



FORUM: Special Political and Decolonization Committee (SPECPOL)

TOPIC: Fostering International Cooperation for the Peaceful Use of Outer Space and the Prevention of its Militarization

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POSITION: Co-Chair

PERSONAL INTRODUCTION

Dear delegates,

I would like to welcome you all to this year's AMLMUN conference, specifically the delegates of the Special Political and Decolonization Committee. My name is Lydia Toubi and I am a junior at the American College of Greece. This year I will be serving as one of the co-chairs of the GA4 committee. This conference will mark my 4rd time chairing, after attending 12 conferences as a delegate.

MUN is a lovely experience that has helped me move forward with my life and you are all very lucky to be participating in it.

This study guide will provide you with information for the topic "Fostering international cooperation for the peaceful use of outer space and its prevention of its militarization". This information will help you navigate the most important factors in this significant topic, as well as possible solutions that will help you form your solutions.

I encourage you to read the study guide thoroughly, and should you have any questions, feel free to contact me anytime via email at: lytoubi@gmail.com

I look forward to meeting you all in November!

Best regards,

Lydia Toubi

TOPIC INTRODUCTION

From being a frontier explored by a few states, outer space has developed into an essential setting for international communication, navigation, scientific research and security. The problem is how to make sure that space is used in a cooperative, peaceful way rather than turning into an extension of terrestrial military rivalry as more countries and private businesses acquire space capabilities. Therefore, the issue of how to promote global cooperation while preventing the militarization of space is urgent and complex.



Current space law is based on the 1967 Outer Space Treaty, which sets basic rules for activities outside of Earth's atmosphere. It prohibits the stationing of nuclear weapons or other weapons of mass destruction (WMDs) in orbit or on celestial bodies, states that space should only be used for peaceful purposes, and sees space as a domain for the benefit of all people. However, these ideas are being strained by the rapid advancements in technology. The line between legitimate security uses and destabilizing militarization is blurred by anti-satellite (ASAT) capabilities, dual-use systems that serve both military and civilian purposes, and the development of specialized space commands and doctrines.

A number of crucial objectives must be balanced in order to react to these developments. States must protect international security and the stability of space-based infrastructure while concurrently fostering scientific progress and economic growth through space operations. They must also uphold and amend international law, strengthening existing agreements and deciding whether new norms, measures to promote trust, or legally binding agreements are necessary. Any comprehensive approach must address issues with enforcement and verification, competing geopolitical interests, and the growing power of commercial organizations and emerging spacefaring governments.

DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Outer Space

"The part of space that is beyond Earth's atmosphere and contains very little matter"¹

Militarization

"The act of bringing military forces into an area"²

Weaponization

"The act of turning something such as bacteria, poisonous chemicals, etc. into weapons that could kill or injure many people, or of putting weapons into a place"³

International cooperation

"Collaborative efforts among states to achieve common goals, particularly in addressing global challenges."⁴

¹ Outer Space. 26 Aug. 2026, dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/outer-space.

²"Militarization." 26 Oct. 2022. Militarization. 26 Aug. 2026, dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/militarization.

³"Weaponization." CambridgeWords, 29 July 2026, <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/weaponization?q=Weaponization>. Accessed 30 July 2026.

⁴ Bakar, Ergun, and Ergun Bakar. "International Cooperation: Definition, Conceptual Context & Why It Matters - TRT World Research Centre." TRT World Research Centre, 24 Apr. 2026, researchcentre.trtworld.com/dictionary/international-cooperation.



Space law

“Space law can be described as the body of law governing space-related activities.”⁵

Arms race

“The situation in which two or more countries try to have more and stronger weapons than each other”⁶

Anti-satellite

“Designed to destroy satellites (= devices sent up into space to travel around the earth, used for collecting information or communicating by radio, television, etc.)”⁷

Dual-use technology

“Dual-use technology refers to fields of research and development that have potential application to defense and commercial use.”⁸

Global security

“Protection of the world against war and other threats”⁹

Multilateral cooperation

“Multilateral Cooperation is the collaboration among multiple countries to address global issues through collective action.”¹⁰

Confidence-building measures

“confidence-building measure, in international relations, an action that reflects goodwill toward or a willingness to exchange information with an adversary.”¹¹

Space infrastructure

“Space Infrastructure means the facilities, equipment, and technologies that support space activities.”¹²

⁵ UNOOSA. “Space Law.” 2019.

⁶ ---. “Arms Race.” *CambridgeWords*, 29 July 2026, <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/arms-race?q=Arms+race>. Accessed 30 July 2026.

⁷ Cambridge Dictionary. “Anti-Satellite.” *CambridgeWords*, 29 July 2026, <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/anti-satellite>. Accessed 30 July 2026.

⁸ “Definitions of Dual-Use Related Concepts by the U.S. Department of Defense | AFCEA International.” 1 Feb. 2024.

⁹ ---. “Global Security.” *CambridgeWords*, 29 July 2026, <https://dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/english/global-security?q=Global+security>. Accessed 30 July 2026.

¹⁰ Bakar, Ergun. “Multilateral Cooperation.” 26 Apr. 2026.

¹¹ Herman, Sophie. “Confidence Building Measure.” *Britannica*, www.britannica.com/topic/confidence-building-measure. Accessed 24 July 2026.

¹² Insider, Law. “Space Infrastructure Definition | Law Insider.” *Law Insider*, 6 July 2025, www.lawinsider.com/dictionary/space-infrastructure

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

Historical Background

With the Soviet Union's 1957 launch of Sputnik 1, which showed that rockets could launch objects into orbit and, consequently, transport payloads across continents, the modern space era officially began. Space technology was quickly recognised as strategically important in a Cold War setting characterised by nuclear rivalry. In addition to being crucial components of national security infrastructure for communication, meteorology and scientific observation, satellites also made it possible to conduct reconnaissance and verify weapons control agreements. Space technology's dual-use nature led to a paradox: while satellites may be used to support military activities or be incorporated into weapons systems, they also helped stabilize deterrence by enabling states to monitor one another. Policymakers were forced to think about how to restrict the most hazardous uses while allowing advantageous ones because of the concern that space would become "the ultimate high ground" for the deployment of weapons.

In addition to rivalry, there was a powerful political and symbolic push to portray space as a domain shared by all of humanity. Principles like freedom of exploration and use, non-appropriation, and the notion that space activities should benefit all nations, including those without sophisticated technology, were emphasised in early United Nations (UN) resolutions. While characterising space as a "global common" did not eliminate strategic conflicts, it did offer a common lexicon for promoting inclusive access and opposing national control of celestial bodies. Because it supported calls for international regulation, these growing commons narrative was significant. If space is for everyone, then no state should set laws or monopolise profits. It also set the stage for further discussions on how developing nations might engage in and benefit from space operations, as well as about fair access to orbits, frequencies, and data.

The United Nations swiftly emerged as the primary platform for establishing the legal and political structure of space. Established in 1959, the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (COPUOS) gathered governments together to debate legal principles and technical collaboration. The two subcommittees of COPUOS, the Scientific and Technical Subcommittee and the Legal Subcommittee, reflect the dual character of space governance, with treaties and conventions on one side and practical safety and coordination difficulties on the other. Over the years, COPUOS has produced non-binding principles and recommendations, assisted in the development of significant space treaties, and promoted information sharing among governments. Its work shows that, despite the difficulty of negotiating legally binding arms control agreements, international diplomacy can progressively establish expectations regarding responsible behaviour.

Militarization and Weaponization of Outer Space

The distinction between militarisation and weaponization is frequently emphasised in legal and policy discussions. The use of military equipment in space, including as communication satellites, Global Positioning System (GPS) navigation systems, early-warning satellites, and reconnaissance platforms, to support operations on Earth is known as militarisation. These technologies are now widely used in military operations and planning, and the majority of states acknowledge them as a component of modern security procedures. These uses are not completely prohibited by current treaties. On the other hand, weaponization refers to the use or deployment of weapons from or in space, especially systems intended to harm or destroy satellites or targets on Earth. Directed-energy weapons, co-orbital systems that maneuver to interfere with other spacecraft, kinetic interceptors that physically crash with satellites, and other capabilities specifically designed to destroy space objects.

While conventional anti-satellite weapons and non-kinetic interference are not specifically forbidden under the Outer Space Treaty, nuclear weapons and other WMDs in orbit or on celestial bodies are. One of the main concerns and a focal point of conversations about stopping an arms race in space is this legal gap. It calls into question what constitutes a weapon, how dual-use technology should be regulated, and whether new agreements are required to clarify or broaden current regulations.

Anti-satellite weapons (ASAT) weapons serve as an example of how weaponization might jeopardise both security and space's long-term viability. Direct-ascent ASAT missiles, which smash with satellites and produce copious amounts of debris that can spread across orbital regimes, have been tested by several governments. While non-kinetic methods like jamming, spoofing, cyberattacks, or lasers might interfere with satellite performance without producing visible debris, co-orbital systems can approach other satellites and perhaps harm or disturb them. Since the same tools may serve valid defence or testing goals, these varied capabilities make it challenging to monitor and control bad behaviour.

There are security and environmental issues with space debris. Space traffic management becomes more difficult with each collision or fragmentation occurrence because more objects need to be tracked and avoided. Certain orbital bands may become unusable for extended periods of time if the density of debris in those bands rises too high, thereby blocking important orbits to future missions. This problem is intimately related to militarisation and weaponization since space warfare and destructive testing will probably produce massive debris clouds that would hurt not only the targeted state but all users of that orbital area.

Efforts to mitigate debris, such as guidelines for post-mission disposal, design standards to prevent explosions, and proposals for active debris removal, are part of



responsible behavior in space. However, without constraints on debris-creating activities, including ASAT testing, these technical measures may not be sufficient to keep space safe and usable in the long term. This is why many states and experts argue that preventing weaponization and limiting destructive tests is essential for preserving the space environment.

Institutional and Political Efforts to Maintain Peaceful Use

Space security and peaceful usage are addressed by many UN entities. While other forums, such as the Conference on Disarmament and the General Assembly's First Committee on Disarmament and International Security, discuss weapons control and preventing an arms race in space, COPUOS concentrates on technological and legal cooperation. Numerous resolutions advocating for the Prevention of an Arms Race in Outer Space (PAROS) have been passed, indicating both widespread concern and political differences about particular actions and confirmation.

A variety of principles and recommendations on subjects including information exchange, registration procedures, and space environmental protection have been created by UN processes. Even though many of these agreements are not legally enforceable, they set standards for responsible conduct and influence the diplomatic environment in which any future legally binding accords would be negotiated. Additionally, they give governments the means to demonstrate their commitment to transparency and peaceful usage even in the absence of formal arms control accords.

By adopting actions that encourage transparency and trust, the possibility of miscommunications and incorrect calculations can be reduced. States can aid others in understanding their objectives by disseminating information about their national space policies, plans, and important initiatives. By sending out pre-launch notices and reporting substantial moves or orbit changes, they might lessen the likelihood that routine actions would be misconstrued as hostile. They could also take part in international data-sharing programs, cooperative monitoring networks, or cooperative missions that promote technological collaboration and confidence.

These actions can lessen suspicion, aid in verification efforts, and set the stage for more formal pledges, even though they are often optional. Even when complete arms control agreements are in place, TCBMs are viewed as a means of managing risks and fostering transparent practices in the context of militarisation and weaponization.

In addition to treaties, there is growing reliance on soft law—guidelines, best practices, and voluntary codes of conduct. COPUOS, for example, has adopted guidelines on the long-term sustainability of outer space activities, addressing issues like orbital congestion, space traffic management, and debris mitigation. These documents do not have the same legal force as treaties, but they can be easier to negotiate and update. Because technology evolves quickly, soft law gives states a

flexible way to respond to new challenges without reopening fundamental treaty negotiations every time.

In addition to treaties, soft law—which comprises voluntary norms of conduct, best practices, and recommendations—is becoming increasingly significant. For example, COPUOS has set criteria for the long-term sustainability of space operations that address issues like orbital congestion, space traffic management, and debris abatement. These agreements have less legal weight than treaties, despite the fact that they may be easier to draft and change. Because of the speed at which technology is developing, soft law enables countries to adjust to new situations without continuously beginning fundamental treaty debates.

Soft law tools have the potential to progressively shape conventional expectations regarding ethical behaviour in space by influencing national laws and operational standards if they are widely used. Consistent application of these rules throughout time may facilitate the development of future accords or even more formal standards.

New challenges

These days, commercial companies manage large constellations, launch satellites, provide launch services, and plan space tourism and resource extraction missions. Due to commercialisation, space is now a mixed public-private environment rather than a state-dominated area. States continue to be held internationally responsible for domestic acts, including those of corporations, and must control and supervise private actors to ensure compliance with international obligations. As commercial constellations grow and concerns about congestion, interference, and debris increase, regulators must find a balance between innovation, sustainability, and safety.

Commercial players may also supply strategically important assets, such high-resolution photography or international communication networks that are essential to governments and armed forces. This calls into question the relationship between military, commercial, and civic usage as well as how regulations should handle the possible security risks associated with privately held essential infrastructure in orbit.

More nations are building or obtaining space capabilities, sometimes with assistance from commercial suppliers or international cooperation initiatives. Space is a crucial instrument for accomplishing sustainable development goals since satellites are employed for development-oriented objectives including weather forecasting, disaster warning, agricultural monitoring, and teleeducation. Realising the treaty concept that space should benefit all nations, not only early or technologically mature space powers, requires ensuring that these growing space players have access to orbits, frequencies, and data.



Because agreements must take into account a wide range of interests, capacities, and regional issues, this diversity also makes governance more difficult. States that were not significant actors in the early treaty era are increasingly participating in debates about norms or new regulations, bringing fresh perspectives to conversations about fair access and accountability.

Existing ideas like non-appropriation and common heritage are put to the test by future ambitions like permanent lunar bases, asteroid mining, and increased human presence in space. Some nations have started to enact national laws pertaining to the use of space resources, and there is continuous discussion on whether commercial resource extraction can coexist with non-appropriation or if new international accords are required to define the regulations.

Because ownership over important resources or strategic sites, such lunar poles, chokepoints in cislunar space, or certain orbital planes, might become sources of friction, these developments are intimately related to discussions about militarisation. As technology makes such activities possible, concerns about how to avoid disputes over these resources and guarantee fair participation will probably become more crucial.

Key Tensions and Policy Quests

States depend on satellites for vital military and commercial operations, but they also worry about being vulnerable if those systems are attacked. The realisation that any space warfare would be self-defeating since debris and disruption would affect everyone generates a tension between attempts to improve deterrence, such as the development of ASAT capabilities or the creation of dedicated space commands. Policy discussions center on whether to restrict debris-creating ASAT tests, pursue bans or prohibitions on certain weapons or behaviours, or reach consensus on standards against assaulting vital space infrastructure.

Maintaining credible security while avoiding measures that might jeopardise the stability and sustainability of the space environment is a major concern for many analysts. Discussions on promoting international cooperation for peaceful purposes and keeping militarisation from turning into destabilising weaponization revolve around this tension.

Because many technologies are dual-use, things are tiny, and actions may be hard to discern as peaceful or hostile from a distance, verification is especially difficult in space. Future regulations may need to be effectively enforced by a mix of data-sharing, technical monitoring, space situational awareness, and political means for dealing with infractions. States may be hesitant to accept strict restrictions on military uses of space in the absence of reliable verification and enforcement because they worry that others could cheat.



The importance of shared monitoring systems, transparency measures, and even on-site inspections or joint observation missions are frequently discussed in verification debates. All these concepts present difficult technological and political issues, but they are essential to the viability of any future arms control or non-weaponization agreement.

A fundamental concern based on the "benefit of all humankind" approach is ensuring that all governments participate in governance processes and gain from peaceful space activity. The legitimacy and sustainability of any future regime are influenced by discussions on capacity-building, technological transfer, cheap access to services, and representation in decision-making forums. A system that is seen as unjust or controlled by a small number of people may encounter opposition and be less successful in maintaining peaceful use.

Equal access to orbits, frequencies, and data, as well as equal involvement in the formulation of regulations, is not only an issue of justice for many nations, but it is also a practical need for garnering widespread support for standards that limit militarisation and weaponization. Therefore, inclusivity is closely related to the political viability of any

MAJOR COUNTRIES AND ORGANIZATIONS INVOLVED

China

China's power in space has rapidly grown thanks to the China National Space Administration. It has established a number of cooperation agreements with other countries and international agencies and backed ambitious projects like the International Lunar Research Station. China's growing space capabilities put it at the heart of conversations about militarisation and geopolitical rivalry in space, even if Beijing presents these initiatives as efforts to advance international collaboration and peaceful scientific research.

India

India has a long history of utilising space technology for regional and global collaboration. In addition to highlighting the potential of space to further more general human and developmental goals, India has collaborated with other nations and space agencies through ISRO on satellite projects, data exchange, and research initiatives. Many people consider India to be a major proponent of equitable access to space and striking a balance between security considerations and peaceful cooperation.

United States of America

Since the start of the space era, the United States has been one of the most significant players in space. It has participated in significant international cooperation initiatives including the International Space Station and more extensive alliances with

other space organisations through NASA and other organisations. Concerns about anti-satellite weaponry, space debris, and safeguarding vital space infrastructure have all been major topics of discussion in the U.S. at the same time.

Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (COPUOS)

The governing body for UN discussions on the peaceful use of space is the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (COPUOS). It investigates existing and potential space-related challenges, produces technical and legal guidelines and assists in the development of international regulations governing space operations. In order to ensure that space maintains a domain that is shared for peaceful uses as opposed to conflict or rivalry, COPUOS is crucial in advancing partnership among governments.

European Space Agency (ESA)

The European Space Agency (ESA) promotes peaceful space exploration through international partnerships, satellite programs, and research missions. In order to advance research, technology, and space-based services that serve society, such as communication, navigation, Earth observation, and climate monitoring, it works with a number of countries and organisations. ESA's cooperation with other countries shows how space may be used for mutual development, progress, and exploration rather than military competition. Space cooperation is a practical example of peaceful international cooperation because it develops confidence between states by encouraging cooperative projects and information exchange.

United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs (UNOOSA)

The primary UN agency in charge of fostering international collaboration in space operations and the peaceful use of space is the United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs (UNOOSA). It aids nations, especially the developing countries, in increasing their ability to employ space technology, comprehend space law and take part in international conversations on space governance. Additionally, UNOOSA facilitates the execution of international space treaties and offers a forum for governments to collaborate on matters including sustainability, space access and responsible space behaviour.

TIMELINE OF EVENTS

DATE	EVENT
4 October 1957	The Soviet Union launched Sputnik 1, the first artificial satellite, beginning the space age and raising global concerns about the peaceful versus military use of outer space. ¹³

¹³ "Sputnik." NASA, www.nasa.gov/history/sputnik//index.html. Accessed 20 July 2026.



13 December 1958	The UN General Assembly created the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (COPUOS) to promote international cooperation and discuss legal and scientific issues related to space. ¹⁴
7 October 1963	The UN General Assembly adopted the Declaration of Legal Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, one of the first major steps toward international space law.
27 January 1967	The Outer Space Treaty was opened for signature, establishing that outer space must be used for peaceful purposes and banning weapons of mass destruction in orbit or on celestial bodies. ¹⁵
22 April 1968	The Rescue Agreement entered into force, requiring states to assist astronauts in distress and return them safely. ¹⁶
29 March 1972	The Liability Convention entered into force, creating rules for compensation when space objects cause damage.
15 September 1976	The Registration Convention entered into force, requiring states to register their space objects and improving transparency
18 December 1979	The Moon Agreement was adopted, extending peaceful-use principles to the Moon and other celestial bodies.
13 February 1999	The UN General Assembly adopted a resolution on preventing an arms race in

¹⁴ "UNOOSA and Copuos." *Représentation Permanente de La France auprès des Organisations Internationales et Des Nations Unies à Vienne*, onu-vienne.delegfrance.org/The-Committee-in-the-Peaceful-Uses-of-Outter-Space-COPUOS. Accessed 20 July 2026.

¹⁵ "The Outer Space Treaty at a Glance." *The Outer Space Treaty at a Glance | Arms Control Association*, www.armscontrol.org/factsheets/outer-space-treaty-glance. Accessed 20 July 2026.

¹⁶ ESA - *Treaties and Agreements*, www.esa.int/About_Us/ECSL_-_European_Centre_for_Space_Law/Treaties_and_Agreements. Accessed 20 July 2026.

	outer space, highlighting concerns about militarization. ¹⁷
12-24 June 2018	UNISPACE+50 was held in Vienna to review progress in global space governance and strengthen future cooperation in peaceful space use. ¹⁸

RELEVANT UN TREATIES, CONVENTIONS AND RESOLUTIONS

Treaty on Principles Governing the Activities of States in the Exploration and Use of Outer Space

This pact, commonly known as the Outer Space Treaty, serves as the foundation for international space law. It requires that space be utilised for peaceful purposes, prohibits the development of nuclear weapons or other weapons of mass destruction in orbit or on celestial bodies, and states that space is not subject to national control. Its goal is to prevent space from becoming a battleground or being claimed by any one nation, and to keep space open for usage and exploration by all governments. Following its adoption, it became the primary legal foundation for space governance and had an impact on all subsequent space treaties and accords.¹⁹

Resolution 1721 (XVI) of 20 December 1961

In addition to calling on the Secretary-General to keep a public record of launches, this General Assembly resolution built upon the foundational ideas of space governance. Additionally, it promoted worldwide collaboration in the subject and the peaceful use of space. Its goal was to increase openness and assist governments in keeping an eye on space activity. Following its implementation, it strengthened the notion that space operations have to be publicly disclosed and governed and aided in the creation of the Registration Convention.²⁰

Resolution 57/116 of 26 February 2003, International Cooperation in Peaceful Uses of Outer Space

The significance of international collaboration in the peaceful use of space was reiterated in this resolution. For the benefit of poor nations in particular, it urged governments to increase cooperation in space research, technology, and policy. Its

¹⁷ Migration. "United NationsOffice for Outer Space Affairs." A/RES/54/53, 30 Apr. 2015, www.unoosa.org/oosa/oosadoc/data/resolutions/1999/general_assembly_54th_session/ares5453.html. Accessed 20 July 2026.

¹⁸ Robert.wickramatunga. "United NationsOffice for Outer Space Affairs." UNISPACE+50, 19 Dec. 2017, www.unoosa.org/oosa/sk/ourwork/unispaceplus50/index.html. Accessed 20 July 2026.

¹⁹ UNOOSA, www.unoosa.org/pdf/publications/ST_SPACE_11_Rev2_Add2E.pdf Accessed 20 July 2026.

²⁰ "Resolution 1721 UNGA." *United Nations*, [docs.un.org/en/A/RES/1721\(XVI\)](https://docs.un.org/en/A/RES/1721(XVI)) Accessed 20 July 2026.



goal was to use shared space resources to facilitate peaceful development and advance fair access to space. Following its adoption, it upheld the UN's long-standing goal of creating a cooperative and inclusive space environment.²¹

PREVIOUS ATTEMPTS TO SOLVE THE ISSUE

Artemis Accords

A set of non-binding guidelines known as the Artemis Accords was developed to direct civilian research and usage of the Moon, Mars, comets, and asteroids in a peaceful manner. Transparency, interoperability, emergency support, the dissemination of scientific data, and the prudent use of space resources are their main concerns. Their goal is to foster collaboration amongst member nations and establish common standards for 21st-century space operations. They have effectively united several nations behind a common framework for peaceful space exploration since they were put into place, but they have also drawn criticism because they are not legally binding and do not cover all spacefaring nations.

Framework Agreement for cooperation in the field of space activities between the Government of the Argentine Republic and the Government of the People's Republic of China

Argentina and China began working together on space projects as a result of this bilateral agreement. It offers a framework for cooperative initiatives, technological cooperation, and the peaceful application of space technology. Its goal is to improve scientific collaboration and provide both nations with real-world chances to collaborate on space development. It improved bilateral collaboration when it was put into practice, but its effects are still restricted to the two participating nations and do not establish more comprehensive international regulations to stop militarisation.

NASA Space Act Agreements

NASA's Space Act Agreements are collaborative agreements that enable peaceful space research, technology development, and mission planning with U.S. public, corporate, and international partners. They are frequently used to plan collaborative initiatives, exchange knowledge, and promote creativity in space exploration. Compared to a formal treaty, they are meant to make cooperation simpler and more adaptable. Although they have been highly successful in growing partnerships after adoption, they do not directly address the issue of space militarisation because they are not comprehensive international accords.²²

²¹ "Resolution 57/116 UNGA." *United Nations*, docs.un.org/en/A/RES/57/116. Accessed 20 July 2026.

²² "Current Space Act Agreements." *NASA*, 30 July 2026, www.nasa.gov/partnerships/current-space-act-agreements/. Accessed 20 July 2026.

POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Shared Debris Accountability Fund

Establish a fund that would oblige states to contribute to hazardous waste in order to assist with mitigation, tracking, and cleaning. By providing governments with a financial incentive to refrain from activities that endanger everyone, this would deter anti-satellite tests and careless launches. Because it connects accountability with long-term sustainability, it is an innovative approach.

International Space Incident Mediation Team

After a space event, assemble a small group of impartial specialists within an international framework to settle conflicts. This team might intervene swiftly in the event that a satellite is destroyed, threatened, or blocked before the situation worsens politically. Although the concept is novel, it satisfies the need for quick, low-conflict replies in a highly specialised field.

Space Crisis Contact Number

Create a direct contact number between important spacefaring governments so they may promptly communicate during suspicious satellite maneuvers, launches, or interference situations. This would lessen the possibility of miscommunication and unintentional escalation, particularly when activities in orbit are hard to confirm in real time. It is a workable method of promoting peaceful cooperation without initially requiring a comprehensive treaty.

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