# A low carbon proof-of-work blockchain 

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#### Abstract

Proof of Work (PoW) blockchains burn a lot of energy. Proof-of-work algorithms are expensive by design and often only serve to compute blockchains. In some sense, carbon-based and non-carbon based regional electric power is fungible. So the total carbon and non-carbon electric power mix plays a role. Thus, generally PoW algorithms have large $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ footprints solely for computing blockchains. A proof of technology is described for replacing hashcash or other PoW methods with a lottery and proof-of-VM (PoVM) emulation. PoVM emulation is a form of PoW where an autonomous blockchain miner gets a lottery ticket in exchange for providing a VM (virtual Machine) for a specified period. These VMs get their jobs from a job queue. Managing and ensuring, by concensus, that autonomous PoVMs are properly configured and running as expected gives several gaps for a complete practical system. These gaps are discussed. Our system is similar to a number of other blockchain systems. We briefly survey these systems. This paper along with our proof of technology was done as a senior design project.


Keywords: Blockchain, low carbon blockchain

## 1 Introduction

This proof of technology assumes some familiarity with blockchains such as can be found in [1].

Proof-of-work (PoW) blockchains construct hash chains that (1) have subchains that seem to be intractable to counterfeit and (2) their proofs-of-work are designed to throttle the network use and abuse while allowing select workers (miners) to get paid. These characteristics are central for building trust for autonomous actors to use, create, and maintain PoW blockchains.

Proof-of-work blockchains consume a lot of energy. For instance, the bitcoin network uses as much power as small countries [18]. Consider current regional energy supply mixes and the transportable nature of blockchain mining. These energy supply mixes and regional fungibility of electricity give way to blockchains having large $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ footprints.

Proof-of-stake (PoS) blockchains require their participants to put up assets as collateral. Usually, this collateral is in cryptocurrency. These participants validate the blocks in the blockchain. This validation is akin to building the blocks in a PoW blockchain. A winner (who gets paid) is randomly selected from the participants who put down collateral. This may be done by a multiparty lottery. This requires less resources and thus produces less $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$. Our proof of technology is different since
we target PoW blockchains. It is notable that many recent systems that can offer low $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ are either PoS or use variations of PoW and PoS .

This prototype low $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ PoVM system uses Docker ${ }^{\circledR}$ containers orchestrated by independent instances of Kubernetes (K8s). Each instance of K8s manages containers that are offered as a PoVMs. These PoVMs can be arranged as complex networks of containers by K8s. Skupper manages the K8s instances and sends jobs to the K8s instances. These K8s instances then run the jobs on the Docker containers. If we replace a PoW blockchain with a PoVM so it may do useful work while building the blockchain. This useful work is submitted by customers to the job queue. These jobs are executed by the Docker PoVMs. The work done by these VMs becomes a proxy for PoW.

Ideally, these customer jobs would be done even if the blockchain did not exist. Thus, this system has the potential to lower the $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ footprint.

The concept of low $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ distributed peer-to-peer computing began with volunteer distributed computing systems. It has evolved to scientific computing problem instances as PoW problems. In several of these systems there is a mix of PoW and PoS. We describe more details of these systems in the previous work subsection. The focus of the current paper is towards PoVM systems using off-the-shelf systems in a senior-design project. This senior-design project took a total of 6 -credit hours split over two semesters.

This paper describes the start of a PoVM blockchain targeting a lower $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ footprint than traditional PoW blockchains. This will be accomplished by replacing PoW blockchains with PoVM blockchains. This is assuming the source of power is (mostly) carbon based. The VMs we focus on are OS-level VMs or containers. OS-level VMs are lightweight VMs. Particularly, OS-level VMs share infrastructure of their host machines. This keeps the cost of these VMs low. This shared infrastructure may also subject these containers, or their hosts, to security weaknesses.

Intuitively, a PoVM supplies a general computation plaform. This platform should be capable of running in any number of standard environments. These include any images available on Docker or any image that can be built on Docker. These general computational platforms run programs and their data is supplied by customers. These customers will supply computing job instances to our system.

Definition 1 (Jobs, transactions, and memcache). A job is a basic computational unit of value that produces a single answer. A job is computable in a single OS-level VM container.

A transaction is a token or currency transaction performed in a blockchain. The memcache is a queue of transactions that will be memorialized in the blocks of a blockchain.

A job can be a decision problem so it only has either a true or false answer. Though jobs need not only be decision problems.

A central challange is to prove these jobs were completed properly with the appropriate resources. Of course, a customer may supply a problem instance that cannot be completed within the given resources. This is where service-level agreements come in.

Definition 2 (Service-Level Agreement (SLA)). An SLA is a pre-agreed set of terms and conditions about a supplied VM and jobs it may run.

An SLA may be two-sided. That is, the PoVMs may have to abide by certain limits. Also the customers instances may have to abide by certain limits.

In our context, an SLA includes the number of instructions-per-second, flops, the amount of available core memory, the amount of persistant storage, speed of the bus and other subsystems. Ensuring a PoVM adheres to an SLA may be reputation based. Several systems use reputation as a proxy for validating adherence to expectations. Likewise, customers may get reputation rankings for supplying problem instances that can be solved within the agreed or negotiated SLAs.

It is notable that dockerfiles can structure system configurations. Similarly, Kubernetes configuration files are a start towards SLAs. These configuration files lack certain useful terms such as instructions-per-second. Indeed, K9s configuration files may cover SLAs for container orchestration, but not other issues for running jobs.

Just like PoW blockchains, PoVM blockchains have subchains that are (1) apparently intractable to counterfeit and (2) the proof-of-VM is designed to throttle the network use and abuse. These VMs must be managed and validated by concensus.

Definition 3 (Proof-of-Virtual-Machine (PoVM)). Consider a VM $M$, an SLA $S$, a configuration $C$, and a job $J$.

A PoVM is a VM $M$ and a publically verifiable proof that $M$ has configuration $C$ and $M$ runs $J$ for a fixed period of time while satisfying the SLA $S$.

There are several technical gaps to fill-in to make our proof-of-tech useful. For example, verifying adherence to SLAs, validating a properly configured system, and validating that a VM is continuously working according to the SLA. Several systems, for example [11,12], use reputation-based metrics to evaluate likelihood of compliance going forward as well as the behavior of customers.

Smart contracts are usually computed by all miners in blockchain networks. In other words, smart contracts are computed on-chain. Thus, on-chain PoW computation generally produces a lot of $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$. The PoVMs are not on-chain, though records of their verification are on-chain. The same holds true for the records of the PoW calculations. That is, PoW verifications are stored in blocks but PoW calculations are not done on-chain. PoVMs are designed to run standard loads as PoW proxies. Neither PoW nor PoVMs are run on-chain.

It is in the egalitarian spirit of many PoW blockchains to allow anyone to offer their mining services. So, the PoVM proposal given here can be enhanced by homomorphic encryption. This is to prevent an organization's competitors, or other interested parties, from accessing their computations. Homomorphic encryption is getting cheaper and faster [23-26,22]. Also the proposal in this paper can be implemented by cloud providers themselves. Indeed, several cloud providers offer blockchains. In many cases, cloud users already trust their cloud service providers. These users expect the cloud providers will keep their systems and data secure. Homomorphic encryption can help here, though it must be very efficient so the PoVMs have low $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ consumption.

Khazzaka [21] argues that, all told, the current traditional global payments systems require more energy than Bitcoin and Bitcoin related systems. This argument is made by an analysis of traditional payment systems. Their analysis includes bank transfers, credit checks, running physical bank branches, software clients and servers, ATM machines, etc. The energy costs they analyze also include creating and distributing new notes and coins. less expensive.

### 1.1 Hashcash PoW

Hashcash is used for PoW blockchains. Hashcash uses message digest hash functions to find new blocks for many PoW blockchains. The computation using these message digest hash functions is interesting. In the case of hashcash, these computations have no apparent application besides restricting participation in building blocks.

A message-digest hash function is a function that maps from large strings to small fingerprints. A fingerprint is a small string that may uniquely represent the large string input. This representation is done by mapping a domain of large strings to a range of small strings by a message-digest function. Of course, by the pigeonhole principle, a set of all large strings cannot uniquely map to a set of all small strings. Particularly, consider the set $S$ of all strings of length 1,024-bits. This set cannot be uniquely mapped to the set $F$ of all 8 -bit strings. Any such mapping must map many strings from $S$ to the same element of $F$ and so on. However, ideal messagedigest hash functions, which may not exist, would have the property that if $|F|$ is large enough then it is very hard to find collisions of elements of $S$.

Example small fingerprint may be 180 -bits, 256 -bits or even 512 -bits. Ideally message-digest functions should run fast, but ideally it should be intractable to find a collision from the message-digest of two different inputs.

Suppose $h$ is a message-digest hash function. Given a string $B$, it appears to be intractable to find another string $B^{\prime}$ so that $h(B)=h\left(B^{\prime}\right)$. This property is collision resistance.

Consider two strings $S$ and $T$. Then $S T$ is the concatenation of $S$ and $T$.
A challange that seems easier than collision resistance, is to find another string $N$ so that $h(B N)<T$. For example, say any $N$ will do if the message-digest hash
function $h$ outputs 180 -bit fingerprints. That is, if $T=2^{180}-1$, then $h(B N)<T$ is always true. If $T=2^{180}-2$ is often true for many strings $N$, etc.

Miners do their work by modifying their own nonce $N$. Each miner can independently change their nonce. The first miner credited with solving the hashcash proof of work gets paid. Of course, without paying for support, blockchains would not last long. So, some form of payment to the miners is important.

Definition 4 (Hashcash Proof of Work [29, 37]). Suppose $h$ is a message-digest hash function. Consider a publically shared block $B$ and an individual miner-generated nonce $N$. The first recognized miner to sufficiently modify their own nonce $N$ to generate the proscribed number of 0 s in the initial part of the message-digest hashfunction of $B N$ is declared the winner.

Consider an ideal message-digest hash function $h$. Computing a message-digest hash function $h$ on an input $B$ is easy. That is, computing $h(B)$ is easy. Finding which nonces $N$ are such that $h(B N)<T$ for some threshold value $T$ appears hard, but seems much easier than finding a collision. Finding a threshold value $T$ so that $h(B N)<T$ is the same as finding a certain number of 0 s in the initial part of the message-digest hash-function of $B N$. The smaller the threshold $T$ the harder it is to find a nonce $N$ so that $h(B N)<T$.

Dwork and Naor [37] introduced proof-of-work. Adam Back introduced blockchains and indicated [29]: "Hashcash was originally proposed as a mechanism to throttle systematic abuse of un-metered internet resource."

Hashcash proof of work also contends with apparent ties for the first miner to solve the Hashcash problem. If two or more miners are credited with winning a block simultaneously, then declaring a winner is defered to the next mining round. Each of the miners, simultaneously credited with winning, has its own subchain. Each of these subchains is a potential winning subchain. In this next mining round, miners work off of any potentially winning subchain. Whichever of these potentially winning subchains is extended and validated first becomes part of the blockchain. The other potential subchains are often abandoned.


Fig. 1. A blockchain-like hash chain

Figure 1 shows a tiny blockchain. After the genesis block $G=B_{0}$, the message digest hash function $h$ computes a fingerprint of the previous block concatenated with one of the miner's nonces. Before choosing to use a blockchain, users assume the genesis block is the valid starting block. They also assume ideal message digest hash functions. This assumes: it is intractable to find two distinct inputs that have the same fingerprint. Thus, supposing an ideal message-digest hash function $h$ and a single input block $B$. Two miners can generate a different inputs $B N_{1}$ and $B N_{2}$ based on their own independent choices of nonce $N_{1}$ and $N_{2}$. It seems intractable to find two different nonces $N_{1} \neq N_{2}$ so that $h\left(B N_{1}\right)=h\left(B N_{2}\right)$. So, traditional PoW blockchains leverage the Hashcash-PoW challenge of computing the same fingerprint with different inputs ( $B N_{1}$ and $B N_{2}$ ). In both cases, each miner has no apparent advantage in finding a suitable modified input $B N_{1}$ and $B N_{2}$ to ensure $h\left(B N_{1}\right)$ or $h\left(B N_{2}\right)$ are sufficiently small. Hashcash-PoW seems to depend on effort and luck.

We propose replacing Hashcash-PoW with a lottery along with PoVM. The winner of the lottery gets paid, in essence, for supporting the network.

The number of lottery tickets is proportional to the number of PoVMs a miner successfully emulates. This emulation is assumed to be with the given configuration and the given SLA. These VMs run jobs from the job queue. The cost of VM emulation will throttle miners from abusing the PoVM system. The blocks contain transactions from the mempool. These blocks are joined by message digest hash functions, but without doing Hashcash-PoW computations.

In the start of this proof of technology, we use Docker, Kubernetes (K8s), and Skupper. K8s manages and monitors container loads. It also uses heartbeats to monitor containers. Skupper connects K8s instances. We have not implemented the configurations or any SLAs.

### 1.2 Previous work

Voluntarily sharing idle computer time has been around since at least the mid 1990s [2]. See a few other early volunteer systems in [7,36]. Later prominent examples include [6-8]. Voluntary computing systems based on the blockchain were proposed in Shan [44]. Shan focuses on using blockchains to avoid a single-point of failure found in centeralized systems. In addition, Shan points out the peer-topeer nature of blockchains can enhance auditing of volunteer computing. Adding blockchains to solve computational portions of science problems as proxys for proof-of-work gave way to Decentralized Science (DeSci) [4,5]. Indeed, the DeSci problem instances are the proofs-of-work. The cryptocurrency generated can also help sustain volunteer networks for computing DeSci challanges. DeSci offers the potential for verification/reproducibility, trust, intellectual property tracking, funding, among other advantages $[4,5]$. Of course, these science problem instances as PoW proxies lower the overall $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ produced. There are several blockchain systems that
serve processing power, as proofs-of-work, for general computation [3, 15]. Such realworld systems include Gridcoin [10], Golem [11], iExec [12], and SONM [13]. These blockchains are a mix between PoW and PoS. Gridcoin is focused on computation for science and builds on $[8,7]$. It is notable that Golem has recently performed substantial chemical calculations simulating the beginnings of life, see Roszak, et al. [14] and also the report in [9]. Golem depends on its compute suppliers to run KVM on their machines.

Ghaemi, Khazaei, and Musilek [36] give a serverless blockchain compute platform using idle computer capacity. They use Hyperledger Fabric and a concensus system rather than PoW or PoS.

Ball, Rosen, Sabin, and Vasudevan [33] suggest worst-case problem instances as proof-of-work problems. There are practical problems that have been expressed as instances of SAT. The Satisfiability Problem (SAT) is a classical $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete problem The SAT appears hard in the worst-case. Although, it is not known how challenging solving SAT instances is on average [19]. Ball, et al. [33] highlight the assumption that the Hashcash PoW seems to provide good proofs-of-work. However, they mention they are not aware that the Hashcash PoW problem captures any complexity class. So breaking Hashcash PoW problem may only break Bitcoin and other similar systems, rather than providing a complexity theory breakthrough. Their work is based on their earlier work: Ball, Rosen, Sabin, Vasudevan [32]. This earlier work is to solve certain graph problems that can be expressed in first order logic.

Other prior work includes, time-lock puzzles as proofs-of-work by Bitansky, Goldwasser, Jain, Paneth, Vaikuntanathan, and Waters[34]; Time-lock puzzles may help with certain types of SLAs.

Philippopoulos, Ricottone, and G. Oliver [31] and Oliver, Ricottone, and Philippopoulos [40] focus on $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete problem instances. Loe and Quaglia [39] also propose using $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete problem instances as proofs-of-work. Particularly, they offer a type of traveling salesperson problem. They also give a table of alternatives to Hashcash for proof-of-work.

Chatterjee, Goharshady, and Pourdamghani [35] propose encoding submitted problems as SAT (Boolean Satisifiability Instances). Their model proposes that miners can select the traditional Hashcash PoW or a submitted $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete problem instance of the SAT problem. They discusses how many 'useful problem instances' papers or applications may not, in fact, be useful in the immediate term. They indicate, of course accumulating knowledge about problem solutions, even if not immediately applicable, may be useful. However, they propose industrially necessary $\mathcal{N} \mathcal{P}$-complete problems that are useful in the "immediate practical value."

### 1.3 Technologies used

Our proposal focuses on off-the-shelf technologies. Some of the distributed computing systems such as Gridcoin, Golem and iExec leverage several of these technologies as well [10-12].

Docker Docker [28] is the basis of Docker.com and Docker is open source. It is the most popular system for managing and executing virual containers. Containers are OS-level virtual machines. That is, each container shares some of the underlying operating system's infrastructure. This makes the containers more lightweight than full virtual machines. At the same time, containers are not independent from their underying systems. Namespaces isolate containers from their hosts [42].

Figure 2 shows the general structure of Docker containers. Particularly, the plethora of images docker users maintain allows very general computational problems to be executed. These images and their standard installations can be used as the configuration set ups needed for general PoVM computation. Particularly, a dockerfiles can be a specific configuration.


Fig. 2. Basic containers

Kubernetes Kubernetes (K8s) [27] is a Cloud Native Computing Foundation open source project. K8s manages or orchestrates containerized services and workloads. It provides a framework for running distributed systems resiliently. K8s has many features including: Service discovery, load balancing, load management, automatic rollouts and rollbacks, self-healing, and configuration management. When working
with containers, K8s works with container technologies such as Docker or LXC. Docker is the most used technology with K8s.

Kubernetes resource files are a good start towards orchestration SLAs. These resource files can balance loads, structure docker instance, and scale elastically. Another type of SLA contract or file may be best for enforcing instructions-persecond, flops, etc.

Skupper Skupper [43], is an Apache Software Foundation open-source system. It creates a virtual application network (VAN) for multiple instances of K8s [43]. As shown in Figure 3, Skupper connects multiple K8s instances using virtual application routers. Each K8s instance contains its own networks and containers. Skupper works via K8s namespaces which separate services within a cluster and allows for managed instances of K8s.

Skupper is not a multiparty concensus based system. So, it does not fit the general requirements for a blockchain-like system. Furthermore, Skupper's work is not documented by PoW systems.


Fig. 3. Skupper architecture showing Virtual Application Routers (VANs)

## 2 Background

Foundations and technology background play important roles in this work.

### 2.1 Foundations Background

Golem, iExec and SONM all use a number of methods to ensure the validity of their outsourced and off-chain computation [11-13]. A key method these systems use for validation of outsourced and off-chain job computation is redundantly computing jobs. Then they compare the outcomes of these computations. Another important aspect they have is to use reputation scoring. That is, if a computation supplier
does not return values as expected, then they will earn a poor reputation. Job expectations are based on concensus. In addition, following the systems just mentioned, if compute suppliers with poor reputation scores still offer their services, these services may be paid less due to their reputations.

### 2.2 Technology Background

This section gives background on our tech stack. The three primary technologies being used are Docker, K8s, and Skupper. Each of these systems run on containerbased systems. These container-based systems where share aspects of the underlying host.

### 2.3 Docker

This project uses Docker to deploy containers. Many of these containers are PoVMs. Other containers can be used to run Skupper, K8s or other systems. The implementation also uses the Docker API to call on the specific endpoints enabling the creation, deletion, and monitoring of initiated containers. Customer submitted computations are executed by these containers.

### 2.4 Kubernetes

K8s deploys and manages the containers for performing proof-of-VM rather than PoW mining computations. Particularly, PoVM is used in lieu of hashcash PoW. PoVM is also leveraged to create all the necessary components for Skupper so it can connect containers via K8s instances across the internet for sharing resources. These K8s instances perform self-healing on containers, elastic scaling, and general orchestration.

### 2.5 Skupper

Skupper connects K8s clusters to manage and share resources. That is, each K8s cluster substitutes for a 'miner.' Each K8s instance contributes their containers for specific period of time. In any case, measuring the amount of computational resources is important. Just measuring instructions per second will not be enough. Each container running jobs for, say $T=24$-hours, to reduce the $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ footprint of a typical blockchain system. One block may be expected to be computed every $m$ minutes or so by overlapping container start times. If, for example, the period of computation-time is 24 hours, then every $m$ minutes new containers can get jobs from the job queue and process them for 24 hours. This may give more percision for block computation.

We must ensure each job is correctly computed. That is, there is no accidental or purposeful deception in any of the computation.

For example, some jobs can be computed by independent containers from different K8s clusters. Their solutions can be compared to validate the correctness or incorrectness of the calculations. This was implemented in Golem [11] among other systems. This can be easily modeled using probability theory. Then tradeoffs can be made with the total cost and $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ footprints as compared to repeated calculations.

## 3 Technical gaps

Our proof of technology does not include certain technical features that make it conform to be a single blockchain system.

1. We have not implemented a multiparty concensus-based lottery using multiparty generated randomness. This can be done using smart contracts.
2. We do not have a multiparty concensus-based job queue. This can be done using smart contracts.
3. We do not have a solution for running Skupper by multiparty concensus. This may require a large amount of work. Neither does it seem wise to adapt Skupper to be run as a multiparty concensus system nor does Skupper seem amenable to such modifications.
4. Kubernetes is not run by multiparty concensus. Neither does it seem wise to adapt K8s to be run as a multiparty concensus system nor does K8s seem amenable to such modifications.
5. PoVM - multiparty concensus-based validation of job computation. The validations will require work with formalizing and validating configurations and SLAs using multiparty concensus.

## 4 Implementation

This section gives more details about our solution. It starts with a basic setup of the technologies. Next, it goes into a detailed discussion of how our system works. We have a basic proof of technology demonstration that can be run.

### 4.1 Our Solution

Docker, K8s, and Skupper are set up so customers submit jobs to peer distributed network though a webpage. These jobs are put on the job queue. Currently the job queue is not managed by multiparty PoW concensus. However, it is possible to have a smart contract manage the job queue.

Transactions for blockchain processing can be put in a mempool as in standard blockchains. Each host supplies its own instance of a K8s cluster consisting of Docker containers that are listening for work to compute. These K8s instances are
run from Skupper. The K8s clusters operate in their own separate K8s namespaces. This logically separates the clusters. Each host itself is part of a private network connected to many other hosts through the Skupper network.

Figure 4 shows our basic centeralized architecture. Here Skupper joins the K8s instances. These instances are run by Skupper. The frontend allows jobs to be submitted to the job queue. Then Skupper distributes jobs to K8s instances. These K8s instances orchestrade Docker containers to run the submitted jobs.

A useful goal is to find a substitute for Skupper. This substitute will run using multiparty concensus.


Fig. 4. Low C02 blockchain architecture

The demonstration that we run works with calculations on generating successive coin flips. Each working container uses a pseudo random coin flipper to determine how many coin flips the container must do to get a string of $k$ heads in a row. This job is interesting based on its mean and variance.

The system's goal is to find the lucky pseudo-random seed that gets a string of $k$ heads in a row fastest.

1. Once the Docker instances start up, the backend and frontend listener K8s configurations are set up.
2. By accessing the local frontend listener IP given by K8s on a local browser, user can submit the number of heads to get successively in a row.
3. Once submitted, the frontend server local to the host queries the Skupper network and pick another online host's K8s namespace at random and send the packaged data to a specifically targeted port.
4. The receiving host's frontend listener picks up the packaged data and calls the internal backend listener to spawn a container that will flip the coins.
5. The container computes the total number of flips needed to get $k$ heads.
6. The container packages the answer and returns it to the backend listener which then talks to the original host through Skupper and provides the result.
7. The initial host opens the packaged response and updates the site to reflect the result from the request.

### 4.2 Running the demo

The prerequisites for showing our proof of technology are given here. We use Mac OS X to run Docker desktop and Skupper. The following software needs to be installed prior to following this quick start guide:

- Docker (w/Docker Desktop)
- Kind (K8s cluster manager for Docker nodes)
- Docker-mac-net-connect (via Homebrew)

Once all the pre-requisites have been installed, clone the following project repository into a folder of your choice from the repo [17].

After cloning the repository, the majority of the instructions should be on the documentation provided, however, for the sake of simplicity, the following subpoints help with the demo.

1. Create the KIND cluster.
2. Create K8s configuration files
3. Set-Up Metal Load Balancer
4. Connect all local namespaces via Skupper
5. Apply all K8s configurations for each namespace.
6. Create all K8s deployments and expose the relative ports
7. Test the technology.

Now a basic Skupper network consisting of a head-sequence flipper example is available. The only required piece needed is to connect to the internal IP of the frontend docker container. Once the page loads, entering a number for the input causes the system to flow and prompt a response from a container run in another namespace.

## 5 Future directions

Performing percise $\mathrm{CO}_{2}$ analysis. Adding a multi-signature scheme such as a Schnorr signature [38] where needed.

Exploring an iterative redundancy algorithm due to Brun, Edwards, Bang, and Medvidovic [16]. See also [30]. This work shows how to compare the results of several PoVMs performing the same computation. These redundant calculations help prevent fraudulent computation. For instance a VM that either accidentally or purposely does not do the correct computation. These redundant calculations have been implemented in many systems such as Golem [11].

All of our technical gaps are of interest in the future. That is, making the entire system run using multiparty concensus. Perhaps the hardest part here is replacing Skupper.

## 6 Conclusion

Blockchains that use hashcash PoW consume a lot of energy. The proof of tech solution given here provides an alternative approach to that utilizes a peer to peer based blockchain network. Our approach employs containers as PoVM. This gives a way to condense computations along with a succinct method using container orchestration. The tech stack for the Low Carbon Blockchain Proof of Tech includes Docker, K8s, and Skupper. Given the simplicity of the approach, there are many ways this solution can be extended and built on.

There are a number of improvements that can be made to give a true multiparty concensus system.

## 7 Thanks

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