

One million satellites in the sky: Light contamination on space telescopes

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1 One million satellites in the sky: Light
2 contamination on space telescopes*

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9 **Abstract**

10 Rapidly growing satellite mega-constellations have raised strong concerns among
11 the scientific community. Reflections from satellites are visible to the human
12 eye and extremely bright for professional telescopes. These trails already affect
13 astronomical observations across the complete electromagnetic spectrum, with a
14 noticeable cost for operations and mitigation efforts. Despite the common miscon-
15 ception, satellite trails affect not only ground-based observatories, but also space
16 observatories, like *Hubble*. However, the current number of satellites is only a frac-
17 tion (<10%) of those to be launched in the next decade. Here we show a forecast of
18 the satellite trail contamination levels for a series of international low earth orbit
19 telescopes, based on the proposed telecommunication industry constellations. Our
20 results show that if these constellations are completed, one fourth of *Hubble*'s
21 images will be contaminated, while the space telescopes SPHEREx, ARRAKIHS,
22 and *Xuntian* will have **94%** of their exposures affected, with $5.9_{-0.6}^{+0.6}$, 32_{-13}^{+17}
23 and 86_{-19}^{+20} trails per exposure respectively, with an average surface brightness of
24 $\mu = 18 \pm 2$ mag arcsec⁻². Our results demonstrate that light contamination is a
25 growing threat for space-telescope operations. We propose a series of mitigation
26 measures to minimize their impact, allowing researchers to predict, model, and
27 correct unwanted satellite light pollution from science observations.

28 **Keywords:** Space telescopes (1547), Artificial satellites (68), Light pollution (2318),
29 Hubble Space Telescope (761), Space observatories (1543), Interdisciplinary
30 astronomy(804)

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1 Introduction

Until 2019, the largest constellation of artificial satellites was the *Iridium* system, with 75 spacecraft in Low Earth Orbit (LEO) at altitudes between $h \sim 160 - 1600$ km. Radio-emission in the 1621-1628 MHz band by *Iridium* satellites was one of the first sources of electromagnetic pollution from space to be addressed by the calibration pipelines¹ of ground-based observatories [1]. Over the past few years, the number of satellites has increased to approximately $\sim 15,000$. Due to the reduction of the cost-per-kilogram of launching payloads to LEO, the number of artificial satellites has grown exponentially since 2020. Over this era, the proposals of telecommunication satellites to the US Federal Communications Commission (FCC) and the International Telecommunication Union (ITU)² have increased by two orders of magnitude [2]. Launches are expected to be even more accessible in the future, as the advent of next generation superheavy launchers (SLS, *New Glenn*, *Starship*, *Long March 9*) will likely reduce the launch cost and increase the capability to deploy more satellites and to even higher orbits. At the current rate, Earth would be orbited by one million artificial satellites by the end of the 2040 decade [2].

Early observations of the first *Starlink* satellites in 2019 revealed that reflected light from the solar panels was easily visible to the unaided eye, interfering with ground-based observatories at all wavelength ranges [3–5]. As their relative position in the sky changes, they leave a trace of light in the exposures of astronomical images, called satellite trails. Satellite trails contaminate the targets of science interest, generating light gradients (scattered light), and increasing the photon-noise. For new generation ground-based telescopes such as the *Vera C. Rubin* Observatory [6], it is estimated that 20% of the midnight images will present satellite trails, and between 30% to 80% of all exposures obtained at the beginning and end of the night will be affected [7, 8].

Since LEO satellites are detected through reflected solar light, they are mostly visible to the unaided eye at twilight during sunset and sunrise. Most mitigation efforts³ have been focused on making the satellites sufficiently dim so that they are not detectable by the human eye ($m_{\text{vis}} \sim 6 - 7$ mag). The typical apparent magnitude of the first generation *Starlink* satellites was $m_G = 5.1 \pm 1.1$ Gaia G magnitudes [9]. Dark coatings and optical blocking systems have proven to be inefficient in avoiding the presence of satellite trails [8] in astronomical imagery data, with only a mild decrease of the optical magnitude of the satellites [from 4.6 to 5.9 mag, in the case of VisorSat, and 7.3 in the case of DarkSat 9, 10], reducing the visual impact for unaided-eye observers, but remaining extremely bright for astronomical observatories. In fact, newly launched Direct-To-Cell (DTC) satellites present much larger solar panels (125 m² vs. 26 m²) and are much brighter than regular internet satellites [up to $m_{\text{opt}} \sim 0 - 1$ mag, compared to the original 4 - 6 mag, 11]. Super-bright satellites such as Blue Walker 3 are comparable to the magnitude of the brightest stars in the sky [12].

¹NRAO/VLA - Calibration in the Presence of Iridium: <https://www.vla.nrao.edu/astro/calib/manual/irid-cal.html>

²International Telecommunication Union: <https://www.itu.int/ITU-R/space/asreceived/Publication/AsReceived>

³Starlink presentation on AAS 2021: <https://aas.org/sites/default/files/2020-06/SpaceX%20for%20SIA%20AAS%20Astronomy%20Webinar%205.26.20.pdf>

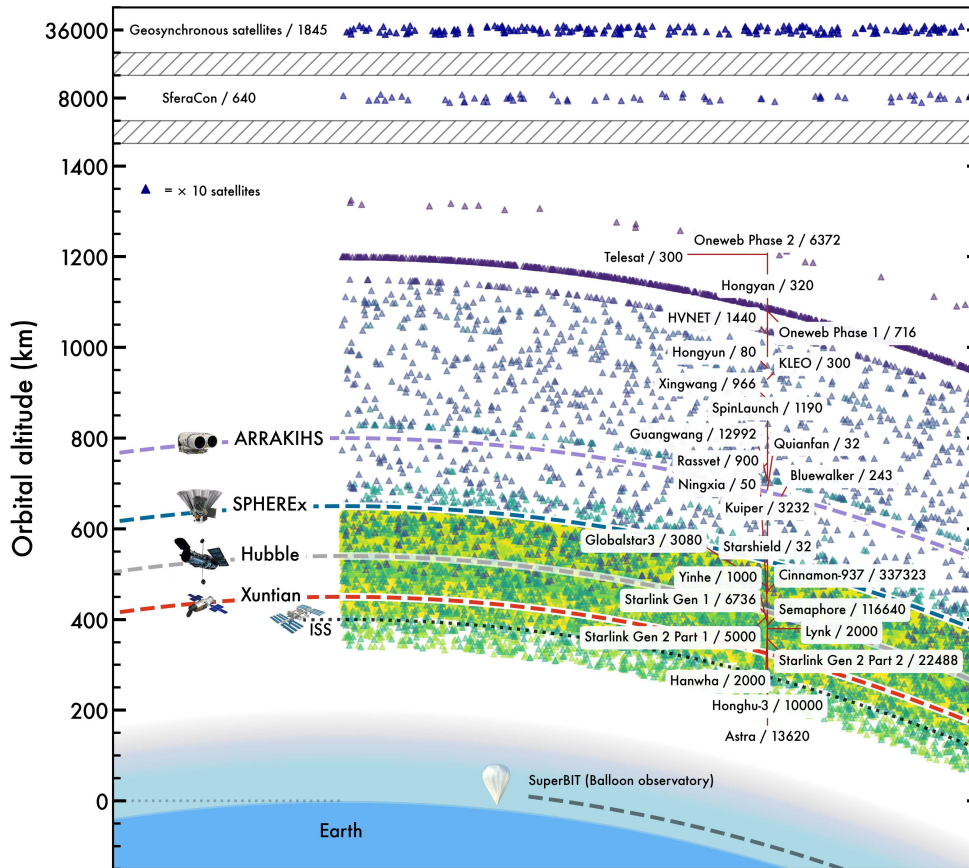


Fig. 1 Structure of proposed satellite telecommunication constellations in Low Earth Orbit as registered in March 11, 2025. The altitude of satellites is compared to the orbits of *Hubble* Space Telescope, *Xuntian* Space Telescope (CSST), SPHEREx, and proposed ARRAKIHS mission (see Table 1). Constellation labels show the number of proposed satellites. Each symbol represents 10 satellites.

70 Mitigation strategies have included pausing ground-based telescope operations during
 71 the twilight and sunrise hours, when the satellites with lowest-altitude orbits
 72 ($h < 600$ km) are most visible [13]. While utilizing this technique avoids many of the
 73 brightest satellite trails with orbit altitudes below $h \sim 600$ km, some critical scientific
 74 programs such as discovery surveys for unknown hazardous Earth orbit-crossing asteroids
 75 can only be conducted through twilight and sunrise observations, exactly when the satellite
 76 trails are most common [14]. Satellites at higher altitudes may pose an even greater
 77 challenge as they can be visible for longer periods or even continuously, contaminating
 78 images obtained even at midnight. With prospects of hundreds of thousands of satellites
 79 already proposed at altitudes between 340 – 8000 km (Table 1), the fraction of uncontaminated
 80 night sky is at risk of becoming too small for practical science operations.
 81

82 While much attention has been directed at the future of ground-based astronomy,
 83 the impact on space telescopes by a crowded near-Earth space environment has been
 84 poorly explored. This manuscript is focused on the prediction of the image degradation
 85 by satellite trails in present and near-future LEO space telescopes. The observations
 86 of active space telescopes are already being contaminated by artificial satellite trails.
 87 Recent works [15] demonstrate that 4.3% of the images obtained by *Hubble* between
 88 2018 and 2021 already present artificial satellite trails. Considering that the proposed
 89 number of satellites is two orders of magnitude higher than current, the fraction of
 90 impacted images will increase very soon. Table 1 gives a summary of the properties of
 91 all planned and present satellite mega-constellations, together with the orbits of several
 92 observatories. Most satellite layers are planned between 500 to 700 km, with extended
 93 constellations up to 8000 km (see Fig. 1). As a consequence, LEO observatories and
 94 every balloon-borne telescope will be affected by these satellites.

95 To forecast the frequency of satellite trails in LEO space telescopes, this paper
 96 simulates the observations of four different platforms: 1) *Hubble* Space Telescope, 2)
 97 the Spectro-Photometer for the History of the Universe, Epoch of Reionization, and
 98 Ices Explorer [SPHEREx, 16], 3) *Xuntian* Space Telescope [also known as Chinese
 99 Space Station Telescope, launch planned for 2026, 17, 18], and 4) ARRAKIHS Space
 100 Telescope [ESA F-class proposed mission, to be launched no earlier than 2030, 19, 20].
 101 The specifications considered for each telescope in terms of orbital altitude, inclina-
 102 tion, wavelength range, field of view, and spatial resolution are detailed in Table 2.
 103 Simultaneously, we simulate a series of constellations following the announced orbital
 104 configurations (altitude, number of shells, planes, and satellites per plane) to the FCC
 105 and the ITU up to date (March 2025), with increasing numbers up to one million
 106 satellites, aiming to estimate the number of trails detected by the telescopes per aver-
 107 age exposure. The simulated telescope observations take into account realistic survey
 108 plan constraints (Earth avoidance angle, exposure time, maximum zenith angle) and
 109 configuration of the telescope (orbit, field of view). The predicted number of satellite
 110 trails observed per exposure and their surface brightness on each telescope is presented
 111 in Sec. 2. The methodology is further described in Sec. 3. We discuss their impact in
 112 science operations and potential mitigation strategies in Sec. 4.

113 2 Results

114 2.1 Satellite trail frequency

115 Our simulated images (Fig. 2) underscore the dramatic rise in satellite trail contamina-
 116 tion with increasing number of Low Earth Orbit satellites (see Fig. 3). If the population
 117 of artificial satellites surpasses 100,000 (1/6 of the proposed number of satellites to the
 118 ITU and FCC), SPHEREx would observe at approximately 2.8 ± 0.4 Sun-illuminated
 119 satellite trails on an average exposure (88 \pm 5% of the exposures would contain at
 120 least one trail). For ARRAKIHS and *Xuntian*, the predicted number of trails is much
 121 higher, close to 7 ± 3 and 16 ± 4 average trails per exposure. If the planned con-
 122 stellations are completed ($N_{\text{sat}} \sim 560,000$), the average number of trails would rise
 123 to $5.9^{+0.6}_{-0.6}$, 33^{+17}_{-13} , and 86^{+20}_{-19} for SPHEREx, ARRAKIHS, and *Xuntian* respectively

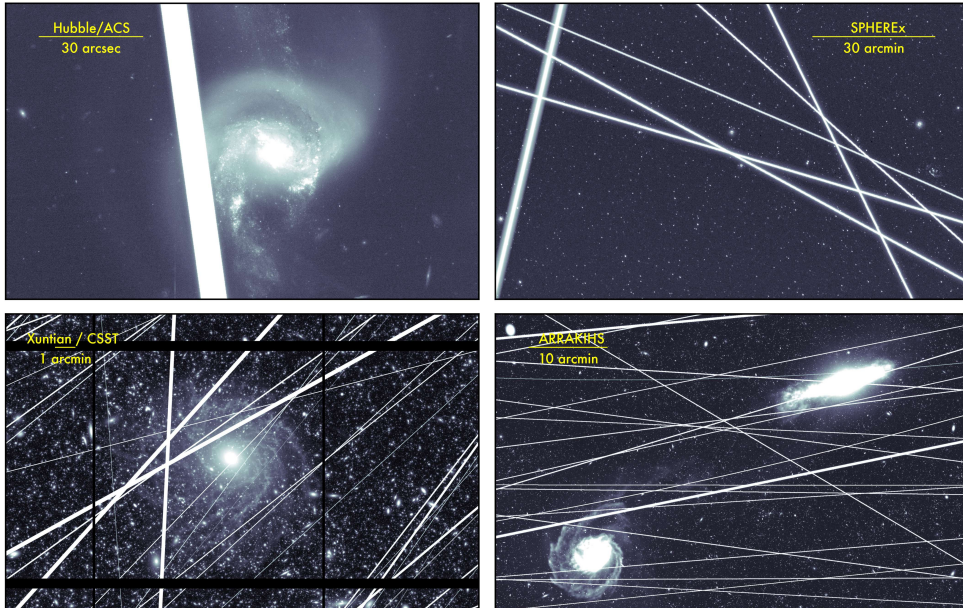


Fig. 2 Simulated exposures for *Hubble*, SPHEREx, *Xuntian*, and ARRAKIHS (see labels) space observatories, showing satellite trails contamination. The satellite trails were generated by simulating the orbits of $N = 1,000,000$ satellites using the orbital and physical parameters of the announced constellations to be operational by 2040 (see Fig. 3). Background galaxies based on [21, 22].

124 ($94 \pm 3\%$ of the exposures affected). At this level, one every four *Hubble* simulated
 125 images show satellite trail contamination.

126 Relative to ARRAKIHS or *Xuntian*, SPHEREx’s substantially larger FOV (39.5
 127 deg^2 vs. $1.2\text{--}1.4 \text{deg}^2$) increases the probability of a satellite being detected by the
 128 telescope. However, its strict pointing constraints and higher altitude compared to
 129 *Xuntian* (650 km vs. 450 km) compensate the risk. In particular, the strict maximum
 130 zenith angle requirement (35 deg) excludes the regions of the sky closer to the limb of
 131 the Earth where a higher number of satellites are visible per square degree. *Xuntian*
 132 presents the higher contamination levels of all the considered telescopes, due to its
 133 lower orbit altitude. In the case of ARRAKIHS, despite being in a higher orbit (800
 134 km) and having a relatively lower field of view than SPHEREx (1.4deg^2), the observ-
 135 ing plan requires long exposure times (600 s), potentially reaching orientations closer
 136 to the limb of the Earth than SPHEREx, thus increasing the probability of a satellite
 137 crossing the detector⁴. This result indicates that stricter observational requirements
 138 can reduce the number of trails in ARRAKIHS and *Xuntian* at the expense of a shorter
 139 observational time per orbit, and a reduced observable area.

140 Under current conditions ($N_{\text{sat}} \sim 15,000$) we predict that $81.3 \pm 1.8\%$ of SPHEREx
 141 observations will present at least one satellite trail, when measured over an entire

⁴ARRAKIHS and *Xuntian* are still in development phase, so their operational constraints could adapt or change.

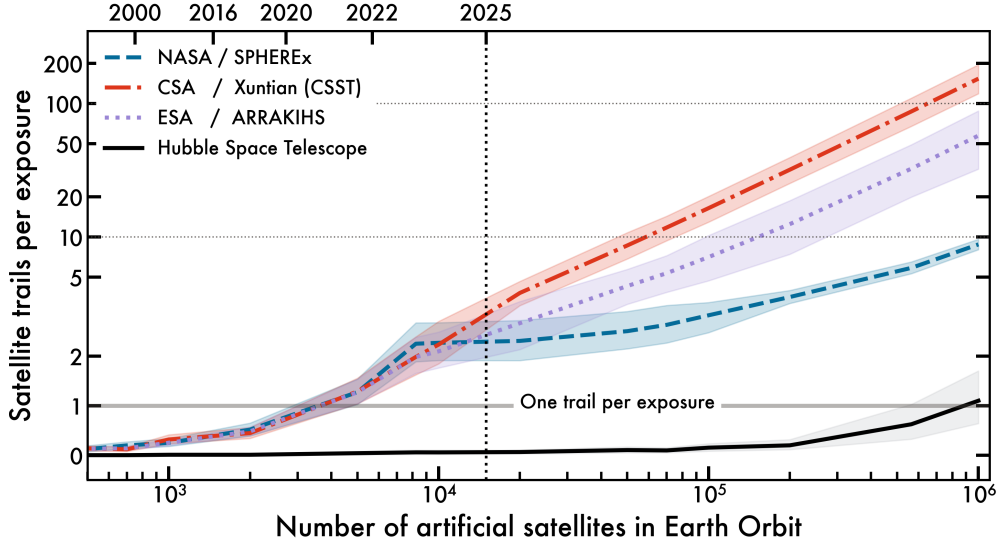


Fig. 3 Mean number of satellite trails per exposure as a function of the population of artificial satellites in Earth orbit (lower x -axis) and epoch (upper x -axis). *Blue*: SPHEREx, *Red*: Xuntian, *Purple*: ARRAKIHS. *Black*: Hubble Space Telescope. Contours represent the 95% confidence levels for the mean number of trails. *Horizontal solid line*: One trail per exposure critical contamination level. *Vertical dotted line*: Current number of active and inactive satellites in orbit (15,000 as of March 2025).

142 year. We validated the methodology by comparing satellite trail detection in recent
 143 *Hubble* Space Telescope data to predictions from simulations based on the satellite
 144 population in October 2021 (5589 satellites of large sizes $> 1 \text{ m}^2$). Our simulations
 145 predict $4.2 \pm 0.7\%$ of recent images should present at least one satellite trail, a value
 146 consistent with the rate of $4.3 \pm 0.4\%$ observed in *Hubble* ACS/WFC images acquired
 147 between 2018-2021. *Hubble* Space Telescope’s substantially narrower field of view (2×2
 148 arcmin) decreases observed trail frequency to 10 times lower than that of SPHEREx.
 149 Only after the population of artificial satellites has exceeded 700,000 would *Hubble*
 150 display, on average, one sun-illuminated satellite trail in every exposure. At population
 151 levels of 1,000,000 satellites, *Hubble* would observe an average of $1.1^{+0.6}_{-0.5}$ satellites per
 152 exposure ($28.1 \pm 8.8\%$ of the images would show one trail or more). For comparison,
 153 SPHEREx, ARRAKIHS, and Xuntian will observe $8.8^{+0.8}_{-0.8}$, 57^{+29}_{-24} , and 150^{+41}_{-34} satellite
 154 trails per average exposure, respectively.

155 2.2 Satellite trail brightness

156 A satellite crossing the field of view of a telescope does not guarantee that the satellite
 157 trail will be visible in the imagery data. The surface brightness magnitude of a satellite
 158 trail depends on several factors, including the apparent speed (the faster a satellite
 159 crosses the detector, the dimmer the trail will be), source of illumination (Sun, Moon),

160 satellite area (larger satellites are brighter), distance from observer to the satellite,
161 and the attitude of the satellite surfaces with respect to the illumination source and
162 the observer.

163 Due to the limited availability of information specifying shape and optical proper-
164 ties for commercial satellites, a precise prediction of the brightness of satellite trails is
165 not currently possible. We discuss potential mitigation measures in Sec. 4. However,
166 we can provide order of magnitude estimations of the peak surface brightness of the
167 satellite trails based on the current observations of satellite mega-constellations and
168 the results from the simulations presented above. The methodology to quantify the
169 satellite trail surface brightness is detailed in Sec. 3.3.

170 Our simulations predict a surface brightness for satellites trails between $\mu = 16$ to
171 $\mu = 22$ mag arcsec⁻². In particular, *Hubble* and *Xuntian* would image the brightest
172 trails, $\mu = 16.5 \pm 1.1$ mag arcsec⁻² and $\mu = 16.7 \pm 1.2$ mag arcsec⁻² respectively, fol-
173 lowed by ARRAKIHS ($\mu = 17.3 \pm 1.3$ mag arcsec⁻²), and SPHEREx ($\mu = 18.2 \pm 4.9$
174 mag arcsec⁻²). The predicted difference in surface brightness is mainly caused by the
175 spatial resolution of the telescopes: higher resolution leads to enhanced flux concen-
176 tration, which results in increased surface brightness. As a verification, we measure
177 the surface brightness of the only confirmed *Starlink* satellite trail observed by *Hub-*
178 *ble*, in November 2nd, 2020 (*Starlink* 1619, `iedk12aoq`, WFC3/UVIS F350LP, PID:
179 16183, Porter, S.). The satellite trail has an approximate width of 7.9 arcsec (200 pix-
180 els) and a surface brightness of $\mu = 18.0 \pm 0.1$ mag arcsec⁻², compatible with the
181 predicted *Hubble* trail brightness distribution in our simulations. A relatively dimmer-
182 than-average observed brightness is expected since the trail in the *Hubble* exposure
183 `iedk12aoq` was spatially resolved (trail width of 90 ± 20 pixels), spreading the flux
184 over a larger number of pixels, and that *Starlink* 1619 belongs to the first version of
185 the constellation with a much smaller area (25 m²) than their newer version (125 m²).

186 Finally, we consider the case of satellites only illuminated by the full Moon
187 ($m_{\odot,V} = -12.74$). In that case the predicted trail surface brightness for the four
188 telescopes is well below detectability levels for single exposures: $\mu = 30.3 \pm 1.1$ mag
189 arcsec⁻² for *Hubble* and *Xuntian*, and $\mu = 31.8 \pm 1.1$ and $\mu = 33.2 \pm 4.9$ mag arcsec⁻²
190 for ARRAKIHS and SPHEREx, respectively. Only sun-illuminated satellites were
191 detectable and considered in our simulations (Fig. 3 and Sec. 2.1).

192 3 Methodology

193 3.1 Space telescopes orbit and attitude simulation

194 The key objective of this work is the prediction of the number of satellite trails in
195 future and present space telescopes in different configurations, represented by *Hubble*
196 Space Telescope, the terminator-aligned sun-synchronous orbit SPHEREx space tele-
197 scope (700 km), *Xuntian* Space Telescope (450 km), and the proposed ESA mission
198 ARRAKIHS (~ 800 km). The main properties of the four telescopes are summarized
199 in Table 2. We note that *Xuntian* and ARRAKIHS are missions still in development,
200 and their configurations might change before launch. In particular, ARRAKIHS pro-
201 posed orbit ranges from 650 to 800 km [19]. Since satellite contamination becomes less

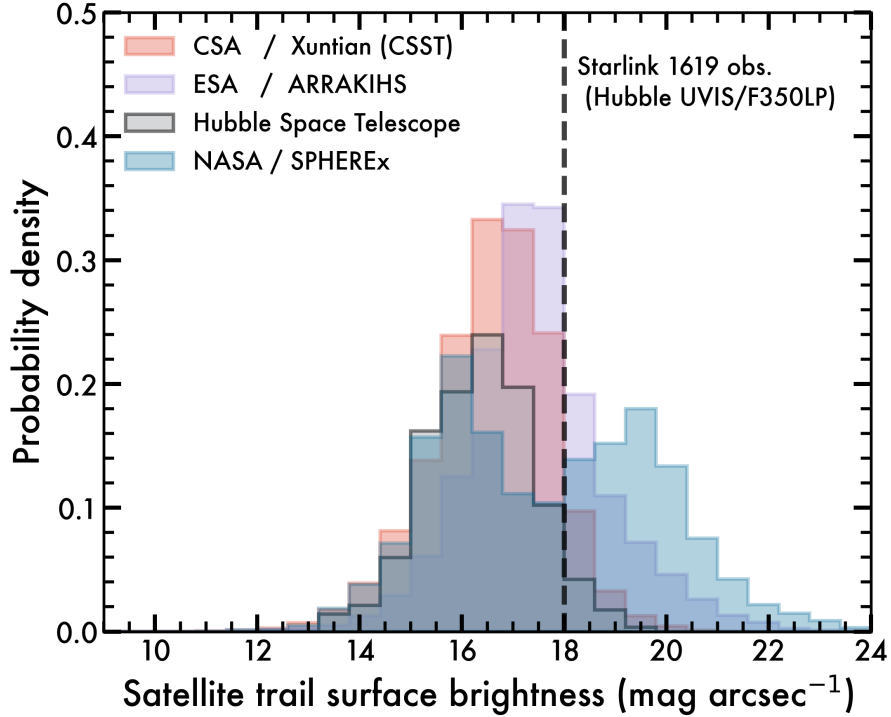


Fig. 4 Histogram of satellite trail surface brightness, separated per observatory. *Blue*: SPHEREx, *Red*: Xuntian, *Black*: Hubble Space Telescope. *Vertical dashed line*: Observed surface brightness of satellite trails in Hubble Space Telescope, estimated from the WFC3/UVIS F350LP observation of Starlink 1619. Hubble observation PI: S. Porter (MAST PID: 16183). Satellite ID by J. McDowell.

202 frequent at higher orbits, we chose a best-case scenario with a 800 km orbit for the
 203 calculations.

204 The satellite trail simulation process is schematized in Fig. 5. For each observa-
 205 tory, we assume a survey plan which consists of a series of pointings (right ascension
 206 and declination) taking place at an associated epoch (epoch at exposure start t_{start}
 207 and exposure end t_{end}) with a certain exposure time ($t_{\text{exp}} = t_{\text{end}} - t_{\text{start}}$). The avail-
 208 able regions on the sky depend on the telescope orbit (as defined by the Two Line
 209 Element, or TLE) and epoch (i.e., a telescope cannot observe a region blocked by
 210 Earth), and specific survey constraints (i.e., Sun avoidance, Earth-limb, and maxi-
 211 mum zenith angles) for each telescope, summarized below. We assume a fixed orbit for
 212 SPHEREx and Xuntian telescopes (see Supplementary information 4.1). For Hubble
 213 simulations, we randomly select archival exposures (right ascension, declination, t_{start} ,
 214 t_{exp}) obtained with the wide field channel of the Advanced Camera for Surveys (ACS)

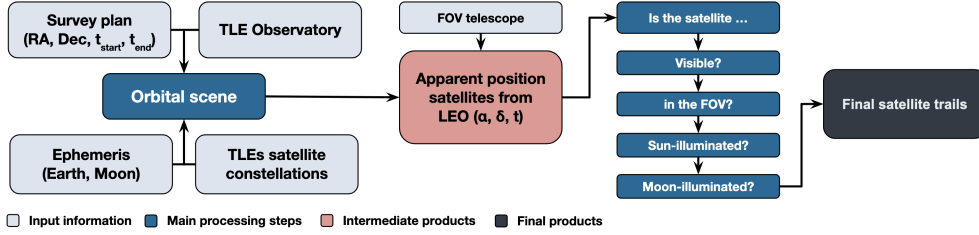


Fig. 5 Satellite trail simulation methodology flowchart. Left to right: 1) Orbital scene, based on the survey plan, Earth and Moon ephemeris, telescope (observer) and artificial satellite orbits. 2) Estimated sky position of the satellites along the simulated exposure. 3) Filtering satellite trails that cross the field of view, and are illuminated by the Sun or the Moon. 4) Final record of satellite trail contamination on each exposure.

215 during 2023-2024, assuming the closest orbit on time from its recorded history⁵. The
 216 typical exposure time was $t_{\text{exp}} = 540_{-200}^{+530}$ s.

217 To simulate the survey plan, orbital position, and attitude of the SPHEREx, *Xun-*
 218 *tian*, and ARRAKIHS space telescopes, we choose random locations in the sky that are
 219 accessible with the adopted constraints of each telescope. For SPHEREx, we assume
 220 a maximum zenithal angle of 35° , 91° Solar-avoidance angle during the whole exposure,
 221 and a exposure time of 112.5 s on a $h = 650$ km terminator-aligned sun-synchronous
 222 orbit [23]. Similarly, we choose a $h = 800$ km terminator-aligned sun-synchronous orbit
 223 ARRAKIHS, with a fixed exposure time of 600 s [19], and 7.6° Earth-limb angle (as in
 224 *Hubble*). Finally, *Xuntian* was assigned the same orbit as the Tiangong Space Station
 225 (LEO, $h = 450$ km, $i = 41.47^\circ$), 55° Solar-avoidance angle, 7.6° Earth-limb angle dur-
 226 ing the whole exposure, and a random exposure time following the same distribution
 227 as the *Hubble* observational record.

228 3.2 Satellite constellations orbit

229 The orbital parameters for the satellite constellations were generated⁶ using
 230 Planet489 public database⁷ of the orbital altitude, number of shells, number of orbital
 231 planes, and satellites per plane on each FCC/ITU registered satellite constellation.
 232 In addition to the simulated satellite constellations based on the orbits described on
 233 Table 1, we include a baseline of existing satellites, which include every already exist-
 234 ing Earth artificial satellite, removing 1) those classified as part of constellations (to
 235 avoid duplications), 2) cubesats, 3) debris, or 4) objects known to be too small to be
 236 observed (i.e., Westford Needles). To analyze the effect of an increasing population of
 237 artificial satellite constellations, we randomly choose a varying number of satellites,
 238 starting from a baseline population ($N \sim 100$) up to one million satellites. The simu-
 239 lated satellites are chosen randomly from the pool described before for each simulation,
 240 ensuring that we sample the potential variability of scenarios.

⁵Celestrak: <https://celestrak.org/>

⁶Bulk TLE Generator: <https://tle-generator.starlitter.info/>

⁷Planet489: <https://planet489.org/index.html>

241 Based on the orbital parameters and telescope survey plans, the cartesian geo-
 242 centric position ($\bar{x}_t = (x, y, z, t)$) of the telescope (observer) during the exposure is
 243 calculated. In parallel, the coordinates of the satellite constellation are estimated (\bar{x}_s).
 244 Then, the apparent location on the sky (right ascension, declination) of the Earth, Sun,
 245 Moon, and the artificial satellite constellation are computed within the local reference
 246 frame of the telescope. The location and extension of the Earth and the Moon are
 247 determined using their predicted ephemeris and physical properties, while the appar-
 248 ent location of the artificial satellites are simulated as a function of time by propagating
 249 their orbits. Thanks to the described approach, we can determine which satellites are
 250 visible (not behind the Earth), illuminated by the Sun and/or the Moon, and/or inside
 251 the field of view of each telescope. The code is based on `Python/Skyfield` [24]. The
 252 final product is a database (satellite trails) of the location of each satellite that crosses
 253 the field of view, including their brightness, angular speed, illumination by the Sun or
 254 the Moon, the distance to the observer, and the location in the sky as a function of
 255 time.

256 3.3 Satellite trail brightness

257 The surface brightness of satellite trails depends on multiple factors, including: 1)
 258 the brightness of the light source, 2) the Bidirectional Reflectance Distribution Func-
 259 tion [BRDF; 25] of the satellite, and 3) the orientation of the reflecting surfaces to
 260 the observer. For order of magnitude estimations, we implement some simplifying
 261 assumptions.

262 A satellite located at a distance d_{sat} from a space telescope with a mirror diameter
 263 D_{mir} crossing the FOV leaves a trail with a width θ_{sat} defined by [26]:

$$\theta_{\text{sat}}^2 = \frac{4R_{\text{sat}}^2 + D_{\text{mir}}^2}{d_{\text{sat}}^2} + \sigma^2. \quad (1)$$

264 where σ represents the minimum resolution element (or seeing in the case of a
 265 ground-based telescope), and R_{sat} is the equivalent radius⁸ of the cross-sectional area
 266 of a satellite, assuming a random orientation between 0° to 180° with respect to the
 267 observer. The area of the extended solar panels in new generation satellites can range
 268 from 1 m^2 up to 125 m^2 [11]. In this work, we assume a uniform distribution between
 269 these two extreme values.

270 The apparent magnitude (m_{sat}) of the satellite can be approximated as [27]:

$$m_{\text{sat}} = m_{\odot} + 2.5 \log_{10} \left(\frac{d_{\text{sat}}^2}{pR_{\text{sat}}^2} \right) \quad (2)$$

271 where p is the geometric albedo of the satellite and R_{sat} is the equivalent radius of
 272 the satellite cross-section. Assuming a representative example, for Starlink satellites,
 273 $p = 0.25$ [7]. We adopt $m_{\odot, V} = -26.77$ for the magnitude of the Sun, and $m_{\odot, V} =$
 274 -12.74 for the magnitude of the Moon at a reference wavelength of $\lambda_{\text{ref}} = 0.55 \mu\text{m}$.
 275 The peak surface brightness magnitude of the satellite trail μ_{sat} (in mag arcsec⁻²)

⁸Equivalent radius is defined as the radius of a circle with the same area.

276 depends on the apparent magnitude of the satellite m_{app} (mag), its focal plane velocity
 277 ω_{sat} (arcsec s⁻¹), and the exposure time t_{exp} (s):

$$\mu_{\text{sat}} = m_{\text{sat}} - 2.5 \log_{10} \left(\frac{4}{\pi \theta_{\text{sat}} \omega_{\text{sat}} t_{\text{exp}}} \right). \quad (3)$$

278 4 Discussion

279 Mitigation is only possible after careful quantification. Our results show that astro-
 280 nomical images from current and new generation space telescopes will be contaminated
 281 by light reflected from telecommunication satellite mega-constellations in low Earth
 282 orbit. If all proposed satellite constellations are completed, we forecast that 94%
 283 of the exposures of SPHEREx, ARRAKIHS, and *Xuntian* will present at least one
 284 Sun-illuminated satellite trail, as well as one fourth of all *Hubble* exposures. The aver-
 285 age number of satellite trails per typical exposure in would range from $5.9^{+0.6}_{-0.6}$ for
 286 SPHEREx, to more than 32^{+17}_{-13} in ARRAKIHS. At the lowest orbit altitude, *Xun-*
 287 *tian* Space Telescope will be the most affected, with 86^{+20}_{-19} satellite trails per average
 288 exposure. One of every four exposures obtained with *Hubble* Space telescope will
 289 show contamination by satellite trails. The expected surface brightness of the Sun-
 290 illuminated satellite trails – confirmed by *Hubble* observations – range from $\mu = 16$ to
 291 22 mag arcsec⁻², placing them orders of magnitude above the detectability limit.

292 In the Astro2020 Decadal Survey [28], the National Academy of Science states that
 293 *satellite constellations pose a parallel threat to the radio sky as to ground-based optical*
 294 *telescopes*. Expanding on this concern, the forecast presented here demonstrates that
 295 the threat is not limited to ground-based telescopes but extends to all LEO space tele-
 296 scopes. While analytical approximations can be obtained for certain orbits, the actual
 297 number of satellite trails may depend on mission-dependent factors including the sur-
 298 vey design, exposure times, and the characteristics of the orbit of the observatory. In
 299 this paper, we estimate the number of satellite trails that cross the field of view of a
 300 set of observatories representing a range of orbital scenarios. This study complements
 301 similar tools created for ground-based telescopes [29, 30], and provides contamination
 302 level predictions for future and present space missions.

303 4.1 Future milestones and requirements

304 The International Astronomical Union Center for the Protection of the Dark and
 305 Quiet Sky⁹ (February 2024) published a consolidated list of recommendations to
 306 satellite operators, manufacturers, and industry partners to minimize the impact
 307 of mega-constellations in astronomy¹⁰. These recommendations include 1) limiting
 308 the reflectivity of satellites, 2) minimize high-amplitude flares caused by orientation
 309 changes, 3) support an observing network to characterize the light contamination from
 310 satellites, and 4) perform bi-directional reflectance distribution function tests on the

⁹IAU CPS: <https://cps.iau.org/>
¹⁰CPS Consolidated recommendations: <https://cps.iau.org/documents/44/Consolidated-CPS-Recommendations.pdf>

311 surfaces of spacecraft, and share their properties with the astronomical community. In
312 addition to these items, we emphasize the need for:

- 313 1. *Enabling prevention*: Identifying an optimal upper limit for the orbits of large
314 satellite constellations, above which space telescopes can operate minimizing
315 interference.
- 316 2. *Enabling avoidance*: Maintain an updated and historic open archive of live orbital
317 solutions for each active and derelict spacecraft and potential debris associated with
318 them, as well as equivalent cross sections and attitude angles.
- 319 3. *Enabling correction*: Higher precision orbital solutions. Orbital elements must be
320 as precise as possible to enable prediction and avoidance of satellite trails. For
321 reference, for the average *Hubble*–satellite distance in our simulations ($d_{\text{sat}} = 1500$
322 km) the orbital solution must be precise up to 3.5 cm to identify the trail with
323 a 0.05 arcsec resolution. In contrast, the precision of the widely used TLE orbit
324 propagation format is one kilometer [31].

325 LEO space telescopes are sensitive to satellites not only above, but also below
326 their orbit altitude, depending on the Earth limb avoidance angle. In fact, CHEOPS
327 ($h = 700$ km) observations have already been affected by satellite trails from satellites
328 located at ~ 540 km [32]. Nevertheless, satellite constellations at lower orbits interfere
329 less with the operations of all types of telescopes, since they are shadowed by the Earth
330 for a longer period of time, rendering them virtually invisible even if illuminated by the
331 full Moon (see Sec. 2). Limiting the satellite constellations to orbits lower than those
332 of space telescopes is a promising method to prevent interference with astronomy.
333 However, other potential implications of lower orbit satellite constellations must be
334 considered, though. For example, it has been observed that the continuous reentries of
335 satellites increase the amount of aluminum oxide nanoparticles in Earth’s stratosphere,
336 potentially depleting the ozone layer as the number of satellite constellations increase
337 [33], and generating atmospheric temperature anomalies up to 1.5°C [34]. Placing
338 satellite mega-constellations at extremely low orbits would increase atmospheric drag
339 and increase the rate at which the satellites would burn up in reentry. It is therefore
340 critical to designate safe and limited orbit layers for a sustainable use of space.

341 The brightness, and therefore the detectability, of satellites strongly depends on
342 the relative orientation of the satellites with respect to the observer and the Sun.
343 *Starlink* satellite orientation following launch is in an "open-book" orientation, with
344 major axis of the satellite parallel to the ground to minimize drag during thrusting
345 and orbital rising¹¹. This open-book orientation maximizes the observed reflective
346 surface for ground-based observatories, making them brighter. Upon achieving nominal
347 orbit – and as part of the mitigation measures already applied by the industry –
348 the satellites switch to an orientation that is perpendicular to the ground ("shark-
349 fin") to minimize solar reflection to ground-based observers. However, this orientation
350 increases the cross-section from the point of view of a LEO space telescope. Due to
351 the solar panels’ Sun-facing orientation, a space telescope pointing away from the Sun
352 can easily receive the reflected light from the solar-panels [32]. In addition, mitigation

¹¹Starlink presentation on AAS 2021: <https://aas.org/sites/default/files/2020-06/SpaceX%20for%20SIA%20AAS%20Astronomy%20Webinar%205.26.20.pdf>

353 plans based on attitude control depend on the end-of-life operations. As satellites
354 become non operational, they might lose attitude control, tumbling, and reaching
355 angles where more light than originally intended reach the telescopes, increasing the
356 complexity of the satellite trails, making their potential correction more challenging
357 or even impossible. Detailed de-orbit plans and enforcement policies are critical.

358 We are witnessing the beginning of a new era of widespread industrial exploitation
359 of LEO, with an expected 20 to 100-fold increase on the number of artificial satellites.
360 Reminiscent of the first reports on the effects of human-emitted chlorofluorocarbons
361 (CFCs) and their depleting effect for the ozone layer in Earth’s stratosphere [35]
362 that led to the Montreal Protocol in 1980s, efforts to quantify the effects of satellite
363 mega-constellations are being outpaced by the industry. Our results demonstrate that
364 contrary to the popular belief, space-telescopes are not immune to the light contami-
365 nation reflected by artificial satellites. We predict that tens (SPHEREx, ARRAKIHS)
366 to hundreds (*Xuntian*) of satellite trails will appear on astronomical images of LEO
367 space telescopes if the announced satellite constellations become operational. We pro-
368 pose a series of mitigation measures that can be applied to prevent, avoid, and correct
369 the unwanted effect of satellite trails in space telescopes, enabling a responsible use of
370 the Low Earth Orbit for both science and industry.

371 **Supplementary information.** The *Hubble* WFC3/UVIS observations analyzed in
372 Sec.2.2 can be accessed via the following Digital Object Identifier doi: [10.17909/ta6d-
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380 **Declarations**

381 **4.2 Funding**

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385 **4.3 Conflict of interest/Competing interests**

386 The authors declare no competing interests.

387 **4.4 Ethics approval and consent to participate**

388 Not applicable

389 **4.5 Consent for publication**

390 All authors have approved the manuscript and the required declarations by the journal,
391 agreeing with its submission to *Nature*.

392 **4.6 Data availability**

393 **4.7 Materials availability**

394 **4.8 Code availability**

395 This work makes use of `Skyfield` [24], an open-source software to compute the posi-
396 tions for the stars, planets, and satellites in orbit around the Earth. `Skyfield`, and
397 the analysis tools used in this work were programmed in `Python`.

398 **4.9 Author contribution**

399 A. B. led the analysis and writing of the paper. P. M. oversaw the project progress,
400 assisted with the interpretation of the results and design of the analysis, preparation
401 of the manuscript, and managed the funding to support the project. S. H. assisted
402 with the interpretation of the results and the preparation of the manuscript.

5 Supplementary information

Table 1 Planned satellite mega-constellations (March 14, 2025)

Name	State	Version	Layers	Altitude	First launch	Launched	Planned
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5) [km]	(6) [year]	(7)	(8)
<i>SferaCon</i>	<i>Russia</i>		1	8070	2022	2	640
<i>Telesat</i>	<i>Canada</i>		3	1315 – 1335	–	–	300
<i>One Web</i>	<i>USA</i>	<i>P1</i>	2	1200	2019	660	716
		<i>P2</i>	3	1200	–	–	6372
<i>HVNET</i>	<i>USA</i>		1	1150	–	–	1440
<i>Xingwang</i>	<i>China</i>		5	860 – 1150	2021	36	966
<i>Guangwang</i>	<i>China</i>		7	508 – 1145	–	–	12,992
<i>Hongyan</i>	<i>China</i>		1	1100	2018	1	320
<i>Hongyun</i>	<i>China</i>		1	1075	2017	1	80
<i>KLEO</i>	<i>Denmark</i>		1	1050	2019	4	300
<i>Ningxia</i>	<i>China</i>		1	865	2019	10	50
<i>SpinLaunch</i>	<i>USA</i>		1	830	–	–	1190
<i>Qianfan</i>	<i>China</i>		1	806	2024	90	32
<i>Bluewalker</i>	<i>USA</i>		1	735	219	5	243
<i>Astra</i>	<i>USA</i>		6	380 – 700	–	–	13,620
<i>Globalstar3</i>	<i>Germany</i>		5	485 – 700	–	–	3080
----- <i>SPHEREx</i> (650 km) -----							
<i>Cinnamon-937</i>	<i>USA</i>		28	528 – 638	2022	4	337,323
<i>Kuiper</i>	<i>USA</i>		3	590 – 630	2023	2	3232
		<i>G1</i>	5	488 – 570	2018	4714	6736
<i>Starlink</i>	<i>USA</i>	<i>G2.1</i>	3	523 – 535	2022	3357	10,000
		<i>G2.2</i>	9	340 – 614	–	–	30,436
<i>Semaphore</i>	<i>France</i>		21	415 – 600	–	–	116,640
<i>Starshield</i>	<i>USA</i>		1	578	2022	138	32
----- <i>Hubble</i> Space Telescope (540 km) -----							
<i>Honghu-3</i>	<i>China</i>		6	340 – 550	–	–	10,000
<i>Rassvet</i>	<i>Russia</i>		1	550	2023	6	900
<i>Yinhe</i>	<i>China</i>		1	511	2020	8	1000
<i>Lynk</i>	<i>USA</i>		1	500	2020	10	2000
<i>Hanwha</i>	<i>China</i>		1	500	–	–	2000
----- <i>Xuntian</i> Space Telescope (CSST, 450 km) -----							
<i>Total</i>				340 – 8070	–	9048	562,640

Properties of present and future satellite telecommunication constellations. Col.(1) Name; Col.(2) Country; Col.(3) Constellation version; Col.(4) Number of satellite layers; Col.(5) Range (in km) of satellite orbital altitude; Col.(6) Year of first launch; Col.(7) Total number of satellites launched (as of March 14, 2025); Col.(8) Total number of satellites planned. Reference: Jonathan McDowell mega-constellation database: <https://planet4589.org/index.html>.

Table 2 Specification of Low Earth Orbit telescopes

Name	Operator	h	i	λ	Exp. time	FOV	Δx
(1)	(2) [year]	(3) [km]	(4) [degree]	(5) [μm]	(6) [s]	(7) [degree ²]	(8) [arcsec]
<i>Hubble</i>	NASA/ESA	540	28.47	0.2 – 1.6	540 ± 370	3.1×10^{-3}	0.05
<i>SPHEREx</i>	NASA	650	97	0.7 – 5	112.5	39.5	6.2
<i>Xuntian</i>	CSA	450	41.47	0.2 – 1.7	100 - 500	1.2	0.073
<i>ARRAKIHS</i>	ESA	650 - 800	TBD	0.3 – 1.6	600	1.4	~ 1.5

Properties of the considered space telescopes. Col.(1) Name; Col.(2) Operator; Col.(3) Launch date (* = planned); Col.(4) Telescope orbital altitude (in km); Col.(5) Telescope orbital inclination (in degrees); Col.(6) Spectral window of sensitivity (μm); Col.(7) Field of view (in degrees²); Col.(8) Spatial resolution (in arcsec). Note: ARRAKIHS is a planned ESA F-class mission proposal. The parameters shown here represent published proposed configurations [19, 20] and they are subject to potential changes.

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