# 1

#### Commercial asteroid mining is coming now – lower costs and improving tech make it economically viable – and the legal basis is already in place in multiple countries– that helps acquire water for rocket fuel and rare earth metals

Gilbert, PhD student in space resources at the Colorado School of Mines, writes in 21 alex gilbert, is a complex systems researcher and a PhD student in space resources at the Colorado School of Mines. "Mining in Space Is Coming." Milken Institute Review, April 26, 2021, [www.milkenreview.org/articles/mining-in-space-is-coming](http://www.milkenreview.org/articles/mining-in-space-is-coming). [Quality Control]

Space exploration is back. after decades of disappointment, a combination of better technology, falling costs and a rush of competitive energy from the private sector has put space travel front and center. indeed, many analysts (even some with their feet on the ground) believe that commercial developments in the space industry may be on the cusp of starting the largest resource rush in history: mining on the Moon, Mars and asteroids.

While this may sound fantastical, some baby steps toward the goal have already been taken. Last year, NASA awarded contracts to four companies to extract small amounts of lunar regolith by 2024, effectively beginning the era of commercial space mining. Whether this proves to be the dawn of a gigantic adjunct to mining on earth — and more immediately, a key to unlocking cost-effective space travel — will turn on the answers to a host of questions ranging from what resources can be efficiently.

As every fan of science fiction knows, the resources of the solar system appear virtually unlimited compared to those on Earth. There are whole other planets, dozens of moons, thousands of massive asteroids and millions of small ones that doubtless contain humungous quantities of materials that are scarce and very valuable (back on Earth). Visionaries including Jeff Bezos imagine heavy industry moving to space and Earth becoming a residential area. However, as entrepreneurs look to harness the riches beyond the atmosphere, access to space resources remains tangled in the realities of economics and governance.

Start with the fact that space belongs to no country, complicating traditional methods of resource allocation, property rights and trade. With limited demand for materials in space itself and the need for huge amounts of energy to return materials to Earth, creating a viable industry will turn on major advances in technology, finance and business models.

That said, there’s no grass growing under potential pioneers’ feet. Potential economic, scientific and even security benefits underlie an emerging geopolitical competition to pursue space mining. The United States is rapidly emerging as a front-runner, in part due to its ambitious Artemis Program to lead a multinational consortium back to the Moon. But it is also a leader in creating a legal infrastructure for mineral exploitation. The United States has adopted the world’s first spaceresources law, recognizing the property rights of private companies and individuals to materials gathered in space.

However, the United States is hardly alone. Luxembourg and the United Arab Emirates (you read those right) are racing to codify space-resources laws of their own, hoping to attract investment to their entrepot nations with business-friendly legal frameworks. China reportedly views space-resource development as a national priority, part of a strategy to challenge U.S. economic and security primacy in space. Meanwhile, Russia, Japan, India and the European Space Agency all harbor space-mining ambitions of their own. Governing these emerging interests is an outdated treaty framework from the Cold War. Sooner rather than later, we’ll need new agreements to facilitate private investment and ensure international cooperation.

What’s Out There

Back up for a moment. For the record, space is already being heavily exploited, because space resources include non-material assets such as orbital locations and abundant sunlight that enable satellites to provide services to Earth. Indeed, satellite-based telecommunications and global positioning systems have become indispensable infrastructure underpinning the modern economy. Mining space for materials, of course, is another matter.

In the past several decades, planetary science has confirmed what has long been suspected: celestial bodies are potential sources for dozens of natural materials that, in the right time and place, are incredibly valuable. Of these, water may be the most attractive in the near-term, because — with assistance from solar energy or nuclear fission — H2O can be split into hydrogen and oxygen to make rocket propellant, facilitating in-space refueling. So-called “rare earth” metals are also potential targets of asteroid miners intending to service Earth markets. Consisting of 17 elements, including lanthanum, neodymium, and yttrium, these critical materials (most of which are today mined in China at great environmental cost) are required for electronics. And they loom as bottlenecks in making the transition from fossil fuels to renewables backed up by battery storage.

#### However, the legal framework that strikes the best balance of providing economic incentives for mining while preventing unbeneficial land claims requires a doctrine of appropriation – the plan prevents that

Meyers 15 Meyers, Ross. J.D. candidate at the University of Oregon Law School. "The doctrine of appropriation and asteroid mining: incentivizing the private exploration and development of outer space." Or. Rev. Int'l L. 17 (2015): 183. Italics in original. [Quality Control]

The doctrine of appropriation is a reasonable rule for adjudicating asteroid claims, and it could easily be modified to apply to asteroid mining. In the context of water rights, the doctrine of appropriation requires that the claimant be a landowner in order to claim the right to use a water source. It does not make sense, however, for the international community to grant complete ownership over asteroids toa single entity, so the landowner requirement of the rule should be removed. A similar modification would need to be made to the "beneficial use" language of the doctrine.

In the context of water rights, an appropriator obtains rights only to water that he or she can reasonably put to beneficial use. The metals contained in asteroids have a high level of marketability. For that reason, a mining entity could potentially put any amount of obtained metal to beneficial use, in the sense that the resources can be sold. This, however, would defeat the purpose of the rule, which is to limit such unreasonable claims. To ameliorate this problem, the doctrine of appropriation could be modified to define "beneficial use "constructively by providing that beneficial use is assumed for any resources that have been removed from the asteroid that the mining entity can reasonably hope to transport to market in a return journey. With the astronomical cost of undertaking a trip to such an asteroid, this modification would limit mining entities to only what they can carry back, thereby leaving the untapped resources available to other entities capable of making the same trip. Considering the size and profitability of metal deposits on asteroids, this modification to the doctrine of appropriation would not be overly burdensome to corporate interests. At the same time, it would satisfy the economic imperative of promoting the rapid development of asteroid resources.

By changing the landowner requirement, and qualifying the “beneficial use" language, the doctrine of appropriation would be essentially ready for application to asteroid mining claims. The only other changes necessary would be some additional requirements that are common to other space related provisions, like those found in the Outer Space Treaty of 1968. For example, a reporting requirement or clause guaranteeing asylum for other astronauts. A functional rule might read something like this:

*State parties or private entities may, upon actual possession, lay claim to natural resources found on or below the surface of asteroids. Rights to appropriate are given in order of seniority, starting with the first party to land on the surface of the asteroid and establish control over the resources, be it water, methane, metal, or any other beneficial substances. A party will be said to have established control over a resource once he has mined the substance and removed it from the asteroid. A senior appropriator may use as much of the asteroid's resources as he can take from the asteroid and put to beneficial use, and may continue to enlarge his share until another junior appropriator begins to appropriate resources from source for beneficial use. For the purposes of this Agreement, "beneficial use “refers to the amount of resources that an appropriator has removed from the asteroid that the actor may reasonably hope to bring home in a return voyage. Resources in excess of what an appropriator can reasonably hope to transport to market in a single voyage do not qualify as having a beneficial use, and are therefore not yet claimed. This means that the extraction of metal from an asteroid does not serve to provide ownership if the appropriator plans on letting the resources languish until another voyage is undertaken to secure the resources and bring them back to Earth. Junior appropriators receive rights in the source of resources (the asteroid) as they find it, and may prevent the senior appropriator from enlarging his share to the junior appropriator’s detriment under a no-injury rule. No state party will attempt to hinder other parties from landing on or using the asteroid, and parties will assist other entities on an asteroid, should they need emergency assistance. Mining claims on asteroids will be reported to the Secretary-General of the United Nations, and state parties agree to release the location of the asteroid, and any scientific findings to the United Nations, the general public, and the scientific community. In the event that the asteroid is on a collision course with any other celestial body, all state parties agree to follow the course of action suggested by the United Nations. Should the United Nations decide the asteroid must be destroyed, no state party may claim liability for resources contained within the asteroid, but not yet captured. This provision applies only to asteroids as classified by the scientific community, and does not apply to planets, comets, meteorites, or any other celestial body not mentioned.*

There is no doubt that asteroids may be extremely beneficial to mankind, both as a source of resources and as a jumping-off point to far off locations in space. The human-race has progressed scientifically and technologically to the point that space travel is within commercial reach, and the need for new international laws governing the ownership of space has never been more apparent. The Outer Space Treaty of 1968made great strides in developing rational rules for space and many of its provisions should be maintained in their original form. However, by allowing ownership of asteroids under the doctrine of appropriation, the international community can incentivize the exploration and development of space in a way that reflects the needs of society in general, without vesting an absolute monopoly in a single entity. The doctrine of appropriation helped drive American westward expansion, and its application to space mining would help drive the human race in its expansion into the space, the final frontier.

#### Asteroid mining offsets terrestrial growth that ruins the environment and enables solar power satellites – both solve climate change

Taylor 19 Chris Taylor is a veteran journalist. Previously senior news writer for Time.com a year later. In 2000, he was named San Francisco bureau chief for Time magazine. He has served as senior editor for Business 2.0, West Coast editor for Fortune Small Business and West Coast web editor for Fast Company. Chris is a graduate of Merton College, Oxford and the Columbia University Graduate School of Journalism. "How asteroid mining will save the Earth — and mint trillionaires." Mashable, 2019, mashable.com/feature/asteroid-mining-space-economy. [Quality Control]

The mission is essential, Joyce declares, to save Earth from its major problems. First of all, the fictional billionaire wheels in a fictional Nobel economist to demonstrate the actual truth that the entire global economy is sitting on a mountain of debt. It has to keep growing or it will implode, so we might as well take the majority of the industrial growth off-world where it can’t do any more harm to the biosphere.

Secondly, there’s the climate change fix. Suarez sees asteroid mining as the only way we’re going to build solar power satellites. Which, as you probably know, is a form of uninterrupted solar power collection that is theoretically more effective, inch for inch, than any solar panels on Earth at high noon, but operating 24/7. (In space, basically, it’s always double high noon).

The power collected is beamed back to large receptors on Earth with large, low-power microwaves, which researchers think will be harmless enough to let humans and animals pass through the beam. A space solar power array like the one China is said to be working on could reliably supply 2,000 gigawatts — or over 1,000 times more power than the largest solar farm currently in existence.

“We're looking at a 20-year window to completely replace human civilization's power infrastructure,” Suarez told me, citing the report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change on the coming catastrophe. Solar satellite technology “has existed since the 1970s. What we were missing is millions of tons of construction materials in orbit. Asteroid mining can place it there.”

The Earth-centric early 21st century can’t really wrap its brain around this, but the idea is not to bring all that building material and precious metals down into our gravity well. Far better to create a whole new commodities exchange in space. You mine the useful stuff of asteroids both near to Earth and far, thousands of them taking less energy to reach than the moon. That’s something else we’re still grasping, how relatively easy it is to ship stuff in zero-G environments.

#### Asteroid mining solves rare earth metal depletion – prevents tech stagnation and unsustainable resource extraction

Mitchell 20 Robin Mitchell is an electronic engineer who has been involved in electronics since the age of 13. After completing a BEng at the University of Warwick, Robin moved into the field of online content creation developing articles. "How might asteroid mining be key to electronics future?" 28-09-2020, [www.electropages.com/blog/2020/09/how-might-asteroid-mining-be-key-electronics-future](http://www.electropages.com/blog/2020/09/how-might-asteroid-mining-be-key-electronics-future). [Quality Control]

As electronics continue to become increasingly more important in everyday life, so is the ability to produce electronic components. With the supply of minerals on Earth having a finite size, some are worried that Earth will soon run out of critical resources such as platinum and lithium. What are asteroids, what are they composed of, and could they be the key to providing humanity with a near-infinite source of minerals?

What minerals are commonly needed for electronics?

Since the introduction of the first commercial circuits, electronics have become incredibly advanced with silicon dies having billions of active components, resistors the size of dust specks, and capacitors that can hold obscene amounts of charge for their size. However, many of these components rely on minerals that most will never have heard of for them to be able to work. Basic components such as resistors and capacitors use common materials including iron, carbon, and aluminium, but components such as LEDs, silicon dies, and thin-film displays use lanthanum, cerium, neodymium, and europium. While many of these minerals fall under the “rare-earth” category, that does not necessarily mean that they are rare; but many are.

Why are these minerals running out?

Minerals that are rare by nature are uncommon in the crust, and mass industrialisation is quickly using up remaining reserves of these minerals. However, it is important to understand what reserve means and how reserves are calculated. Let’s take Uranium as an example to understand this concept better; as things currently stand, there are 80 years of Uranium reserves left. Now, this does not mean that all the uranium will be used up globally in 80 years, this means that at the current price of Uranium, proven sources will continue to supply Uranium at a profitable rate for 80 years. When all reserves are used up, the price for that mineral increases, and this makes areas that used to be unprofitable more profitable, thus generating new reserves.

However, there is another aspect to resources that need to be considered; environmental damage. A good example to demonstrate this is Lithium. While Lithium is rather abundant in the crust, it is spread very wide, making most crust uneconomical to mine. If all cars on earth went electric, the proven reserves of Lithium would run out in 3 years. Of course, new reserves would be made available, and this would extend the ability to use Lithium in industrial practices. However, mining Lithium has a massive environmental impact and sees vast amounts of land destroyed and made toxic due to by-products in the extraction process. The same applies to many rare minerals; many tons of earth is needed to get even the smallest quantity.

What are asteroids, and what are they made of?

Asteroids are small cosmic bodies that orbit a star and can range in size, density, and composition. One of the largest asteroids in the Solar System, Vesta, has a diameter approximately 330 miles, while some of the smallest can be just two meters across. Asteroids mostly consist of rock as well as minerals, but their exact composition greatly varies. For example, M-type asteroids are those that mostly consist of nickel-iron, while C-type asteroids consist of clay and silicate rocks. Other minerals that are often found in asteroids include gold, cobalt, palladium, platinum, and osmium.

Could asteroid mining be the key to ensuring limitless supplies?

While asteroids themselves may contain trace amounts of rare minerals, their size and lack of an ecosystem would allow for a mining operation to destroy an entire asteroid with no repercussions. Asteroids are also plentiful in the Solar System, and would most likely provide humanities resource needs for millions of years. For perspective, the total weight of the asteroid belt is only 3% that of the moon, but that is still 2.39×1021 kilograms. Even then, that is only the asteroid belt and does not consider stray asteroids that orbit the sun, planets, and rings around Saturn / Jupiter.

#### Both of those cause extinction

Bell 19 Aidan Bell is the co-founder of EnviroBuild, a sustainable building materials company based in London. PhD from Manchester in Inorganic Chemistry. "The Conflict of Tech Innovation and Sustainability." TechNative, 22 Jan. 2019, technative.io/the-conflict-of-tech-innovation-and-sustainability. [Quality Control]

Technological advancement has existed throughout human history

Humans have walked the Earth for 200,000 years, inventing countless new processes and systems along the way. The somewhat gradual expansion of human knowledge exploded after the burgeoning of agriculture in the Middle Eastern region of the Levant around 12,000 years ago. Societies at this time manipulated their environment for food-crop cultivation for the first time, inventing sophisticated activities like irrigation and logging.

This nascent field of agriculture created more food and thereby lead to a rapid increase in population size. Yet human expansion also resulted in the increased degradation of the environment. Experts theorise that the mass extinction of megafauna across North America and Australasia was the result of humans rather than environmental factors, while the Mayans were also at fault for causing widespread deforestation and a severe drought through excessive logging, a mistake that brought their eventual demise.

The exploration and proliferation of new technologies is the inevitable result of human intelligence, and the consequences thereof have always been difficult to avoid. Yet our awareness of this damage places humanity in a position of knowledge outside the standard predator-prey relationship that otherwise dominates the world and results in starvation for animals that overeat their food sources.

The current technological dilemmas that we face today are similar to those of ancient time. Overuse of a resource for immediate human benefit risks longer-term negative influence. A report conducted by Greenpeace found that Internet data centres have incredibly large carbon footprints, accounting for 3% of global electricity use, much of it in locations that offer cheap, but dirty, electricity. Likewise, the minerals that are found in electronic devices like mobile phones, such as tantalum and gold, often originate from unregulated mining that releases harmful substances into the surrounding soil, air and water. Mining also contributes hugely to deforestation, which is responsible for 15% of global greenhouse gas emissions.

The negative impacts of technological innovation are increasing and action needs to be taken soon to resolve this crisis for the sake of future generations. The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC) report last month warned that we have just 12 years to reduce the rate of global warming before widespread flooding and droughts become unavoidable. The demand for minerals and energy brought about by technological advancements shows no sign of slowing down, painting a worrying picture for the future of the planet.

Faced with the consequences of our intelligence, humanity now has to use its incredible versatility to overcome the challenges it has created for itself. For example, wind and solar power are increasingly becoming economically-viable sources of unlimited, free electricity and provide us with the opportunity to reduce our dependence on harmful fossil fuels. Bioengineering should help us protect surface soils and the ecosystems that depend on them by maintaining healthy levels of nutrients and soil salinity. Technological advancements will even help us prevent species extinction events that would otherwise destroy our Earth altogether, with NASA already developing spacecraft to push approaching asteroids out of our orbit.

#### Space’s lack of inhabitants and ecological problems solves the vast majority of their criticism – but it segregates the capitalists from ruining Earth and generates enough resources to make the planet’s surface into a Communist utopia

Taylor 19 Chris Taylor is a veteran journalist. Previously senior news writer for Time.com a year later. In 2000, he was named San Francisco bureau chief for Time magazine. He has served as senior editor for Business 2.0, West Coast editor for Fortune Small Business and West Coast web editor for Fast Company. Chris is a graduate of Merton College, Oxford and the Columbia University Graduate School of Journalism. "How asteroid mining will save the Earth — and mint trillionaires." Mashable, 2019, mashable.com/feature/asteroid-mining-space-economy. [Quality Control]

All in all, it’s starting to sound a damn sight more beneficial to the human race than the internet economy is. Not a moment too soon. I’ve written encouragingly about asteroid mining several times before, each time touting the massive potential wealth that seems likely to be made. And each time there’s been a sense of disquiet among my readers, a sense that we’re taking our rapacious capitalist ways and exploiting space.

Whereas the truth is, this is exactly the version of capitalism humanity has needed all along: the kind where there is no ecosystem to destroy, no marginalized group to make miserable. A safe, dead space where capitalism’s most enthusiastic pioneers can go nuts to their hearts’ content, so long as they clean up their space junk.

(Space junk is a real problem in orbital space because it has thousands of vulnerable satellites clustered closely together around our little blue rock. The vast emptiness of cislunar space, not so much.)

And because they’re up there making all the wealth on their commodities market, we down here on Earth can certainly afford to focus less on growing our stock market. Maybe even, whisper it low, we can afford a fully functioning social safety net, plus free healthcare and free education for everyone on the planet.

# 2

#### Counterplan: States should create and adopt a new set of flexible regulations concerning responsible space colonization through the UN Office of Outer Space Affairs, focused on issues of governance of space colonies and potential existential risks, including but not limited to revising treaties to allow for private outer space appropriation with taxation paid to the United Nations to be used for redistributive efforts.

#### Current government issues to resolve colony governance are insufficient – as is the OST – but new flexible regulations solve

Kovic 21 Kovic, Marko. PhD Communication and Media Studies, University of Zurich. "Risks of space colonization." Futures 126 (2021): 102638. [Quality Control]

Overall, it seems fair to say that space governance is in shambles today. Creating any kind of meaningful space colonization-related governance in such a policy and policymaking environment is difficult, to say the least. We should not expect governance work on space colonization be initiated by gov-ernmental actors any time soon, so the proverbial ball is, at the time being,probably in the academic court. If we were to draft a space colonization gov-ernance framework that would be effective at mitigating colonization-relatedrisks and maximize the positive future value, what are some factors or aspects that need to be taken into account? First, we should consider a break with the past. Existing space gover-nance based on the Outer Space Treaty has barely seen any progress over the decades, and the Outer Space Treaty does not seem geared towards questions of space colonization risks. Starting with a philosophical clean slate that is divorced from the realities of the 1960-ies is probably the easiest way forward. Second, given the uncertainty of the long-term future, a governance frame-work for space colonization should be conceptualized as provisional and mal-leable. Major principles of safe space colonization might very well be uni-versal, but the empirical realities on the ground might change in the nottoo distant future. This means that, on one hand, our understanding of space colonization-related risks will almost certainly change over time. The practical reality of policymaking on Earth, on the other hand, will probably also undergo significant changes in the future. The current political order on Earth has been, roughly speaking, stable since the Second World War, and it seems plausible to expect the global political order to roughly continue along those lines for several more decades. This means that any governance frame-work that is geared towards today’s workings of global policymaking should daim to achieve tangible results as soon as possible, before the world changesso much that the governance framework and its bodies simply become obso-lete. The philosophical timescale of such a governance project thousands tomillions of years, but the practical timescale for achieving results should be decades.

#### Those specific reforms are necessary to encourage space colonization and humanitarian economics– but avoids all terrestrial downsides

Iliopoulos and Esteban 20 Iliopoulos, Nikolaos [University of Tokyo], and Miguel Esteban [Waseda University]. "Sustainable space exploration and its relevance to the privatization of space ventures." Acta Astronautica 167 (2020): 85-92. [Quality Control]

The envisioned legal regime to encourage private firms to undertake the high risk and high cost involved in activities of space exploration would have to explicitly recognize extra-terrestrial property claims of individuals and corporations that meet specified conditions. As such, based on the conclusions made through this paper ,it is considered that with the right negotiation terms, the current treaties can be revised so as to become steppingstones for the advancement of space exploration that could potentially bring forth significant changes to the environment surrounding planet Earth. Finally, one way that such privatization efforts could be seen to benefit of mankind as a whole is that any taxation resulting from it should be paid directly to the United Nations, or that at least some fraction of the profits should fund this organization.

# Case

## Solvency

#### Extinction o/ws under any framework, even under moral uncertainty – infinite future generations

Pummer 15 — (Theron Pummer, Junior Research Fellow in Philosophy at St. Anne's College, University of Oxford, “Moral Agreement on Saving the World“, Practical Ethics University of Oxford, 5-18-2015, Available Online at http://blog.practicalethics.ox.ac.uk/2015/05/moral-agreement-on-saving-the-world/, accessed 7-2-2018, HKR-AM) \*\*we do not endorse ableist language=

There appears to be lot of disagreement in moral philosophy. Whether these many apparent disagreements are deep and irresolvable, I believe there is at least one thing it is reasonable to agree on right now, whatever general moral view we adopt: that it is very important to reduce the risk that all intelligent beings on this planet are eliminated by an enormous catastrophe, such as a nuclear war. How we might in fact try to reduce such existential risks is discussed elsewhere. My claim here is only that we – whether we’re consequentialists, deontologists, or virtue ethicists – should all agree that we should try to save the world. According to consequentialism, we should maximize the good, where this is taken to be the goodness, from an impartial perspective, of outcomes. Clearly one thing that makes an outcome good is that the people in it are doing well. There is little disagreement here. If the happiness or well-being of possible future people is just as important as that of people who already exist, and if they would have good lives, it is not hard to see how reducing existential risk is easily the most important thing in the whole world. This is for the familiar reason that there are so many people who could exist in the future – there are trillions upon trillions… upon trillions. There are so many possible future people that reducing existential risk is arguably the most important thing in the world, even if the well-being of these possible people were given only 0.001% as much weight as that of existing people. Even on a wholly person-affecting view – according to which there’s nothing (apart from effects on existing people) to be said in favor of creating happy people – the case for reducing existential risk is very strong. As noted in this seminal paper, this case is strengthened by the fact that there’s a good chance that many existing people will, with the aid of life-extension technology, live very long and very high quality lives. You might think what I have just argued applies to consequentialists only. There is a tendency to assume that, if an argument appeals to consequentialist considerations (the goodness of outcomes), it is irrelevant to non-consequentialists. But that is a huge mistake. Non-consequentialism is the view that there’s more that determines rightness than the goodness of consequences or outcomes; it is not the view that the latter don’t matter. Even John Rawls wrote, “All ethical doctrines worth our attention take consequences into account in judging rightness. One which did not would simply be irrational, crazy.” Minimally plausible versions of deontology and virtue ethics must be concerned in part with promoting the good, from an impartial point of view. They’d thus imply very strong reasons to reduce existential risk, at least when this doesn’t significantly involve doing harm to others or damaging one’s character. What’s even more surprising, perhaps, is that even if our own good (or that of those near and dear to us) has much greater weight than goodness from the impartial “point of view of the universe,” indeed even if the latter is entirely morally irrelevant, we may nonetheless have very strong reasons to reduce existential risk. Even egoism, the view that each agent should maximize her own good, might imply strong reasons to reduce existential risk. It will depend, among other things, on what one’s own good consists in. If well-being consisted in pleasure only, it is somewhat harder to argue that egoism would imply strong reasons to reduce existential risk – perhaps we could argue that one would maximize her expected hedonic well-being by funding life extension technology or by having herself cryogenically frozen at the time of her bodily death as well as giving money to reduce existential risk (so that there is a world for her to live in!). I am not sure, however, how strong the reasons to do this would be. But views which imply that, if I don’t care about other people, I have no or very little reason to help them are not even minimally plausible views (in addition to hedonistic egoism, I here have in mind views that imply that one has no reason to perform an act unless one actually desires to do that act). To be minimally plausible, egoism will need to be paired with a more sophisticated account of well-being. To see this, it is enough to consider, as Plato did, the possibility of a ring of invisibility – suppose that, while wearing it, Ayn could derive some pleasure by helping the poor, but instead could derive just a bit more by severely harming them. Hedonistic egoism would absurdly imply she should do the latter. To avoid this implication, egoists would need to build something like the meaningfulness of a life into well-being, in some robust way, where this would to a significant extent be a function of other-regarding concerns (see chapter 12 of this classic intro to ethics). But once these elements are included, we can (roughly, as above) argue that this sort of egoism will imply strong reasons to reduce existential risk. Add to all of this Samuel Scheffler’s recent intriguing arguments (quick podcast version available here) that most of what makes our lives go well would be undermined if there were no future generations of intelligent persons. On his view, my life would contain vastly less well-being if (say) a year after my death the world came to an end. So obviously if Scheffler were right I’d have very strong reason to reduce existential risk. We should also take into account moral uncertainty. What is it reasonable for one to do, when one is uncertain not (only) about the empirical facts, but also about the moral facts? I’ve just argued that there’s agreement among minimally plausible ethical views that we have strong reason to reduce existential risk – not only consequentialists, but also deontologists, virtue ethicists, and sophisticated egoists should agree. But even those (hedonistic egoists) who disagree should have a significant level of confidence that they are mistaken, and that one of the above views is correct. Even if they were 90% sure that their view is the correct one (and 10% sure that one of these other ones is correct), they would have pretty strong reason, from the standpoint of moral uncertainty, to reduce existential risk. Perhaps most disturbingly still, even if we are only 1% sure that the well-being of possible future people matters, it is at least arguable that, from the standpoint of moral uncertainty, reducing existential risk is the most important thing in the world. Again, this is largely for the reason that there are so many people who could exist in the future – there are trillions upon trillions… upon trillions. (For more on this and other related issues, see this excellent dissertation). Of course, it is uncertain whether these untold trillions would, in general, have good lives. It’s possible they’ll be miserable. It is enough for my claim that there is moral agreement in the relevant sense if, at least given certain empirical claims about what future lives would most likely be like, all minimally plausible moral views would converge on the conclusion that we should try to save the world. While there are some non-crazy views that place significantly greater moral weight on avoiding suffering than on promoting happiness, for reasons others have offered (and for independent reasons I won’t get into here unless requested to), they nonetheless seem to be fairly implausible views. And even if things did not go well for our ancestors, I am optimistic that they will overall go fantastically well for our descendants, if we allow them to. I suspect that most of us alive today – at least those of us not suffering from extreme illness or poverty – have lives that are well worth living, and that things will continue to improve. Derek Parfit, whose work has emphasized future generations as well as agreement in ethics, described our situation clearly and accurately: “We live during the hinge of history. Given the scientific and technological discoveries of the last two centuries, the world has never changed as fast. We shall soon have even greater powers to transform, not only our surroundings, but ourselves and our successors. If we act wisely in the next few centuries, humanity will survive its most dangerous and decisive period. Our descendants could, if necessary, go elsewhere, spreading through this galaxy…. Our descendants might, I believe, make the further future very good. But that good future may also depend in part on us. If our selfish recklessness ends human history, we would be acting very wrongly.” (From chapter 36 of On What Matters)

#### Uncertainty and social contract require governments use util

Gooden, 1995 **(**Robert, philsopher at the Research School of the Social Sciences, Utilitarianism as Public Philosophy. P. 62-63)

Consider, first, the argument from necessity. Public officials are obliged to make their choices under uncertainty, and uncertainty of a very special sort at that. All choices—public and private alike—are made under some degree of uncertainty, of course. But in the nature of things, private individuals will usually have more complete information on the peculiarities of their own circumstances and on the ramifications that alternative possible choices might have on them. Public officials, in contrast, are relatively poorly informed as to the effects that their choices will have on individuals, one by one. What they typically do know are generalities: averages and aggregates. They know what will happen most often to most people as a result of their various possible choices. But that is all. That is enough to allow public policy-makers to use the utilitarian calculus—if they want to use it at all—to choose general rules of conduct. Knowing aggregates and averages, they can proceed to calculate the utility payoffs from adopting each alternative possible general rules.

## Debris

#### Squo solves debris – private tracking, surveillance, in-orbit servicing and green satellite tech all happening now – private sector and P3s are key and outpacing government monitoring

CSTP 20 – OECD Committee, The strategic objectives of the Committee as defined in its Mandate and by the work priorities agreed by Member countries' Ministers responsible for science and technology provide the framework for the Secretariat's proposals for activities to be developed or initiated under the aegis of the Committee itself or its subsidiary bodies (NESTI, TIP, GSF, BNCT and IPSO) [This paper was approved and declassified by written procedure by the Committee for Scientific and Technological Policy (CSTP) on 11 March 2020 and prepared for publication by the OECD Secretariat, “SPACE SUSTAINABILITYTHE ECONOMICS OF SPACE DEBRIS IN PERSPECTIVE,” OECD Science, Technology and Industry Policy Papers, April 2020, No. 87, https://www.oecd-ilibrary.org/science-and-technology/space-sustainability\_a339de43-en]

An emerging “space debris economy”?

* Will we see a more intensive use of cubesats and miniaturised technologies in lower orbits? Cubesats have been the fastest-growing category of launched satellites in the last years and, when launched at lower altitudes, are naturally compliant with debris mitigation guidelines. They are also ever more performant and affordable, and dedicated launch opportunities become more widespread. Furthermore, they increasingly receive preferential treatment in risk-based national legislations (e.g. introduction of sliding scale in the UK Outer Space Act for insurance requirements).
* Space surveillance and tracking capabilities, in both GEO and LEO: New (private) sources of situational awareness data are becoming increasingly important, with data analytics and modelling fuelled by advances in digital technologies. Private sector debris catalogues and tracking capabilities for the geostationary orbit may now be almost as good as government capabilities (IDA, 2016[76]), while solutions for the low-earth orbit are emerging. Start-ups such as LeoLabs provide data and services based on low-cost ground equipment and sophisticated data analysis. The company, which in October 2019 had three radars in the United States and New Zealand, has developed a cloud-based “Space Regulatory and Sustainability Platform” for the New Zealand Space Agency, a first of its kind, destined to track objects launched from New Zealand to ensure compliance with permit conditions (MBIE, 2019[77]). A novel project called TruSat intends to use blockchain technology to crowdsource and validate satellite orbital positions worldwide via open source software (TruSat, 2019[78]). The US Air Force Research Laboratory has signed agreements with several commercial space situational awareness data providers (e.g. Numerica, LeoLabs, ExoAnalytics) to get access to sensor networks and algorithms (Numerica, 2019[79]). The Space Situational Awareness (SSA) open-architecture data-sharing platform under development by the US Department of Commerce, including data from different government agencies, is also expected to spur innovative value-added products and services.
* In-orbit servicing solutions: Several governmental agencies and commercial companies have developed, or are in the process of acquiring, some capabilities for in-orbit servicing (e.g. NASA, DARPA, ESA, JAXA). In-orbit servicing involves a number of complex operations in space: the servicing of space platforms (e.g. satellite, space station) to replenish consumables and degradables (e.g. propellants, batteries, solar array); replacing failed functionality; and/or enhancing the mission through software and hardware upgrades. This is a major challenge as, when on orbit, space platforms can move at speeds of several kilometres a minute. The first commercial in-orbit servicing mission was launched in 2019, by a MEV-1 spacecraft developed by Orbital ATK for an Intelsat geostationary satellite. The main short-term market is seen in the life extension of geostationary satellites, with some 300 potential candidates, at least in theory (Kennedy, 2018[80]). However, the key benefits of in-orbit servicing are expected in the future. Satellite design is currently heavily restricted by extreme launch conditions, but the possibility of servicing could enable a much more flexible and modular satellite design, able to take advantage of the latest advances in materials and electronics, beyond software upgrades (Jaffart, 2018[81]). Market forecasts estimate a USD 3 billion market for in-orbit servicing over the 2017-27 period, mainly driven by life extension services (Northern Sky Research, 2018[82]).
* Active debris removal solutions: Active debris removal is at a less mature technological level, but several firms are preparing demonstration missions (e.g. Astroscale in 2020). Potential candidates for removal include more than 200 critical debris objects (3-9 tonnes); mainly rocket bodies, but also the European Envisat satellite. JAXA, has formally launched a project to remove a large piece of debris by 2025 (a Japanese rocket body) in a public-private partnership (Japanese Delegation to UNCOPUOS, 2019[83]). Both Airbus and Thales Alenia Space are developing in-orbit servicing vehicles with debris removal functions, some of which have been tested on the RemoveDEBRIS mission (Surrey Space Centre, 2019[84]; OECD, 2019[11]).

• “Green” satellite design and technology: The demand for space-environment friendly satellite design is picking up. This includes features to reduce or avoid debris creation (explosion-safe batteries, deorbit technologies) and/or facilitating active removal (e.g. markers or grapple fixtures). One example is OneWeb, which is installing grapple fixtures on their satellites. In Europe, all future Sentinel satellites will be designed for demise. Affordable deorbit technologies are already being tested on orbit. Canada’s three-kilo CanX-7 satellite was launched in 2016 and is currently using its four 1 m2 drag sails to deorbit at a significantly faster rate than it would have without the sails. Amazon’s Kuiper constellation intends to use unpressurised and non-explosive propellant to mitigate accidental explosions, and satellites losing contact with ground control would automatically deactivate themselves, first by self-passivation and orbit-lowering, then depleting all energy reservoirs and switching off charging circuits (FCC, 2019[85]). SpaceX’ Starlink satellites are equipped with automated collision avoidance systems (although it is unclear which role the system played in the near-collision with the ESA Aeolus satellite).

A recent promising initiative is the “Space Sustainability Rating” scheme, originally conceived by teams from the MIT Media Lab, European Space Agency, and World Economic Forum. The initiative intends to be similar to the most widely used green building rating system in the construction industry, called the LEED certification for Leadership in Energy and Environmental Design. The objective is to promote mission designs and operational concepts that mitigate debris creation, and create a label that can encourage operators to behave more responsibly.

#### Squo solves residual debris -- Removal initiatives and international norms

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5.4 MITIGATION MEASURES The space debris problem is nowadays internationally recognized, therefore mitigation measures are being taken and guidelines discussed. These can be divided into two classes: The avoidance or protection measures and the active and passive debris removal measures. The avoidance or protection measures include the design of satellites to withstand impacts by small debris, or the selection of safe procedures for operational spacecraft such as orbits with less debris, specific attitude configurations, or implementing active avoidance maneuvers to avoid collisions. On the other hand, measures for debris removal currently consist in limiting the creation of new debris (by prevention of in-orbit explosions and ensuring spacecraft subsystems reliability), to free some orbital implementing end-of-life disposal maneuvers protected regions, or to reenter in the atmosphere. Active debris removal is also being considered as a mean to stabilize the growth of space debris by removing from orbit some selected noncompliant objects. The e.Deorbit mission will target an ESA-owned derelict satellite in low orbit, capture it with a net or robotic arm technology, and reenter with a controlled atmospheric reentry (Biesbroek et al. 2014). Acknowledging the fact that the projected growth in the number of satellites orbiting the Earth will increase in the future, space agencies and international organizations have been discussing and building a set of guidelines to ensure the sustainability of future space activities. The InterAgency Debris Coordination Committee (IADC) was founded in 1993 by ESA (Europe), NASA (the United States), the Japan Aerospace Exploration Agency (JAXA, Japan), and the Roscosmos Russian Federation. As of January 2017, the IADC also includes the Italian Space Agency (ASI, Italy), the Centre National d'Études Spatiales (CNES, France), the China National Space Administration (CNSA, China), the Canadian Space Agency (CSA, Canada), the German Aerospace Centre (DLR, Germany), the Korea Aerospace Research Institute (KARI, South Korea), the Indian Space Research Organisation (ISRO, India), the National Space Agency of Ukraine (NSAU, Ukraine), and the UK Space Agency (UKSA, United Kingdom). This international cooperation decided a set of space debris mitigation measures (Inter-Agency Space Debris Coordination Commitee, 2002), which includes: 1. Limitation of debris released during normal operations. 2. Minimization of the potential for on-orbit breakups (resulting from stored energy after the completion of mission operations, or during the operational phases of the mission and by avoiding intentional destruction and other harmful activities). 3. Post Mission Disposal in particular in geosynchronous regions and for objects passing through the LEO region. 4. Prevention of on-orbit collisions. The IADC guidelines were presented to the United Nations Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space (UN COPUOS) and contributed to the creation of the Space Debris Mitigation Guidelines of the Committee on the Peaceful Uses of Outer Space to be considered for the mission planning, design, manufacture and operational phases of spacecraft and launch vehicle orbital stages” (United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs 2010): 1. Limit debris released during normal operations. 2. Minimize the potential for breakups during operational phases. 3. Limit the probability of accidental collision in orbit. 4. Avoid intentional destruction and other harmful activities. 5. Minimize potential for post-mission breakups resulting from stored energy 6. Limit the long-term presence of spacecraft and launch vehicle orbital stages in the low Earth orbit region after the end of their mission. 7. Limit the long-term interference of spacecraft and launch vehicle orbital stages with the geosynchronous region after the end of their mission. 5.4.1 Mitigation Guidelines for Post Mission Disposal In this section we focus on the third of the measures dictated by the IADC, namely Post Mission Disposal. A “25-year rule” was defined to limit the presence of satellites in the LEO region to no more than 25 years after their decommissioning. The 25-year limit was selected to ensure that a reasonable reduction in lifetime could be achieved without greatly affecting satellite resources. After 25 years a satellite has to be removed from the LEO protected region by placing it in a graveyard orbit or by disposing of it through atmospheric reentry. According to the IADC Space Debris Mitigation Guidelines (Inter-Agency Space Debris Coordination Commitee 2002) if "a spacecraft or orbital stage is to be disposed of by re-entry into the atmosphere, debris that survives to reach the surface of the Earth should not pose an undue risk to people or property.” The low Earth orbit protected region (LEO region) is the spherical shell region that extends from the Earth's surface up to an altitude of 2000 km. The geosynchronous protected region (GEO region) is a segment of a spherical shell with a lower and upper altitude boundary of 200 km below and above the geostationary altitude of 35,786 km, and which is constrained by a latitude sector extending between plus and minus 15 degrees from south to north (Inter-Agency Space Debris Coordination Committee 2002; United Nations Office for Outer Space Affairs 2010). At altitudes below 600 kilometers, spacecraft with a conventional area-to-mass ratio (i.e., conventional satellites have a value of area-tomass ratio around 0.012 m?/kg) will reenter within a few years due to atmospheric drag. Intervention to remove and prevent further creation of debris above that altitude should therefore be the primary focus of passive mitigation measures. As described in the document on the “Requirements on Space Debris Mitigation for ESA Projects” (ESA 2008) and the "ESA Space Debris Mitigation Compliance Verification Guidelines” (ESA 2015), end-of-life measures can be distinguished in: (1) Disposal, (2) passivation, and (3) reentry. Required measures for disposal currently cover spacecraft in LEO and GEO through a series of Operational Requirements (OR) (ESA 2008): "OR-01. Space systems operating in the LEO protected region shall be disposed of by reentry into the Earth's atmosphere within 25 years after the end of the operational phase." "OR-02. Space systems operating in the GEO protected region shall be disposed of by permanently removing them from the GEO protected region.” The GEO disposal orbit should be almost circular (i.e., eccentricity less of equal to 0.005) and with a minimum perigee altitude above the geostationary altitude, which is given as a function of the solar radiation pressure coefficient of the space system at the beginning of its life and its cross-sectional area. This is done to take into account the eccentricity oscillation due to the effects of solar radiation pressure and to ensure that such oscillation would not make the orbit interfere with the GEO protected regions. "OR-03. Where practicable and economically feasible, space systems outside the LEO and GEO protected regions shall implement means of end-of-life orbit disposal to avoid long-term interference with operational orbit regions, such as the Galileo orbit." OR-04. Launcher stages shall also perform end-of-life disposal maneuvers by targeting "direct reentry as part of the launcher sequence.” Alternatively, they should be injected into a LEO orbit with a maximum reentry time of 25 years. As other space systems, they should be removed from LEO and GEO protecting region and orbit that interfere with other operational orbits such as the one of the Galileo orbit. OR-05. Passivation of the system (spacecraft or launcher stage) has to be completed within 2 months of the end of mission. End-of-life measures for reentry include: OR-06. "For space systems that are disposed of by reentry," an "analysis has to be performed to determine the characteristics of fragments surviving to ground impact, and assess the total casualty risk to the population on ground assuming an uncontrolled reentry.” OR-07. Such a casualty risk has to be lower than 10-4 if an uncontrolled reentry is targeted; otherwise if the casualty risk is higher than the threshold of 10-4, "a controlled reentry must be performed such that the impact footprint can be ensured over an ocean area, with sufficient clearance of landmasses and traffic routes." The rate of compliance of missions to the end-of-life mitigation guidelines was analyzed by the ESA Space Debris Office in 2017). Between 2006 and 2015, the rate of compliance of LEO missions (including naturally compliant missions and satellites performing end-of-life maneuvers) was 53.3% for the payloads (corresponding to 60.3% of the payload mass), reaching end of life in the LEO protected region (Frey and Lemmens 2017). The compliant objects, with a lifetime after decommissioning of less than 25 years, include naturally compliant objects due to their initial altitude well inside the Earth's atmosphere (this constitutes the biggest part of the compliant share), compliant objects after a deorbit maneuver, or spacecraft having performed a maneuver leading to a direct reentry. In terms of mass, this share is constantly sloping downward. Between 2007 and 2016, 71.6% of the rocket bodies reaching end of life in the LEO protected region was compliant, and this fraction has remained virtually unchanged for 8 years in a row despite an increase in end-of-life maneuver activity. 5.4.2 Passive End-of-Life Disposal In order to meet the mitigation guidelines LEO satellites at the end of their life would use the remaining propellant to perform either a perigeelowering maneuver (to decrease the orbit perigee well inside the Earth's atmosphere to guarantee a reentry within 25 years) or a direct reentry. Spacecraft in GEO are instead currently re-orbited to quasi circular orbits outside the GEO protected ring, with a perigee line aligned with the SunEarth direction (where possible) in order to bind the long-term oscillations in the eccentricity caused by solar radiation pressure. Recently, ESA funded projects on the design of disposal trajectories for medium Earth orbits (MEO) (Alessi et al. 2014; Rossi et al. 2015), highly elliptical orbits (HEO), and libration Earth orbits (LPO) (Armellin et al. 2014; Colombo et al. 2014; Colombo et al. 2015). These have demonstrated the possibility of exploiting natural orbit perturbations for designing passive mitigation strategies for debris disposal. Disposal strategies enhancing the effects of orbit perturbations have been further analyzed in LEO (Alessi et al. 2017), in MEO (Rosengren et al. 2015; Alessi et al. 2016; Armellin and San-Juan; Daquin et al. 2016; Gkolias et al. 2016), in GEO (Colombo and Gkolias 2017), and in HEO (Colombo et al. 2014; Armellin et al. 2015). Indeed, it was shown that, rather than performing an expensive maneuver to lower the perigee, the optimal maneuver should be given in a way to change the disposal orbit to another neighborhood orbit where the effect of orbit perturbations causes the orbit perigee to enter into the atmosphere. Indeed, the effects of luni-solar perturbation causes long-term oscillation on the eccentricity, which can be exploited so that the spacecraft's trajectory over a long period (from 5 to 70 years, depending on the initial orbit) could lead to natural reentry. This effect can be enhanced by solar radiation pressure, especially if considering a spacecraft equipped with large solar panels or a deployable reflective surface (Lücking et al. 2012, 2013). Moreover, resonances with the Earth's nonuniform potential can enhance the eccentricity growth effects. 5.4.2.1 An Example of End-of-Life Deorbiting Exploiting Luni-Solar Perturbations One of the most beautiful demonstrations of how natural dynamics can be enhanced is given by the INTEGRAL mission designed by ESA, the United States, Russia, the Czech Republic, and Poland. The INTErnational Gamma-Ray Astrophysics Laboratory, launched in 2002, gathered some of the most energetic radiation from space (Eismont et al. 2003). A reentry of this spacecraft with a pure impulsive maneuver would have not been possible due to the limited amount of propellant left onboard. In an ESA-funded study, the end-of-life disposal of INTEGRAL mission--expected to end in 2016-was designed with a time window for disposal between January 1, 2013 and January 1, 2029. Reentry solutions with a delta-velocity requirement below 40-50 m/s were found (Colombo et al. 2014). The main perturbations acting on the dynamics of the reentry were luni-solar perturbations, which affect the evolution of eccentricity, inclination, and anomaly of the perigee measured with respect to the Earth-Moon plane. It was shown that depending on the set of initial elements, which depends on the date the reentry maneuver is performed, the proposed maneuver would then aim at further increasing or decreasing the eccentricity. In particular, if we focus on the natural evolution of the eccentricity under luni-solar perturbation and Earth's oblateness, when the nominal eccentricity is low, the optimal reentry maneuver further decrease the eccentricity value; as a consequence, the following long-term propagation will reach a higher eccentricity, corresponding to a reentry. In this case, the maneuver is more efficient (i.e., lower delta velocity is required) (Colombo et al. 2014). Once the initial disposal maneuver is performed, the spacecraft evolves under natural perturbations and the reentry can then be semicontrolled. The high inclination of HEOs represents an advantage as the final reentry phase can target regions at higher latitudes on the Earth's surface thereby reducing the ground hazard. In the case of HEOs, reentry is caused by luni-solar perturbation (not air drag), therefore the orbit reenter with quite a high eccentricity (high apogee and low perigee) and does not circularize. Due to the oscillations in eccentricity, the next optimal window for injecting the spacecraft into a reentry trajectory is between 2013 and the first half of 2018 for a final reentry in 2028. After that, the required maneuver would increase until reaching a next window for performing the maneuver between the second half of 2021 and the first half of 2026, for a reentry in 2028. These analytical studies were used for high fidelity parametric analyses performed by the ESA (Merz et al. 2015) to investigate the effect of a maneuver at apogee to change the perigee altitude. The final maneuver sequence was given at the beginning of 2015 and split into three major burns plus a touch-up for final fine-tuning. The spacecraft is now on its course to reentry in 2028 (see Figure 5.11).

#### GPS is absolutely safe from debris

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All objects in space are at risk from collisions with other objects, including space debris. The risk depends on the density of the space your orbit is in. GPS orbits in a region of space known as Medium Earth Orbit or MEO, about 20,000 km altitude. The density in this region is MUCH smaller than in LEO (<2000 km) or even GEO (about 35,000 km).

Space debris, by definition, is human made. You find the most debris in the orbits used the most. GPS orbits are used only by GPS, though similar constellations such as Glonass, Galileo, or Beidou are reasonably nearby. There is some risk from discarded upper stages used on geo transfer orbits (GTO), and other highly elliptic orbit objects, and breakup debris. But space is pretty big there and the debris risk to GPS is about as low as it gets for orbits used frequently.

There is a notion floating about that a debris cascade (the “Kessler Syndrome”) will take out all our satellites at once, and we will lose all space communications and GPS. Worse, we will lose access to space. This is nonsense. GPS and GEO are quite safe from any kind of cascade. The Kessler Syndrome is indeed real, but it is limited to LEO. Even then, it is a phenomenon that is measured in decades and centuries, not days or hours, or minutes as shown in the movie “Gravity”.

#### Military GPS is durable and resilient---there’s no chance of total collapse, just temporary, limited disruptions that have no impact

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Several recent articles have predicted calamity in the future relevance of space systems like the Global Positioning System (GPS). This growing trend includes articles with ominous headlines including, “Spoof, Jam, Destroy: Why We Need a Backup for GPS,” “The GPS Wars Are Here,” and “The Death of Precision in Warfare.” Each of these articles highlights vulnerabilities of GPS without offering realistic context or caveat to properly scope or provide scale to the actual threat. In fact, while friction exists in any endeavor of warfare, GPS remains resilient in the face of vulnerabilities, and — outside of the most total of wars — will remain so.

GPS skeptics sometimes mistakenly conflate technology that is GPS-*aided* and that which is GPS-*dependent*. Moreover, by failing to appropriately caveat their claims, these articles suggest GPS’s vulnerabilities to jamming, spoofing, widespread disruption, and even destruction are unlimited. These articles also make little or no distinction between vulnerabilities of civilian systems and military systems, often concluding GPS should be replaced outright with a supposedly more resilient but unexplained substitute that would suffer from the same nuisances. A more realistic characterization should clarify just how vastly different the risks are between civilian and military GPS use and take more seriously the numerous unmentioned advantages in retaining GPS.

We spent nearly a decade as U.S. Air Force weapons officers and have instructed, developed tests, tactics, and realistic exercises and informed the technical designs of future planning tools and weapon systems. The analyses offered by skeptics breaks drastically from our technical understanding and experience in examining threats against GPS. We seek to buck the trend of overwhelming presumption of danger to GPS and other space capabilities that overstates vulnerability while treating the technical challenge of threats too vaguely. We also reject the conclusion that GPS is too fragile to be reliable in warfare regardless of its scale or scope. Rather than sweeping claims of impending disaster, in this article we assert a more measured understanding of GPS’s vulnerabilities for civilian and military users, and a more reasonable expectation for how both sets of users can respond to denial attempts and disruption. After that, we proceed to the broader geopolitical relevance of GPS, responding to suggestions of these systems’ vulnerability to widespread kinetic and cyber attack by emphasizing just how important the system is to vital national interests. Finally, we consider whether deterrence safeguards GPS capabilities against extensive disruption or even complete destruction.

GPS Jamming for Civilians: Less Danger Than Meets the Eye

First, consider the threat of jamming to the civilian sector. Jamming in the civilian context refers to the unlawful blocking of the GPS signal with noise. Many legacy civilian systems rely on a single signal, which makes jamming relatively easy. While this danger is receding given the growing variety of GPS-like options to civilian users, this vulnerability is most concerning when GPS jammers have wandered too close to airports and ports, creating a minor yet immediate safety concern. Jamming is indeed worrisome in these sorts of local incidents, but assessments of the threat to airline or maritime receivers should take into account how GPS works within a broader context of complementary navigational capabilities and stringent redundancy rules. There are a multitude of other factors to consider as well, including the physical location of both jammer and receiver, and what happens after jamming occurs.

For those who use handheld devices to navigate, many civilian receivers, including recent iPhone and Garmin models, may redundantly use signals provided by America’s GPS, Europe’s Galileo, and Russia’s GLONASS if any one frequency is jammed. International Maritime Organization rules make this same form of redundancy mandatory in 2020 for sea traffic. This means any meaningful denial effort would require the sophisticated jamming of all the differentiated signals of GPS, Galileo, and GLONASS simultaneously. Of course, rarely are readers told there is always the option of simply asking for directions.

Federal Aviation Administration regulations require air carriers navigating by GPS to be able to safely identify a disruption or failure of GPS and proceed to their destination — including via international routes — using secondary navigation capabilities. Similar standards are agreed upon by the International Civil Aviation Organization as well as the International Maritime Organization rules for sea traffic.

To sum up the danger of GPS jamming to the civilian sector: The nuisance is local and temporary, and if users rely on it within the limits of rules and regulations, there is little threat to public safety as these threats can be detected, located, and prosecuted. The suggestion that jamming might cause “society to grind to a halt,” or function so poorly as to create widespread weakening of a whole country vastly overstates the vulnerability. Civilian GPS use relies on human agency, natural resiliency, and failure modes with sufficient redundancy.

GPS Jamming and Military Operations: Even Less to Fear

Military GPS is much more resilient than its civilian analog. Military GPS signals are multiple, spread across a wider segment of the electromagnetic spectrum than civilian signals, making it harder to disrupt their reception. Arguments about the technological fragility of GPS usage often make incorrect assumptions about civilian vulnerability which creates confusion about how the military system performs under realistic stress and human tactical response. Blanket statements like “there’s no precision in jamming; block one, block all” are untrue. Just as with civilian GPS, military systems have a complement of capabilities that enable redundancy and resiliency. For example, the U.S. Air Force has demonstrated several alternative means of extending GPS use to frustrate denial attempts. Western forces also have a more than adequate ability to apply basic tactics to retain the advantage of GPS even if the system is partially disrupted. Under the leadership of U.S. Strategic Command’s Joint Navigation Warfare Center, the U.S. military and its allies have tested its technology to the breaking point regularly since at least the first “Jamfest” in 2004. Beyond testing, U.S. forces exercise against realistic jamming applied by thinking “red forces” putting their tactics to the test to preclude a “Day Without Space.” Any suggestion that the U.S. military has an underdeveloped understanding of navigation and GPS-aided weaponry is misleading.

Furthermore, many military receivers today use decades-old electronic protection features and designs that reduce vulnerability to jammers. Beyond these basic technical capabilities, tactics further extend resiliency, especially on land where natural terrain variation provides a barrier against jamming. This is as simple as it sounds: Even without proven and accessible mitigation technology, placing your receiver behind the crest of a hill, or even in a hole, out of the line of sight of the jammer, might be enough to determine one’s position in a denial environment. Additionally, the newest military receivers built after 2017 are enabled to use yet another encrypted broadband signal transmitted with even higher strength. This new signal is designed especially for reception in the face of more complex adversary GPS denial attempts and provides additional redundancy — meaning the enemy has to be even more sophisticated to achieve a similar level of disruption. Even now, jamming U.S. military systems is not only technically difficult but, if attempted on a modern battlefield, is extremely conspicuous and dangerous. As has been known since the Fulda Gap scenarios of the Cold War, high-powered jammers make for a more easily identifiable and inviting target.

To be clear, using GPS on the future battlefield will not be without its difficulties. GPS certainly can’t solve all position, navigation, and timing needs like some “easy button.” But Western militaries are no longer using GPS naively, making the situation far different from the unconditional warning some have issued. Instead, users are in for more of the same: A modicum of tactics has always been necessary to appropriately take advantage of GPS. The tactics that preserve and extend the utility of GPS are nothing onerous for professional forces if they continue to train against realistic threats.

Jamming as an interference method might degrade military GPS systems, but it is unlikely to deny them completely. This key distinction between nuisance and unconditional vulnerability leads many astray. It is misleading to suggest that “Ground-based receivers can be jammed using commercially available equipment, leaving satellite receivers unable to access satellite signals for as long as the jammer is deployed,” without making any distinction between civilian or military capabilities nor providing caveats about the impact of such jamming. Arguing about the impact on U.S. military capabilities using civilian examples leads to a misunderstanding of the problem’s scope.

GPS Spoofing and Civilian Society: Numerous Safeguards

Beyond jamming, GPS spoofing has garnered more mainstream concern in the civilian sector. Spoofing aims to trick a receiver into thinking the transmitter is a satellite in order to spoil the GPS’s position calculations. The most advanced form of spoofing was demonstrated under some very specific and controlled conditions to adjust the perceived position of a well-understood receiver in a perfectly understood guidance system. Such assumptions in the real world are unrealistic — yet the presumption of ease abounds. There are reports of spoofing from incidents in the Black Sea, an academic study using a civilian yacht amongst others by the University of Texas, and an outlandish claim by Iran regarding a crash-landed RQ-170.

These examples also lead to a mistaken assumption regarding the vulnerability of GPS. Just as with jamming, the problem of spoofing for civilian use of GPS can be solved by relying on redundancy in systems. Many receivers already do so. One shouldn’t dismiss spoofing altogether, but neither should we abide exaggeration.

For civilians, spoofing is a risk in instances where GPS is used inappropriately as a sole means of navigation or a naive source of timing. How humans use GPS — if incorrect, inappropriate, or beyond its intended use — isn’t a fault of the technology. The civilian signal’s vulnerability to spoofing is the second-order effect of an original design feature of GPS that makes the signal available for a wider array of commercial purposes. This is because the signal was always intended to be publicly available to serve a role in numerous fields, especially in analysis that enables greater accuracy in surveying for architecture design, infrastructure development, municipal planning, transportation, and agriculture.

That said, how can civilians guard against spoofing? First, as stated above, GPS should not be used naively as a single source if human life or tremendous wealth is at stake. Moreover, at least in Western air travel, proper usage is mandated by regulation and verified by checks. Other sectors, like banking, electrical grid infrastructure, agriculture, cellular networks, logistics carriers, and self-driving automobiles could do the same if directed.

Second, there are reasonable technical solutions available to critical civilian sectors that should at least indicate when spoofing is occurring and help warn of potential disaster. Commercially available solutions run the gamut from verification algorithms that ensure a signal is coming from the correct position, to power–level monitoring and comparison that asks whether the signal has all the appropriate characteristics of one transmitted from medium Earth orbit, to consistency checks against backup timing sources. One indirect solution already in commercial use is wide area augmentation. Many major transregional airlines use augmentation that indirectly reduces the risk of spoofing by providing another way to monitor GPS reception and health. There are also regional and local analogs that provide additional redundancy, and a secure military equivalent. The most reliable source of spoof-proofing is user consistency checks with other sources of navigation and timing — the crucial human element of appropriate technology usage is all too often overlooked.

GPS Spoofing and Military Operations: Trust the Process

On the military side, it is unlikely that military-grade receivers with properly loaded cryptographic keys can be spoofed. First, if GPS keys are diligently loaded, the threat of spoofing is prevented. Loading GPS keys is the quintessential tactic — skipping this basic step is detrimental. This is a leadership issue in the main, but also requires opportunities for instruction and realistic training. Second, GPS cryptographic keys in good practice change periodically, so even if a military receiver is spoofed, it will likely soon be undone. Third, and most importantly, if National Security Agency cryptographic codes are broken at will, the possibility of spoofing is the least of the warfighter’s worries. The sophistication necessary to spoof military forces who are well-led and trained in tactics related to the use of GPS in contested environments is tremendous. Like with jamming, most GPS-skeptical analyses make no distinction between civilian and military capabilities in the face of spoofing. Any characterization that spoofing could fool crypto-enabled military systems into mistaking their “true position, and/or weapon systems either striking the wrong target or missing a target altogether” vastly underestimates longstanding procedure that mitigates the danger of spoofing.

Worst Case Scenarios: Broad Disruption of GPS via Kinetic or Cyber Attack

Now consider the possibility of even worse disruption to GPS than mere spoofing or jamming. One GPS skeptic suggests, “The 24 [sic] satellites that keep GPS services running in the US aren’t especially secure; they’re vulnerable to screw-ups, or attacks of the cyber or corporeal kind.” The idea here is that while jamming or spoofing cannot obtain widespread effect, theoretical attacks against the ground control system, the software, or even the satellites could still have a disastrous global impact. While these threats are worthy of consideration, they are less plausible than assumed.

How would a widespread attack against military GPS systems play out? To completely deny GPS, an attacker would be forced to physically attack its critical command and control nodes or render inoperable most of the satellites. Such suggestions of widespread destruction or disruption almost always misrepresent the reality of how GPS functions as a system. Given the semi-autonomous nature of GPS and its gradual failure design feature, the effects of any ground site attack would be realized only after a protracted lapse of time. Given the location of GPS satellites in medium Earth orbit and the realities of accumulated physical attack on individual satellites, any kinetic attack against the system as a whole would likely evolve over a multi-day period. An adversary could launch several co-orbital systems to disrupt or destroy the constellation of GPS satellites, but this would either require numerous launches or conspicuous orbital transfers and would likely be detected given the extent of space situational awareness available to all the major world powers.

Cyber risks to the control of GPS are clearly on the minds of U.S. defense officials and have resulted in the enactment of stringent protections. Here again, however, GPS skeptics overstate the scope of the threat. This concern may be, in part, the result of popular plot presumptions more akin to a novelized portrayal of the next world war than to real-world threats. Against the threat of cyber attack, a defender has the option to harden systems against access or use the system in a manner mitigating the threat. Regarding GPS, the U.S. military has opted to do both. While imprudent to claim a 100-percent secure system, the Department of Defense is working to make GPS as hardened a target as possible.

Cyber attacks seeking to control the satellites themselves would require individually updating each of the satellites within the constellation with malicious code. Any upload to the whole system would take significant time, at least tens of hours, due to how contact is made with each satellite in their medium Earth orbits. In the meantime, the overwhelming scrutiny the GPS signal is under from U.S. military and civil monitoring stations, as well as from commercial augmentation services, surveyors, academic institutions, and others, could note any degradation or oddity in near real-time long before any aggressor attack could create widespread impact. And when a cyber attack is noted on one satellite, the control center stops subsequent contacts with other GPS satellites — precluding the spread of malicious code through the system. Realistically, because of the orbits of the GPS satellites and practical process, any disruption via this tactic would be obvious after the first few uploads and likely thwarted far before culmination.

Our point is not to suggest a widespread attack on all 31 satellites in the GPS constellation is impossible. If a satellite can be put into orbit an anti-satellite weapon can reach it. If cyber controls GPS satellites then vulnerabilities must exist. Instead, the question is how to exploit these at such a scale, with such surprise, to obtain a widespread result without time to respond. Complete denial of GPS — via kinetic or cyber attack — while maybe technically possible, is implausible as it would connote an enormous, perhaps even apocalyptic, escalation. Instead of assuming complete denial of GPS, we recommend — and have taught — Western forces to learn necessary variety in tactics that allows for overmatch when GPS is available and how to retain an advantage should adversaries degrade it. Additionally, the Department of Defense has undertaken and considered an expansion of its complement of proficiencies with GPS as a core capability; such redundancy is far preferable to supplanting GPS with a replacement that would still be subject to most of the nuisances noted in the aforementioned articles.

Finally, it is important to examine two other factors: escalation control and unintended collateral damage to vital interests. Again, to be clear, temporary nuisances are not a vital threat and the distinction between jamming or spoofing and widespread destruction of GPS is crucial. But what would happen to society if a frustrated adversary chose, despite the difficulty, widespread destruction of the GPS constellation? The positional and timing aspects of the system play an important role in 14 of the 16 sectors classified as critical infrastructure according to the U.S. Department of Homeland Security. One assessment states the “[t]otal economic impact of GPS is virtually the size of the whole [U.S.] economy.” Another report suggests the global economic impact of GPS is over $2 trillion dollars per year and growing, with most of that benefiting the West. This is why other major and regional powers are seeking GPS-like parity with indigenous systems (which share the same vulnerabilities as GPS). Because GPS has such a far-ranging impact on society, any total countervalue attack creating a lasting effect on the system would likely be seen as a vital threat to Western society.

Such a concern crosses the boundary into subjective considerations of conflict escalation. While banking delays, glitches in some power grids, and other awful outcomes might occur from complete denial of GPS, there is no guarantee it would wreck civilization. But any major power sophisticated enough to accomplish a widespread counter-GPS operation cannot be certain precisely how it would unfold. There will be many knock-on effects outside the scope of military conflict. Here arise concerns of escalation and geopolitical risk, especially as potential adversaries open themselves to similar risks to their own versions of GPS. Just as the major powers are constrained in using nuclear weapons for limited means, any widespread attack against GPS would be viewed as disproportionate. The signal in escalation would not only occur slowly as noted but also directly against vital interests. The United States would, at the least, respond in kind. Taking all of this into consideration, it is reasonable to believe GPS is protected against widespread attack under the same aegis of deterrence protecting other vital interests: the possibility of nuclear escalation.

Conclusion

While the potential for disruption of the dual-use GPS system continues to be a nuisance to both civilian life and military operations, an assessment of the facts and contexts shows the end is not actually so near for GPS. The system is more resilient than pessimists allow, and replacing a proven investment with thin promises of alternative resilience is bad advice. Further, nuisance and vulnerability are not the same thing. Finally, this article has explored what could happen if GPS’s widespread disruption or destruction is followed to a logical conclusion. A day without GPS, while perhaps possible, is implausible given how reliably well the system performs even under stress and how widespread destruction would be an escalation toward the extreme against a vital interest — an interest which all the major powers now share given their own equivalently vulnerable systems. Ultimately, a day without GPS is unlikely not because of the technology, but because of the human capacity to overcome nuisance in daily life and fight back using clever tactics.

## Corporate Colonialism

#### Cap is sustainable – innovation is key to solve the climate

Karlsson 21 – Associate Professor in political science at Umea University (Rasmus, "Learning in the Anthropocene" Soc. Sci. 10, no. 6: 233. <https://doi.org/10.3390/socsci10060233> 18 June 2021)

Unpacking this argument, it is perhaps useful to first recognize that, stable as the Holocene may have seemed from a human perspective, life was always vulnerable to a number of cosmic risks, such as bolide collisions, risks that only advanced technologies can mitigate. Similarly, the Black Death of the 14th century should serve as a powerful reminder of the extreme vulnerability of pre-industrial societies at a microbiological level. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to think of the Holocene as providing a relatively stable baseline against which the ecological effects of technological interventions could hypothetically be evaluated. With most human activities being distinctively local, nature would for the most part “bounce back” (even if the deforestation of the Mediterranean basin during the Roman period is an example of that not always being the case) while larger geophysical processes, such as the carbon cycle, remained entirely beyond human intentional control. Even if there has been some debate about what influence human activities had on the preindustrial climate (Ruddiman 2007), anthropogenic forcing was in any case both marginal and gradual. All this changed with the onset of the Great Acceleration by which humans came to overwhelm the great forces of nature, causing untold damage to fragile ecosystems and habitats everywhere, forever altering the trajectory of life on the planet (Steffen et al. 2011b). In a grander perspective, humanity may one day become an interplanetary species and thus instrumental in safeguarding the long-term existence of biological life, but for the moment, its impact is ethically dubious at best as the glaciers melt, the oceans fill up with plastics, and vast number of species are driven to extinction. Faced with these grim realities, it is of course not surprising that the first impulse is to seek to restore some kind primordial harmony and restrain human activities. Yet, it is important to acknowledge that, even if their aggregate impact may have been within the pattern of Holocene variability, pre-modern Western agricultural societies were hardly “sustainable” in any meaningful sense. Experiencing permanent scarcity, violent conflict was endemic (Gat 2013), and as much as some contemporary academics like to attribute all evils to “capitalism” (Malm 2016), pre-capitalist societies exhibited no shortage of religious intolerance and other forms of social domination. It is thus not surprising that some have argued the need to reverse the civilizational arc further yet and return to a preliterate hunter-gather existence (Zerzan 2008) even if this, obviously, has very little to do with existing political realities and social formations. Under Holocene conditions, the short-term human tragedy may have been the same, but it did not undermine the long-term ability of the planet to support life. In a world of eight billion people, already accumulated emissions in the atmosphere have committed the planet to significant warming under the coming centuries, with an increasing probability that committed warming already exceeds the 1.5-degree target of the Paris Agreement even if all fossil-fuel emissions were to stop today (Mauritsen and Pincus 2017). This means that sustained negative emissions, presumably in combination with SRM, will most likely be needed just to stabilize global temperatures, not to mentioning countering the flow of future emissions. According to the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), assuming that all the pledges submitted under the Paris Agreement are fulfilled, limiting warming to 1.5 degrees will still require negative emissions in the range of 100—1000 gigatons of CO2 (Hilaire et al. 2019, p. 190). The removal of carbon dioxide at gigaton scales from the atmosphere will presumably require the existence of an advanced industrial society since low-tech options, such as afforestation, will be of limited use (Gundersen et al. 2021; Seddon et al. 2020), especially in a future of competing land-uses. It is against this backdrop of worsening climate harms that the limits of “precaution”, at least as conventionally understood, become apparent. While degrowth advocates tend to insist that behavioral change, even explicitly betting on a “social miracle” (Kallis 2019, p. 195), is always preferable to any technological risk-taking (Heikkurinen 2018), that overlooks both the scope of the sustainability challenge and the lack of public consent to any sufficiently radical political project (Buch-Hansen 2018). While there may be growing willingness to pay for, say, an electric vehicle (Hulshof and Mulder 2020), giving up private automobile use altogether is obviously a different animal, to say nothing about a more fundamental rematerialization of the economy (Hausknost 2020). Again, the problem is one in which change either (a) remains marginal yet ecologically insufficient or (b) becomes sufficiently radical yet provokes a strong political counterreaction. A similar dynamic can be expected to play out at the international level where countries that remain committed to growth would quickly gain a military advantage. To make matters worse, there is also a temporal element to this dynamic since any regime of frugality and localism would have to be policed indefinitely in order to prevent new unsustainable patterns of development from re-emerging later on. All this begs the obvious question, if the political and economic enforcement of the planetary boundaries are fraught with such political and social difficulties,

would it not be better to instead try to transcend them through technological innovation? Surprisingly, any high-energy future would most likely be subject to many of the same motivational and psychological constraints that hinder a low-energy future. While history shows that existing nuclear technologies could in theory displace all fossil fuels and meet the most stringent climate targets (Qvist and Brook 2015), it seems extremely unlikely, to put it mildly, that thousands of new reactors will be built over the course of the coming decades in response to climate change. Outside the world of abstract computer modelling, real world psychological and cultural inertia tends to ensure that political decision-making, at least for the most part, gravitates to what is considered “reasonable” and “common sense”—such as medium emissions electricity grids in which wind and solar are backed by biomass and gas—rather than what any utilitarian optimization scenario may suggest. Even if the global benefits of climate stabilization would be immense, the standards by which local nuclear risks are assessed, as clearly illustrated by the Fukushima accident which led to a worldwide retreat from nuclear energy despite only causing one confirmed death (which, though obviously regrettable, has to be put in relation to the hundred and thousands of people dying every year from the use of fossil fuels), underscores the uneven distribution of perceived local risks versus global benefits and the associated problem of socio-political learning across spatial scales. Almost two decades ago, Ingolfur Blühdorn identified “simulative eco-politics” as a key strategy by which liberal democracies reconcile an ever-heightened rhetoric of environmental crisis with their simultaneous defense of the core principles of consumer capitalism (Blühdorn 2007). Since then, declarations that we only have “ten years to save the planet” have proliferated, and so have seemingly bold investments in renewable energy, most recently in the form of US President Joseph Biden’s USD 2.25 trillion climate and infrastructure plan. Still, without a meaningful commitment to either radical innovation or effective degrowth, it is difficult to see how the deployment of yet more wind turbines or the building of new highways will in any way be qualitatively different from what Blühdorn pertinently described as sustaining “what is known to be unsustainable” (Blühdorn 2007, p. 253). However, all is not lost in lieu of more authentic forms of eco-politics. Independent of political interventions, accelerating technological change, in particular with regard to computing and intelligent machine labor, may one day make large-scale precision manipulation of the physical world possible in ways that may solve many problems that today seem intractable (Dorr 2016). Similarly, breakthroughs in synthetic biology may hold the key to environmentally benign biofuels and carbon utilization technologies. Yet, all such progress remains hypothetical and uncertain for now. Given what is at stake, there is an obvious danger in submitting to naïve technological optimism. What is less commonly recognized is that naïve optimism with regard to the prospects of behavioral change may be equally dangerous. While late-capitalist affluence has enabled many postmaterial identities and behaviors, such as bicycling, hobby farming, and other forms of emancipatory self-expression, a collapsing economy could quickly lead to a reversal back to survivalist values, traditional hierarchical forms of domination, and violence (Quilley 2011, p. 77). As such, it is far from obvious what actions would actually take the world as a whole closer to long-term sustainability. If sustainability could be achieved by a relatively modest reduction in consumption rates or behavioral changes, such as a ban on all leisure flights, then there would be a strong moral case for embracing degrowth. Yet, recognizing how farreaching measures in terms of population control and consumption restrictions that would be needed, the case quickly becomes more ambiguous. While traditional environmentalism may suggest that retreating from the global economy and adopting a low-tech lifestyle would increase resilience (Alexander and Yacoumis 2018), it may do very much the opposite by further fragmenting global efforts and slowing the pace of technological innovation. Without an orderly and functioning world trade system, local resources scarcities would be exacerbated, as seen most recently with the different disruptions to vaccine supply chains. In essence, given the lack of a stable Holocene baseline to revert to, it becomes more difficult to distinguish proactionary “risk-taking” from “precaution”, especially as many ecosystems have already been damaged beyond natural recovery. In this context, it is noteworthy that many of the technologies that can be expected to be most crucial for managing a period of prolonged overshoot (such as next-generation nuclear, engineering biology, large-scale carbon capture and SRM) are also ones that traditional environmentalism is most strongly opposed to. 3. Finding Indicators From the vantage point of the far-future, at least the kind depicted in the fictional universe of Star Trek, human evolution is a fairly straightforward affair along an Enlightenment trajectory by which ever greater instrumental capacity is matched by similar leaps in psychological maturity and expanding circles of moral concern. With the risk of sounding Panglossian, one may argue that the waning of interstate war in general and the fact that there has not been any major nuclear exchange in particular, does vindicate such an optimistic reading of history. While there will always be ups and downs, as long as the most disastrous outcomes are avoided, there will still be room for learning and gradual political accommodation. Taking such a longer view, it would nevertheless be strange if development was simply linear, that former oppressors would just accept moral responsibility or that calls for gender or racial justice would not lead to self-reinforcing cycles of conservative backlash and increasingly polarizing claims. Still, over the last couple of centuries, there is little doubt that human civilization has advanced significantly, both technologically and ethically (Pinker 2011), at least from a liberal and secular perspective. However, unless one subscribes to teleology, there is nothing inexorable with this development and, it may be that the ecological, social, and political obstacles are simply too great to ever allow for the creation of a Wellsian borderless world (Pedersen 2015) that would allow everyone to live a life free from material want and political domination. On the other hand, much environmental discourse tends to rush ahead in the opposite direction and treat the c limate crisis as ultimate evidence of humanity’s fallen nature when the counter-factual case, that it would be possible for a technological civilization to emerge without at some point endangering its biophysical foundations, would presumably be much less plausible. From an astrobiological perspective, it is easy to imagine how the atmospheric chemistry of a different planet would be more volatile and thus more vulnerable to the effects of industrial processes (Haqq-Misra and Baum 2009), leaving a shorter time window for mitigation. Nick Bostrom has explored this possibility of greater climate sensitivity further in his “vulnerable world hypothesis” (Bostrom 2019) and it begs to reason that mitigation efforts would be more focused in such a world. However, since climate response times are longer and sensitivity less pronounced, climate mitigation policies have become mired in culture and media politics (Newman et al. 2018) but also a statist logic (Karlsson 2018) by which it has become more important for states to focus on their own marginal emission reductions in the present rather than asking what technologies would be needed to stabilize the climate in a future where all people can live a modern life.

#### The technology age is inevitable. Global capitalism, political momentum, and militarism prove.

Kelly ’16 (Kevin; 2016; Awarded author, founder of Wired Magazine, citing data from the past thirty years; Book*, The Inevitable: Understanding the 12 Technological Forces That Will Shape Our Future*)

In the three decades since then, this technological convergence between communication and computation has spread, sped up, blossomed, and evolved. The internet/ web/ mobile system has moved from the fringes of society (where it was pretty much ignored in 1981) to the center stage of our modern global society. In the past 30 years the social economy based on this technology has had its ups and downs and seen its heroes come and go, but it is very clear there have been large-scale trends governing what has happened. These broad historical trends are crucial because the underlying conditions that birthed them are still active and developing, which strongly suggests that these trends will continue to increase in the next few decades. There is nothing on the horizon to decrease them. Even the forces we might think could derail them, like crime, war, or our own excesses, also follow these emerging patterns. In this book I describe a dozen of these inevitable technological forces that will shape the next 30 years. “Inevitable” is a strong word. It sends up red flags for some people because they object that nothing is inevitable. They claim that human willpower and purpose can— and should!— deflect, overpower, and control any mechanical trend. In their view, “inevitability” is a free will cop-out we surrender to. When the notion of the inevitable is forged with fancy technology, as I do here, the objections to a preordained destiny are even more fierce and passionate. One definition of “inevitable” is the final outcome in the classic rewinding thought experiment. If we rewound the tape of history back to the beginning of time and reran our civilization from the start again and again, a strong version of inevitability says that, no matter how many times we reran it, every time we end up with teenagers tweeting every five minutes in 2016. That’s not what I mean. I mean inevitable in a different way. There is bias in the nature of technology that tilts it in certain directions and not others. All things being equal, the physics and mathematics that rule the dynamics of technology tend to favor certain behaviors. These tendencies exist primarily in the aggregate forces that shape the general contours of technological forms and do not govern specifics or particular instances. For example, the form of an internet— a network of networks spanning the globe— was inevitable, but the specific kind of internet we chose to have was not. The internet could have been commercial rather than nonprofit, or a national system instead of international, or it could have been secret instead of public. Telephony— long-distance electrically transmitted voice messages— was inevitable, but the iPhone was not. The generic form of a four-wheeled vehicle was inevitable, but SUVs were not. Instant messaging was inevitable, but tweeting every five minutes was not. Tweeting every five minutes is not inevitable in another way. We are morphing so fast that our ability to invent new things outpaces the rate we can civilize them. These days it takes us a decade after a technology appears to develop a social consensus on what it means and what etiquette we need to tame it. In another five years we’ll find a polite place for twittering, just as we figured out what to do with cell phones ringing everywhere. (Use silent vibrators.) Just like that, this initial response will disappear quickly and we’ll see it was neither essential nor inevitable. The kind of inevitability I am speaking of here in the digital realm is the result of momentum. The momentum of an ongoing technological shift. The strong tides that shaped digital technologies for the past 30 years will continue to expand and harden in the next 30 years. These apply to not just North America, but to the entire world. Throughout this book I use examples from the United States because readers will be more familiar with them, but for each I could have easily found a corresponding example in India, Mali, Peru, or Estonia. The true leaders in digital money, for example, are in Africa and Afghanistan, where e-money is sometimes the only functioning currency. China is way ahead of everyone else in developing sharing applications on mobile. But while culture can advance or retard the expression, the **underlying forces** are universal.