewrite.so) in /etc/httpd/modules and make sure Apache is loading the modules in that directory. Look for the following line in the main configuration file:

```plaintext
Include conf.modules.d/*.conf
```
(By the way, /etc/httpd/modules is actually a symbolic link to /etc/httpd/conf.modules.d)

If it is not there, add it before proceeding.

Suppose we want to enable mod_rewrite in the context of www.example1.com. We need to modify its configuration file and add RewriteEngine (to enable the rewriting engine). Additionally, you need to set the Options directive to allow FollowSymLinks:

```<VirtualHost *:80>
DocumentRoot "/var/www/example1.com/public_html/"
ServerName www.example1.com
ServerAlias example1.com
ErrorLog /var/www/example1.com/error.log
LogLevel info
CustomLog /var/www/example1.com/access.log combined
BandwidthModule On
ForceBandWidthModule On
Bandwidth all 20480
MinBandwidth all -1
MaxConnection all 5
<Directory "/var/www/example1.com/public_html/media">
LargeFileLimit * 1024 10240
</Directory>
RewriteEngine on
Options FollowSymLinks
</VirtualHost>
```

With that in place, also add the following lines inside the virtual host definition given above:

- `RewriteCond %{REMOTE_ADDR} "^192\.168\.0\.104"`
- `RewriteRule "^/vhosterrors" "/var/www/example1.com/error.log"`
- `RewriteRule "^/default\.(aspx)?$ "index.html" [R]`
- `RewriteRule "^/go/to/example2$" "https://example2.com" [R]`
- `RewriteRule "^/writer/(.*)/view$" "/var/www/example1.com/$1"`

(Make sure your configuration is similar to that shown in Fig. 4.1)

Let’s see what is happening here:

- `RewriteCond %{REMOTE_ADDR} "^192\.168\.0\.104"`

indicates that the below rules apply if the remote address is 192.168.0.104

- `RewriteRule "^/vhosterrors" "/var/www/example1.com/error.log"`

If you browse to https://example1.com/vhosterrors, a non-existent directory (note that it is a regular expression beginning with the word vhosterrors, as indicated by the caret sign), you will view the error log for the virtual host (/var/www/example1.com/error.log), as seen in Fig. 4.2.
Figure 4.2: Rewriting an URL to point to a local resource

```
RewriteRule "^/default\.aspx$" "index.html"
```

If you go to [https://example1.com/default.aspx](https://example1.com/default.aspx), you will be taken to the index.html of the virtual host. Refer to Fig. 4.3 for details.

Figure 4.3: Another example of URL rewriting
RewriteRule "^/go/to/example2$" "https://example2.com" [R]

Browse to https://example1.com/go/to/example2 and you will be redirected to https://example2.com. By the way, the R inside square brackets stands for Redirect. This rule, as opposed to the previous one (which does a URL rewrite in the full sense of the word), performs a redirect to an external site. You may want to keep in mind that example1.com and example2.com are two different, separate sites even though they are hosted in the same machine.

Finally,

RewriteRule "^/writer/(.*)/view$" "/var/www/example1.com/$1"

says that if you go to https://example1.com/writer/gabriel/view, you will be taken to /var/www/example1.com/public_html/gabriel. Here the $1 is a placeholder for whatever matches the regular expression (. ). As explained earlier, the dot stands for any character, and the star sign represents zero or more occurrences of such character. In other words, that is the regular expression for match everything. Since this file does not exist, in Fig. 4.4 we can see a portion of the error log that says so:

Figure 4.4: Using a regular expression match to rewrite an URL

If you try any of the above rewrite rules from a machine other than 192.168.0.104, you will see they don’t work as the rewrite rules are only put into effect when the remote address is 192.168.0.104, as you can see in Fig. 4.5:
With a slight change in the `RewriteCond` directive, you could allow access from the 192.168.0.0/24 network. Replace

```
RewriteCond %{REMOTE_ADDR} "^192\.[0-9]{3}\.104"
```

with

```
RewriteCond %{REMOTE_ADDR} "^192\.[0-9]{3}\.0"
```

Then test again (see Fig. 4.6):
Please note that you should consider creating custom 404 error pages to display when the visitor attempts to access a resource that does not exist.

For example, copy the following code in /var/www/example1.com/public_html/error.html:

```html
<!DOCTYPE html>
<html>
<head>
<title>Not found</title>
</head>
<body>
<h1>Not found :(</h1>
<h3>The page you requested has not been found.</h3>
Perhaps you would like to go to our &lt;a href="index.html">home page</a>?
</body>
</html>
```

Now add the following line inside the virtual host definition:

```
ErrorDocument 404 /error.html
```

Then browse to a non-existent resource (https://example1.com/hello, for example) and you will see your personalized error page. See Fig. 4.7 for details:
As you can see, a custom error page looks much better than Apache’s default. In addition, you can use the error page to provide instructions (such as the suggestion to go to the home page in the Fig. 4.7).

### 4.4 Summary

In this article we have explained how to use mod_rewrite, definitely one of Apache’s most versatile modules, to perform URL rewriting and redirecting. As it is a vast topic, we cannot adequately cover it in a single article, so you are highly encouraged to check out the documentation linked in this tutorial, along with the Redirecting and Remapping guide. This last resource provides lots of other examples of what you can do with mod_rewrite.
Chapter 5

Apache SSL / TLS Support

In the previous articles of this series, we discussed how to install Apache, configure virtual hosts, rewrite and redirect URLs, and add basic authentication to access resources, among other things.

Although all those things are necessary in order to have a functional web server, any serious discussion about Apache must take security into account. In other words, you need to ensure that sensitive and other private data that is sent from a client to your web server is protected along its way.

5.1 Introducing SSL and TLS

Originally designed by Netscape to secure transactions between web servers and browsers, the Secure Sockets Layer (best known as SSL) protocol served well its purpose for a long time. This was the case until critical vulnerabilities (such as Heartbleed and Poodle) were found in some of its most-used implementations. This eventually led to the recommendation of avoiding SSL and using the Transport Layer Security, or TLS for short. Version 1.2 of the TLS protocol is well documented in RFC 5246. When you request a page over HTTPS (https://www.facebook.com/ for example), the server responds with a valid certificate that has been signed by a common trusted party, along with its public key. The client then returns an encrypted key (signed with the server’s public key), which is then decrypted using the server’s private key.

From this point on, a secure session is initiated between server and client, and both use the session key to encrypt and decrypt exchanged data. In more technical terms, asymmetric cryptography (public / private key pair) is used while the session key is being exchanged, and then symmetric encryption (shared key) is utilized while the client and the server communicate with each other.

5.2 Apache and TLS

In this guide we will again use example2.com, one of the virtual hosts that we previously set up. To begin, we need to make sure that the mod_ssl package is installed if we are using CentOS:

```
yum install mod_ssl
```

or that the ssl module is loaded in Ubuntu:

```
sudo service apache2 restart
```

To illustrate, we will use a self-signed certificate, which is easy to create and use. A self-signed certificate is perfectly valid for a private application (as you can generate it on your own at no cost to you), but not for a production application. For a web site or application that other people will use, you may want to consider getting a certificate signed by a trusted Certificate Authority. Note, however, that this option is not free. Let’s begin by creating a special directory to store the certificate and the key.

In CentOS:
mkdir /etc/httpd/certs

In Ubuntu:

sudo mkdir /etc/apache2/certs

**Important:** The following example is based in Ubuntu, so if you are using CentOS make sure you change the path to the certs directory. The rest of the set up is identical for both distributions.

Now we can go ahead and create a certificate that will be valid for 365 days and a 2048-bit RSA key. As you can see in Fig. 5.1, you can fill the required fields with whatever information you want:

```bash
sudo openssl req -x509 -nodes -days 365 -newkey rsa:2048 -keyout /etc/apache2/certs/apache2.key -out /etc/apache2/certs/apache2.crt
```

![Generating a 2048 bit RSA private key](image)

```
Generating a 2048 bit RSA private key

```

```
writing new private key to '/etc/apache2/certs/apache2.key'
```

```
-----
You are about to be asked to enter information that will be incorporated into your certificate request.
```

```
What you are about to enter is what is called a Distinguished Name or a DN.
```

```
There are quite a few fields but you can leave some blank
```

```
For some fields there will be a default value,
```

```
If you enter '.', the field will be left blank.
```

```
-----
```

```
Country Name (2 letter code) [AU]: AR
```

```
State or Province Name (full name) [Some-State]: San Luis
```

```
Locality Name (eg, city) []: Villa Mercedes
```

```
Organization Name (eg, company) [Internet Widgits Pty Ltd]: Gabriel Canepa
```

```
Organizational Unit Name (eg, section) []: 
```

```
Common Name (e.g. server FQDN or YOUR name) []: www.example2.com
```

```
Email Address []: info@example2.com
```

```
scg@ubuntu:~$/
```

---

Figure 5.1: Creating a self-signed certificate and key file

You can find the explanation for the other options in the man page of openssl.

A quick inspection of `/etc/apache2/certs` will show the certificate and key files, as can be seen in Fig. 5.2:

```
cd /etc/apache2/certs
ls
```

```
file apache2.crt
file apache2.key
```
Figure 5.2: Displaying the certificate and key file type

Now let’s go to the configuration file of example2.com, which up to this point should look as follows:

```apache
<VirtualHost *:80>
    DocumentRoot "/var/www/example2.com/public_html/"
    ServerName www.example2.com
    ServerAlias example2.com
    ErrorLog /var/www/example2.com/error.log
    CustomLog /var/www/example2.com/access.log combined
</VirtualHost>
```

We need to tell Apache to use TLS for this particular virtual host. To do that, change the IP address and port where the virtual host is defined to 192.168.0.30 (the IP address of the Ubuntu server) and 443, respectively, and then add the following directives:

- **SSLEngine on** enables the usage of SSL and TLS for this virtual host.
- **SSLCertificateFile** `/etc/apache2/certs/apache2.crt` indicates the path to the certificate file.
- **SSLCertificateKeyFile** `/etc/apache2/certs/apache2.key` indicates the path to the key file.
- **SSLProtocol All -SSLv3** tells Apache to use all protocols except SSL v3 (which means we are forcing Apache to use TLS only).

Now restart Apache.

The virtual host definition should now look as follows:

```apache
<VirtualHost 192.168.0.30:443>
    DocumentRoot "/var/www/example2.com/public_html/"
    ServerName www.example2.com
    ServerAlias example2.com
    SSLEngine on
    SSLCertificateFile /etc/apache2/certs/apache2.crt
    SSLCertificateKeyFile /etc/apache2/certs/apache2.key
    SSLProtocol All -SSLv3
    ErrorLog /var/www/example2.com/error.log
    CustomLog /var/www/example2.com/access.log combined
</VirtualHost>
```

In CentOS 7, you will need to allow the https service through your firewall:

```bash
firewall-cmd --add-service=https
firewall-cmd --add-service=https --permanent
```
To test, you can now either open a browser and go to https://example2.com (you will be asked to confirm a security exception that indicates that the server is presenting a self-signed certificate) or add the following line to the /etc/hosts file:

```
192.168.0.30 example2 example2.com
```

and use the openssl tool as follows.

First, test a non-supported protocol (SSLv3 for example):

```
openssl s_client -connect example2.com:443 -ssl3
```

Then repeat the test using TLS:

```
openssl s_client -connect example2.com:443 -tls1
```

You should see a significant difference between the output of these two tests.

If you decided to use a browser to perform the test instead, you should see the certificate information after opening the developer tools (in Firefox, right click and choose Inspect element). Refer to Fig. 5.3 for details.
Congratulations! You have setup TLS with Apache.

### 5.3 Summary

In this guide we have outlined the necessary steps to add security to Apache. It is important to note that there is much more to security than what can be adequately covered in a single article. Thus, you are highly encouraged to become familiar with the
mod_ssl documentation before taking your web server to a production stage.
Chapter 6

Apache URL rewrite example

In Apache mod_rewrite example: Redirecting and rewriting URLs, we introduced you to Perl Compatible Regular Expressions (PCRE) and explained how to integrate them with the mod_rewrite Apache module. These tools allow us to perform URL rewriting and redirecting for a variety of purposes at our convenience.

In this tutorial we will build on these concepts and share other examples of URL rewriting you should have handy as a system administrator.

6.1 Redirecting to a new resource in the same server

If you have changed the name of a page and want both the old and new URLs to be functional (meaning both lead to the new URL), mod_rewrite allows you to get the job done in a transparent way for end users, who will not notice the difference in their browsers. In this example we will use the example1.com virtual host.

For simplicity, let’s suppose that we had a page named about.html and we renamed it to aboutus.html. Since we do not want users to notice the change, all requests to about.html must be rewritten to aboutus.html.

To accomplish this, we need to insert the following line at the end of the virtual host block for example1.com:

```apache
RewriteRule "^/about\..html$" "/aboutus.html"
```

After saving changes to the configuration file, restart Apache and browse to https://example1.com/about.html as seen in Fig. 6.1:

![Redirecting to a new resource without visible URL change](example1.com/about.html)

We recently renamed this page from about.html to aboutus.html, but we hope you didn't notice :)

Figure 6.1: Redirecting to a new resource without visible URL change
As you can see, there is no page named `about.html` in the `DocumentRoot` of `example1.com`, but the rewrite rule caused Apache to serve `aboutus.html` instead. In the address bar the end user will not notice the difference. However, if you use replace the previously added rewrite rule with this one

```
RewriteRule "^/about\./html$" "aboutus.html" [R]
```

the URL in the address bar WILL change and the request will be logged accordingly, as we can see in Fig. 6.2:

![Redirecting to a new resource with visible URL change](image)

Figure 6.2: Redirecting to a new resource with visible URL change

In this last case, the `[R]` rewrite flag is used to cause the HTTP redirect to be issued to the browser. The 302 HTTP response indicates that the browser is “told” to make a second request to the new URL. This behavior can be see in Fig. 6.2 above.

### 6.2 Redirecting to a resource moved to another server

If for some reason you need to move a page (or any kind of file, for that matter) to a different server, you will want your users to still be able to access that resource by browsing to the usual URL. This option may come in handy if you need to move a site between servers, or to leverage the available bandwidth of the second system.

For example, let’s say we have a video file named `video.mp4` inside the media folder of `example1.com`, and we want to move it to the `DocumentRoot` directory of `example2.com`. Since we are hosting both virtual hosts inside the same machine, we will simply use the `mv` command (in other situations, you will use `scp` or `sftp` to transfer the file) to change the location (see Fig. 6.3 for details):
Figure 6.3: Moving a video file to a different virtual host

To allow users to access video.mp4 when they type https://example1.com/video.mp4, use the following rewrite rule in the virtual host block:

```
RewriteRule "^/video\.(mp4|gif)" "https://example2.com/$1" [R,L]
```

Now save changes, don’t forget to restart Apache, and let’s see what happens in Fig. 6.4:

Figure 6.4: Serving a resource that has been moved to a new server

In Fig. 6.4 we can see that the request to https://example1.com/video.mp4 was actually handled by example2.com. The combination of the R and L flags in the rewrite rule tells Apache to 1) perform a redirect, and 2) disregard further rules, respectively.

6.3 Serve browser-dependent content

You can also use mod_rewrite to present a different file as home page based on the end user’s browser. We will use four different files (firefox.html, chrome.html, ie.html, and elinks.html for Mozilla Firefox, Google Chrome, Internet Explorer, and the text-based elinks browsers, respectively) for this. Refer to Fig. 6.5 for details:
Add the following lines to the configuration file of example2.com inside the virtual host block. Note that this relies on the HTTP_USER_AGENT environment variable, which stores the user-agent string identifying the browser:

```
RewriteCond %{HTTP_USER_AGENT} ".*Firefox.*"
RewriteRule ^/foo\.html$ /firefox.html [L]
RewriteCond %{HTTP_USER_AGENT} ".*ELinks.*"
RewriteRule ^/scg\.html$ /elinks.html [L]
RewriteCond %{HTTP_USER_AGENT} ".*Chrome.*"
RewriteRule ^/scg\.html$ /chrome.html [L]
RewriteCond %{HTTP_USER_AGENT} ".*Trident.*"
RewriteRule ^/scg\.html$ /ie.html [L]
RewriteRule ^/scg\.html$ /index.html [L]
```

You will notice that the regular expressions used in the above rewrite rules look for a match inside the user agent string (which can be rather large, such as `Mozilla/5.0 (Windows NT 6.1; rv:44.0) Gecko/20100101 Firefox/44.0`).

Depending on the browser, a different page will be displayed when the user requests `https://example2.com/scg.html` (note that this file does not exist in the DocumentRoot of this virtual host). If the browser is neither Firefox, Chrome, IE (identified by the string Trident) or elinks, the request will be redirected to index.html.

In Fig. 6.6 we see how Apache has returned different pages for each of the four browsers mentioned earlier. We also used w3m (another text-based browser) to illustrate the default action when the user agent string does not match the rewrite conditions (in this case, the usual index.html page is served):
Why would you want to use \texttt{mod_rewrite} for this? For example, because some browsers may not be compatible with certain versions of Javascript libraries, or perhaps you want to have a minimal page for text-based browsers.

### 6.4 Summary

In this article we have shared a few extra examples of URL rewriting and redirecting with the intent to give you a glimpse of the capabilities of \texttt{mod_rewrite}. Fortunately, the Apache website provides lots of useful information and examples about the use of this module. With that in mind, the sky is the limit!

We hope that you have found this tutorial useful.