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THE CONTRIBUTION OF SOVIET LEGAL SCIENCE IN THE FORMATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF INTERNATIONAL SPACE LAW.

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Nowadays space exploration is in full swing. There are about two dozen of cosmodromes operating on Earth, thousands of satellites are working around the planet, about 500 people have already been in orbit, space tourism is emerging, plans for the exploration of the moon and an expedition to Mars, in short, the space activity of humanity is becoming more ambitious and diverse. This means that in its regulation it is increasingly necessary to face legal issues.

- Where does airspace end and cosmic begin?
- Whose laws apply to the orbital station?
- Who owns the heavenly bodies?
- Is it possible to establish a state on the moon?
- And buy a plot on it?

Such unusual questions are seriously considered by modern international space law. But the most significant contribution marked was from the Soviet side during that socalled “Cosmo-race”.

International legal regulations governing human activity in space began to appear soon after the beginning of the development of near-Earth space. Almost exactly the anniversary of the first satellite - October 10, 1967 - entered into force on the Treaty on the Principles of Activities of States for the Exploration and Use of Outer Space, including the Moon and other celestial bodies, in abbreviated form - the Treaty on Space.

This is a universal international agreement, which today has been joined by more than 120 states, including all space powers. It contains the most important principles of the peaceful use of space and the rejection of the national appropriation of celestial bodies. In 1972, the Convention on International Liability for Damage Caused by Space Objects entered into force, and another four years later - the Convention on Registration of Objects Launched into Outer Space.

The last two agreements are important in connection with the fact that they specify the conditions of the state’s international responsibility for any space activity that it

carries out by itself or by individuals - its citizens and organizations. This is a rare case when the state is legally responsible not only for itself, but a third party, because launches are not always successful. The value of these treaties is that they are binding on all states. The norms contained in them and the international legal customs complementing them in aggregate constitute international space law - one of the youngest branches of jurisprudence.

State sovereignty, that is, the power of the state, is territorial. Airspace, as well as the water surface of the Earth, is divided into a national part, under the sovereignty of anyone, and international - outside the sovereignty of any state. In contrast, space in its entirety is an international space open to access and exploration by all countries. It is curious that in 1976 a number of equatorial states tried to state their exceptional claims to the geostationary orbit under the pretext that the projection of this orbit passes through their territory, and the objects placed on it orbit still above the corresponding points on the earth's surface. However, these claims were rejected by the majority of states with reference to the principle of prohibition of national appropriation of outer space.

The mentioned Conventions of 1972 and 1976 oblige the states to register launched space objects and to provide information about them to the UN Secretary General. Based on this information, a registry is maintained, to which full and open access is provided. At www.unoosa.org/ /oosa/osoindex.html, you can find information about each space object, including its name, its designation, date and place of launch, nationality, basic parameters of the orbit, and its general purpose. In the early years of space exploration, there were cases when capsules with photographic film taken by American spy satellites accidentally landed on the territory of the USSR. They could be a tasty prey for Soviet intelligence, but only the locals managed to pull the drop-off capsules along with their contents home without knowing the significance of their find. There was also the danger that the manned ship would make an emergency landing on the territory of a potential enemy. How will local authorities react to uninvited guests with foreign flags on space suits? In order to remove such questions once and for all, another major international treaty was adopted - the Agreement on the Rescue of Astronauts, the Return of Astronauts and the Return of Objects Launched into Outer Space, which entered into force in 1968. It was concluded just in case of an emergency landing on the territory of other states and concerns both cosmonauts and spacecraft. The agreement commits to promptly return the crew of the spacecraft to the state that launched the launch. It is also necessary to return the landed manned or unmanned objects and their component parts, and the costs of detection and return must be compensated by the state that launched the object.

International law considers space a partly demilitarized space. It is forbidden to bring nuclear and other weapons of mass destruction into orbit around the Earth. At the same time, the ban does not cover the passage through space of the head parts of intercontinental rockets moving along a ballistic trajectory. From the international legal point of view, it is also legitimate to have a special TP-82 pistol

in orbit, which is traditionally included in a wearable emergency stock of Russian cosmonauts.

It is curious that the implementation in the late 1980s of the plans to test the Skif military space station (also known as the Polyus) equipped with an infrared chemical laser in the USSR would be quite legitimate. Conversely, the placement of nuclear-pumped x-ray lasers (developed by the United States under the PIO program) would be unlawful, since they are based on thermonuclear ammunition.

Recently, more and more tourists are going to space. Moreover, in the coming years, regular commercial suborbital flights should begin. However, in the 19601970s, when the basic provisions of space law were developed, tourism, for obvious reasons, did not give much thought. Therefore, today there is no international legal distinction between professional astronauts and tourists. All of them are endowed with the honorary status of the envoys of mankind into space, and states have the duty to render them all possible assistance in the event of an accident, disaster or forced landing outside the territory of their country. In outer space, including on celestial bodies, the cosmonauts of one state should render possible assistance to the cosmonauts of other states (even if they call themselves astronauts).

It is only clear that as these prospects become more specific, the need for the improvement of international space law will increase.

Links used:

http://www.unoosa.org/oosa/en/ourwork/spacelaw/treaties.html
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