

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.38035/gijlss.v4i4><https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

Received: 12 May 2026 | Revised: 19 May 2026 | Accepted: 22 September 2026

Dispute Resolution in E-Commerce Through Online Arbitration in Indonesia and India: Adapting EU Regulations

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Abstract: This study explores the regulatory frameworks for online arbitration in resolving E-Commerce disputes in Indonesia and India, drawing comparisons with the European Union's legal instruments. The rapid growth of E-Commerce in both countries has highlighted the need for effective and efficient dispute resolution mechanisms, especially given the limitations of traditional litigation. The research aims to identify the gaps in Indonesia and India's legal systems regarding Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) and to evaluate the potential adoption of the EU's established principles to improve arbitration processes in these countries. The study utilizes a normative legal research methodology, with a focus on legislative, conceptual, and comparative approaches. Findings show that while both Indonesia and India have made strides in addressing E-Commerce disputes, they still face challenges such as the absence of specific ODR regulations, the lack of integrated ODR platforms, and the absence of cross-jurisdictional recognition of arbitration awards. In contrast, the European Union has developed a comprehensive ODR framework, especially through Regulation (EU) No 524/2013 and Directive 2013/11/EU, which provides a valuable model for Indonesia and India. By adopting these principles, both countries can strengthen their legal frameworks and institutional structures, ensuring quicker, cost-effective, and transparent dispute resolution for E-Commerce transactions.

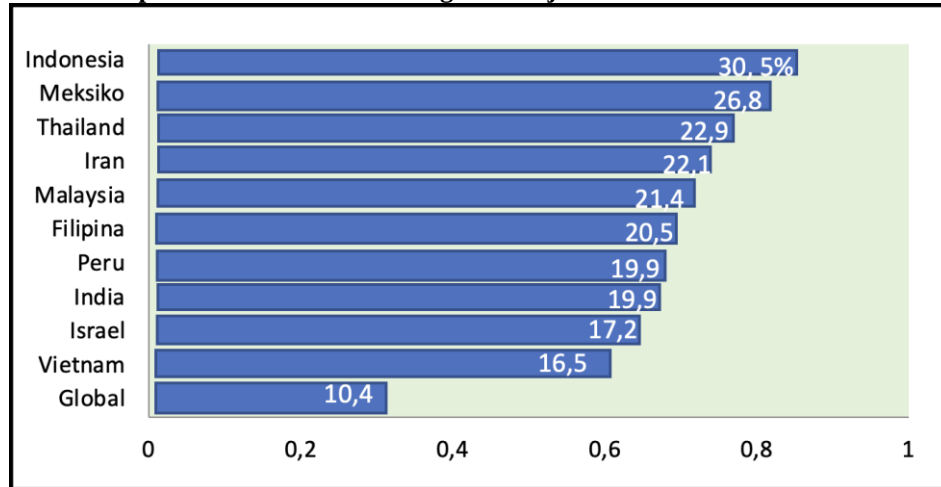
Keywords: Online Arbitration, E-Commerce Disputes, Online Dispute Resolution (ODR), Legal Frameworks, Comparative Analysis.

INTRODUCTION

The advancement of information and communication technology has transformed human life across various sectors, especially in the shift from traditional commerce to modern trade, which is conducted without face-to-face interactions, known as E-Commerce (Iswara, 2021). Since the 1960s, E-Commerce systems have rapidly evolved in the current digital era through various digital platforms (Aziz & Hidayah, 2020). According to the United Nations (UN), E-Commerce can be simply defined as the production, advertising, sale, and

distribution of products through telecommunication networks (Santoso, 2020). In Indonesia, E-Commerce is predicted to grow by 30.5%, reflecting its significant role in the modern economy compared to nine other countries, as shown in Grafik 1:

Chart 1. Top 10 Countries with the Highest Projected E-Commerce Growth in 2024



Source: Yonathan, 2024

According to the 2024 global E-Commerce market report by eCBD, global E-Commerce growth is projected to reach 10.4% in 2024 (Octavo & Gunadi, 2024). Indonesia stands out as the country with the highest E-Commerce growth in the world, reaching 30.5% above the global average. Mexico ranks second with 26.8% growth, followed by Thailand (22.9%), Iran (22.1%), and Malaysia (21.4%) (Ilmawan et al., 2024). The report highlights that most countries with the highest E-Commerce growth are in Asia, with eight out of the top ten countries coming from the continent (Yonatan, 2024). The data on the development of E-Commerce globally not only reflects technological progress but also demonstrates a shift in consumer behavior, increasingly relying on digital platforms for transactions (Kinanti et al., 2023). With wider internet access and the growing use of digital technology, many consumers in the digital era prefer the convenience of shopping remotely (Khairani & Pratiwi, 2018).

One of the widely used E-Commerce digital platforms by consumers for online (Astuti & Subandiah, 2021) shopping is TikTok Shop (Nurhasanah et al., 2023). The TikTok Shop platform officially entered Indonesia on April 17, 2021, after receiving official approval from the government to operate in the social media and online shopping sector (Gugule & Mesra, 2022). Although the platform was briefly blocked by the Ministry of Communication and Information from July 3 to July 10, 2018, TikTok Shop resumed operations in Indonesia, currently having 30.7 million users (Astuti & Subandiah, 2021). In addition to being an entertainment medium, TikTok also provides a dedicated page for managing digital stores (businesses) and organizing products to be sold via E-Commerce (Fathni et al., 2023). Through the TikTok platform, sellers and buyers can communicate directly to transact (Muslim et al., 2023).

The high number of consumers on TikTok has led to various issues in transactions, such as disagreements in commission payments, product discrepancies upon delivery, and violations related to consumer protection and affiliate rights (Ernanto & Hermawan, 2022). Therefore, the relationship between affiliates and sellers is considered a legal bond because it is based on an electronic contract. If one party violates or neglects the terms of the agreement, that party will be legally responsible for resolving the issues that arise. Disputes in business or civil contexts, such as those occurring on the TikTok platform, can be resolved through

general courts or alternative dispute resolution methods, such as online arbitration, which offers a faster and more confidential process (Fathurrahman & Husna, 2023).

The regulation of online arbitration in Indonesia, India, and the European Union shows a gap between the legal reality (*das sein*) and the ideal legal norms (*das sollen*) (Santoso, 2020). In Indonesia, the implementation of online arbitration is still constrained by the lack of specific regulations governing Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) (Nur et al., 2024). Although Law No. 30 of 1999 concerning Arbitration and Law No. 1 of 2024 on the Second Amendment of Law No. 11 of 2008 on Information and Electronic Transactions (ITE Law) provides a framework, specific ODR regulations to build trust in E-Commerce business are still unavailable (Udpa, 2022a). To date, arbitration is conducted through the Indonesian National Arbitration Board (BANI), but online arbitration has not been fully implemented due to the lack of a dedicated platform for online arbitration (Indrani & Hadi, 2017).

In contrast, India also shares similar legal regulations with Indonesia regarding the requirements for online arbitration, which stipulate that the arbitration agreement must be in writing and acknowledge documents and electronic signatures (Fathurrahman & Husna, 2023). However, there are legal gaps and inconsistencies in the regulations, especially when compared to the European Union, which has developed a comprehensive legal framework through Online Dispute Resolution (ODR) mechanisms and integrated consumer protection policies (Prasetyaji et al., 2024). Although India has adopted the UNCITRAL Model Law, which provides a clear legal framework for international arbitration, it still faces challenges in digital infrastructure, with uneven access to technology for online arbitration (Kurnia & Yasarman, 2024).

This gap underscores the need for further steps in India to improve digital infrastructure and provide training for legal practitioners so that online arbitration can be more effective (Saputro et al., 2022). Previous research by Nikam and Singh (2022) found that the effectiveness of ODR is structurally and technically hindered, thus requiring legal amendments and specific guidelines to support its implementation (Nikam & Singh, 2022). Additionally, research by Iswara (2021) found the importance of implementing ODR in Indonesia, particularly for E-Commerce. ODR helps resolve E-Commerce disputes quickly, affordably, and without physical meetings. The four forms of ODR include Online Settlement, Arbitration, Resolution, and Mediation. However, challenges include technology, access, and data security. The legal framework exists, but specific regulations are still needed (Iswara, 2021). Meanwhile, Buhuri's (2024) research suggests that international electronic arbitration holds potential for efficiency but still requires procedural standardization and cross-jurisdictional recognition (Buhuri, 2024). Research by Wicaksono et al. (2022) also highlights regulatory and access barriers in resolving international e-commerce trade disputes, emphasizing the need for an inclusive, standardized, and cross-border ODR mechanism (Wicaksono et al., 2022). Lastly, Riyadus Solikin (2023) stresses the importance of ODR in Indonesia, particularly in regulatory, institutional, and technological aspects (Solikhin, 2023). Unlike previous studies, this research provides novelty through in-depth comparative analysis of E-Commerce dispute resolution by comparing online arbitration frameworks in Indonesia, India, and the European Union. These countries were chosen for comparison due to their differing legal systems and regulatory approaches, allowing the identification of best practices. Indonesia, with its rapidly growing E-Commerce sector but lacking specific online arbitration regulations, serves as an example to explore the improvement of the legal system. India, despite having a more progressive legal framework, still faces challenges in digital infrastructure. Meanwhile, the European Union offers a more advanced and integrated regulatory model through the ODR mechanism, serving as an ideal reference for Indonesia and India in developing a more effective and responsive online

arbitration system. This study provides strategic recommendations for enhancing the effectiveness and efficiency of online arbitration in Indonesia and India.

This research contributes significantly both theoretically and practically. Theoretically, it advances the understanding of online arbitration regulations within the context of E-Commerce, comparing the regulations in Indonesia, India, and the European Union. It enriches the existing literature on digital dispute resolution mechanisms and offers insights into the regulatory adaptations needed to create a system more responsive to market needs. Practically, the findings offer concrete recommendations for policymakers and legal practitioners in formulating policies that can improve the effectiveness of online arbitration and consumer protection, as well as foster collaboration between Indonesia, India, and the European Union in developing ODR infrastructure and regulations. However, this research has some limitations, including using secondary data that may not fully reflect the current situation on the ground, and the focus is limited to three countries, which may not encompass perspectives from other nations with different approaches to E-Commerce dispute resolution.

METHOD

This research employs a normative legal research method aimed at analyzing the applicable norms within the legal system related to the resolution of E-Commerce disputes through online arbitration in Indonesia and India, as well as the adaptation of regulations from the European Union. This method was chosen because it aligns with the nature of the research, which compares legal frameworks related to E-Commerce dispute resolution in Indonesia and India (Disemadi, 2022). The analytical approaches used in this study include the legislative approach, the conceptual approach, and the comparative approach. The research refers to secondary data, including primary legal materials such as relevant laws and regulations, including Law No. 30 of 1999 concerning Arbitration and Alternative Dispute Resolution, and Law No. 1 of 2024 regarding the Second Amendment to Law No. 11 of 2008 on Information and Electronic Transactions (ITE Law). In India, regulations such as The Arbitration and Conciliation Act (1996), The Information Technology Act (2000), The Consumer Protection (E-Commerce) Rules (2020) are referenced, while regulations in the European Union, such as Directive 2013/11/EU, Regulation (EU) No 910/2014 (eIDAS), and Regulation (EU) No 524/2013, are also considered.

These regulations are analyzed to determine how online arbitration regulations are applied in these jurisdictions (Tan, 2021). The second source of data comes from secondary legal materials, including academic journals, previous research findings, and reports from institutions discussing online arbitration law, E-Commerce dispute resolution mechanisms, and the development of related regulations. Data collection is carried out through library research (literature review), examining various legal documents and relevant academic literature (Arliman S, 2018). The data obtained is then analyzed using qualitative methods with a descriptive-analytical approach, where the studied regulations and legal concepts are systematically outlined, compared, and aligned with the needs for the development of the online arbitration system in Indonesia and India.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Comparison of E-Commerce Dispute Resolution Regulations Through Online Arbitration in Indonesia, India, and the European Union

In the digital era, E-Commerce has become increasingly popular due to its efficiency and has become an integral part of both national and global trade activities (Sugara & Az-Zahra, 2024). The development of E-Commerce in Indonesia and India has surged in recent years, driven by the growing use of the internet, advancements in digital technology, and changing consumer preferences (Nida et al., 2024). In Indonesia, the E-Commerce sector has

grown rapidly with platforms like Tokopedia, Shopee, and Bukalapak dominating the market. Similarly, India has seen similar growth with platforms like Flipkart and Amazon India. However, alongside these advancements, new challenges have emerged, particularly the potential for digital disputes between consumers, merchants, and service providers, which are increasing (D. Sulistianingsih et al., 2023). E-Commerce disputes are related to product quality issues, transaction problems, return policies, and data privacy protection (Prihadiati, 2022).

E-Commerce disputes have unique characteristics compared to conventional business disputes (Mayce et al., 2023). One of the main features is that transactions are conducted online, without physical interaction between the parties involved. Additionally, E-Commerce disputes often involve multiple jurisdictions because platforms operate across national borders (Yulianingsih & Putra, 2024). Another challenge is the need for the legal recognition of digital evidence and the requirement for a fast, cost-effective resolution mechanism. As a result, online arbitration has emerged as an alternative solution for resolving disputes in the E-Commerce domain (Zakaria, 2024). Conventional dispute resolution through courts is often considered inefficient due to its lengthy process, high costs, and complex procedures (Chaniago et al., 2025). Therefore, many countries, including Indonesia, India, and European Union member states, have begun adopting alternative dispute resolution mechanisms, with online arbitration being one of the key methods (Nugroho, 2024).

Online arbitration is an alternative dispute resolution method that utilizes digital technology from the initial submission to the final decision (Yasarman, 2024). It offers a faster, more flexible, and more efficient solution compared to traditional litigation, especially in the context of cross-border electronic commerce (Bintang & Sumanto, 2024). The fundamental principles of online arbitration still adhere to conventional arbitration principles, such as fairness, procedural justice, and the finality of decisions. However, online arbitration has the advantage of time and cost efficiency because the process is conducted electronically, without the need for physical meetings between the parties and the arbitrator (Yu et al., 2021). Additionally, online arbitration also utilizes encryption technology and digital signatures to ensure the security and validity of documents and decisions (Wicaksono et al., 2022). Several countries, including Indonesia, India, and the European Union, have implemented online arbitration within their jurisdictions. Below is a comparison of the online arbitration regulations in the three regions (Table 1):

Table 1. Comparison of Online Arbitration Regulations in Indonesia, India, and the European Union

Aspect	Indonesia	India	European Union
Legal Basis for Arbitration	Has been established (Law No. 30/1999 on Arbitration)	Has been established (The Arbitration and Conciliation Act, 1996)	Has been established (Directive 2013/11/EU)
Recognition of Electronic Evidence	Regulated by Law No. 1 of 2024 on Amendments to Law No. 11 of 2008 (ITE Law). Electronic evidence is recognized as valid and equivalent to conventional evidence, as long as it is accessible and guaranteed for integrity (Article 5(1) and (2) of the ITE Law)	Regulated by The Information Technology Act, 2000. Electronic data and signatures have legal validity like physical documents in digital transactions (Section 4 of The Information Technology Act, 2000)	Regulated by Regulation (EU) No. 910/2014 (eIDAS). Electronic signatures and digital identities across EU member states have legal validity (Article 25(1) and (2) Regulation (EU) No. 910/2014 (eIDAS Regulation))
Specific E-Commerce Dispute Resolution Regulations	Not specifically regulated	The Consumer Protection E-Commerce Rules, 2020	Regulation (EU) No 524/2013

Obligation of E-Commerce Providers to Provide ODR	No explicit provision (Pujiono & Sulistianingsih, 2023)	Required for large platforms (The Consumer Protection E-Commerce Rules, 2020)	Mandated by EU law (Regulation (EU) No 524/2013)
Official Online Dispute Resolution Platform	Not available (Willem & Rajab, 2024)	Not available (Nikam & Singh, 2022)	European ODR Platform (Regulation (EU) No 524/2013)
Online Arbitration Institutions	Indonesian National Arbitration Board (BANI) (Udpa, 2022b)	IIAC (India International Arbitration Centre), MIAC (Mumbai IAC), startup ODR platforms such as CADRE, SAMA, CODR, E-Daakhil (Solikhin, 2023)	European ODR Platform, ADR entities certified under Directive 2013/11/EU (Rahman et al., 2024)
Recognition of Online Arbitration Awards	Depends on the agreement (Heriyanto et al., 2023)	Legally recognized (Sopang & Maysarah, 2024)	Binding EU standards (Nikam & Singh, 2022)

Source: Researcher's Analysis, 2026

This table provides a snapshot of the key regulatory aspects of online arbitration in Indonesia, India, and the European Union. While each jurisdiction has made strides in adapting their legal frameworks to accommodate online arbitration, there are notable differences in the specifics of their regulations, obligations for E-Commerce providers, and the infrastructure for resolving disputes online.

Analysis of Similarities

Based on the comparative analysis of online arbitration regulations in Indonesia, India, and the European Union, there are fundamental similarities in terms of the legal foundations for arbitration as an alternative dispute resolution mechanism. Indonesia has established a legal basis for arbitration through Law No. 30 of 1999 on Arbitration and Alternative Dispute Resolution. This law provides comprehensive regulations on dispute resolution through arbitration, from provisions on arbitration agreements in Articles 3 to 7, arbitration procedures in Articles 27 to 36, and the recognition and enforcement of international arbitral awards as outlined in Articles 65 and 66 (Azizah et al., 2023). On the other hand, India has similarly regulated arbitration through The Arbitration and Conciliation Act, 1996, which includes provisions in Section 4 (waiver of right to object), Section 7 (arbitration agreement), Section 11-13 (appointment of arbitrator), Section 19 (flexible procedures), Section 29A (turnaround time), and Section 34 (annulment of arbitral award). The Arbitration and Conciliation Act, 1996 has undergone several amendments to adapt to technological advancements, particularly through The Information Technology Act, 2000, especially in Sections 4–10A (recognition of electronic documents and electronic signatures), and Sections 66C–66D (electronic transaction security) (Sopang & Maysarah, 2024). In the European Union, the legal foundation for online arbitration is governed by Directive 2013/11/EU, which generally regulates alternative dispute resolution (ADR), including arbitration for consumer disputes in Articles 1–2 (ADR coverage), Articles 5–10 (ADR institution requirements), Articles 13–14 (information to consumers), and Regulation (EU) No 910/2014 (eIDAS) in Article 3 (definition of electronic signature), Article 25 (legal force of electronic signature), and Articles 26–28 (technical requirements of electronic signature) as part of the alternative dispute resolution mechanism (Onțanu, 2023).

Recognition of electronic evidence as part of the arbitration process is also regulated in the three jurisdictions. In Indonesia, this regulation is contained in the ITE Law. The ITE

Law recognizes electronic documents as valid evidence in Article 5, while the legality of electronic documents as evidence is outlined in Article 6. The use of electronic signatures is discussed in Articles 11 to 13, and Article 15 governs the implementation of reliable and secure electronic systems. In India, electronic evidence recognition is based on The Information Technology Act, 2000, particularly in Sections 4–10A (recognition of electronic documents and electronic signatures), and Sections 66C–66D (electronic transaction security). Meanwhile, the European Union sets legal standards through Regulation (EU) No 910/2014, known as the eIDAS Regulation, which establishes the legal force of qualified electronic signatures and their recognition across EU member states.

Analysis of Differences

While Indonesia, India, and the European Union all have formal legal foundations regulating arbitration as a dispute resolution mechanism, there are significant differences in the orientation of the regulations, especially in addressing the development of digital commerce. In Indonesia, Law No. 30 of 1999 is still focused on conventional business disputes and has not accommodated digital mechanisms, as it was drafted before the information technology era. This is reflected in the provision of Article 1(1), which mentions "written agreements," which at that time were interpreted as physical documents. Additionally, there is no regulation regarding the use of digital media, electronic documents, or online dispute resolution. Although it does not explicitly reject online arbitration, the absence of such regulation indicates that the law is not yet responsive to the need for cross-border E-Commerce dispute resolution.

This contrasts with India, which, despite using relatively old legislation (The Arbitration and Conciliation Act, 1996), has undergone periodic amendments to make the law more responsive to digital challenges. The 2015 amendment introduced Section 29B, which regulates fast-track arbitration procedures with more efficient and flexible processes, including the use of electronic means such as virtual hearings and digital documents. The 2019 amendment, through Section 11(3A), strengthened the institutional framework by granting authority to the Supreme Court and High Courts to designate official arbitration institutions, thus opening opportunities for online arbitration based on technology. With these amendments, India has a legal framework that specifically supports online arbitration, making it more responsive and adaptive to the dynamics of dispute resolution in the digital era.

In contrast, the European Union applies a systematic and proactive legal approach to online arbitration by integrating it into the cross-border digital consumer protection framework through Directive 2013/11/EU and Regulation (EU) No 524/2013. In Article 5(1) of Directive 2013/11/EU, member states are required to provide access to qualified Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) entities. Meanwhile, Article 5(1) of Regulation 524/2013 mandates online traders to provide a link to the EU ODR platform, and Article 7(1) establishes the obligation for the European Commission to operate an online dispute resolution platform accessible by consumers and traders. These provisions indicate that the EU not only recognizes online arbitration but also actively requires and facilitates it as part of cross-jurisdictional consumer protection.

Apart from differences in the legal foundation for arbitration, the three jurisdictions—Indonesia, India, and the European Union—also show significant variations in the regulation and recognition of electronic evidence, a key component in digital dispute resolution. While Indonesia, through the ITE Law, has normatively recognized the validity of electronic documents and information as legal evidence, the implementation of this regulation still faces technical and institutional challenges. According to Articles 5(1) and (2) of the ITE Law, electronic information and documents, or their printed versions, are legally valid evidence as

long as they can be accessed, displayed, guaranteed for integrity, and held accountable. However, this recognition is not fully supported by a nationally standardized digital authentication system. For example, not all platforms use digital certificates from electronic certification providers recognized by the government (Evan & Syailendra, 2023). Furthermore, despite Article 11 of the ITE Law stating that electronic signatures have legal validity, its implementation in society is still misunderstood because it is often equated with scanned or photographed signatures, which do not meet the requirements of a digital signature under the law. Additionally, the lack of forensic digital infrastructure, such as metadata analysis and transaction trail analysis, further hinders the evaluation of the integrity of digital documents in legal proof contexts.

In comparison, India, through The Information Technology Act, 2000 in Sections 4 and 5, has established that electronic information and signatures have the same legal force as their physical counterparts, as long as they comply with the technical requirements set by the government. Meanwhile, the European Union, through Regulation (EU) No. 910/2014 or the eIDAS Regulation, has regulated that qualified electronic signatures have the same legal force as handwritten signatures, and cannot be denied validity merely because they are electronic or do not meet certain standards (eIDAS Regulation, 2014, Article 25). Therefore, while Indonesia has a legal foundation related to electronic evidence, its supporting systems are not as comprehensive as the legal frameworks in the EU or India, particularly in terms of interoperability, digital validation, and technological infrastructure readiness.

A further significant difference lies in the context of E-Commerce dispute resolution. Indonesia does not yet have specific regulations that explicitly address online arbitration for the sector. In contrast, India has issued The Consumer Protection (E-Commerce) Rules, 2020, which include specific provisions on online dispute resolution, such as Rule 4(5) (transparency of dispute resolution) and Rule 5(3)(b) (ODR facility) (Septiana et al., 2024). The European Union is even more advanced in this regard, with Regulation (EU) No. 524/2013, which was specifically designed for online consumer dispute resolution. This regulation includes provisions on the establishment of ODR platforms in Article 5, platform functions and procedures in Articles 7–9, and mandatory information for traders about ODR in Article 14, requiring online traders to inform consumers about the availability of ODR (Kinanti et al., 2023).

The obligation for E-Commerce providers to provide access to online dispute resolution mechanisms also shows policy differences between the countries. In Indonesia, there is still no explicit provision requiring E-Commerce providers to offer standardized ODR mechanisms for consumers (P. dan D. Sulistianingsih, 2023). In contrast, India has already established this obligation for large platforms under The Consumer Protection (E-Commerce) Rules, 2020 (Kinanti et al., 2023). The European Union explicitly mandates that all businesses in the E-Commerce sector provide access to consumers to an ODR platform as part of the implementation of binding regional regulations (Onțanu, 2023).

Regarding the availability of official online dispute resolution platforms, both Indonesia and India lack nationally facilitated ODR platforms. In practice, dispute resolution in both countries still relies on private institutions or sectoral initiatives (Nikam & Singh, 2022; Willem & Rajab, 2024).. Meanwhile, the European Union has developed the European ODR Platform, an official system that allows consumers and traders from member countries to resolve disputes online in the context of cross-border trade (Susilowati et al., 2025).

Finally, regarding institutional aspects of online arbitration in Indonesia, India, and the European Union, the levels of development differ significantly. Indonesia does not yet have an online arbitration institution that provides end-to-end dispute resolution processes, from submission to award, within a legally recognized national system. Thus, access to digital-based E-Commerce arbitration is still limited. India has several ODR platforms such as

CADRE, SAMA, MIAC, and E-Daakhil, but these institutions are still fragmented, not standardized nationally, and lack a binding federal regulatory framework (Solikhin, 2023). In contrast, the European Union has established the European ODR Platform as a cross-border integrated system, supported by Directive 2013/11/EU and Regulation (EU) No. 524/2013, and backed by certified ADR entities operating digitally, independently, and legally within all member states' jurisdictions. This makes Europe a model of effective institutional integration in E-Commerce dispute resolution.

Lastly, in terms of the recognition of online arbitration awards, Indonesia still considers this to be part of the parties' agreement. This means that its implementation and recognition depend largely on the initial agreement in the arbitration contract and has not been specifically regulated for fully electronic arbitration (Heriyanto et al., 2023). In contrast, India recognizes the validity and legal provisions of online arbitration awards, especially through the synergy between The Arbitration and Conciliation Act, 1996 and The Information Technology Act, 2000. The European Union has established the recognition of online arbitration awards as a binding standard, making it a more integrated and efficient system for cross-border digital dispute resolution (Nikam & Singh, 2022). Based on the differences outlined above, the weaknesses of Indonesia and India regarding online arbitration compared to the European Union are summarized in the table below:

Table 2. Weaknesses of Indonesia and India Regarding Online Arbitration Compared to the European Union

Weakness Point	Weakness in Indonesia	Weakness in India
Lack of Specific Regulation for ODR	No specific regulation explicitly governing ODR/online arbitration for E-Commerce disputes; relies on the general Arbitration Law 30/1999 and ITE Law.	Has sectoral regulation through The Consumer Protection (E-Commerce) Rules, 2020, but no unified national arbitration framework.
Lack of Obligation for E-Commerce Providers to Provide ODR	No explicit provision requiring E-Commerce providers to offer standardized ODR mechanisms for consumers.	ODR facility obligation exists for large platforms under the Consumer Protection (E-Commerce) Rules, 2020, but implementation is not uniform.
No Official ODR Platform	No national official ODR platform facilitated by the government for consumer E-Commerce disputes or online arbitration.	No single national official ODR platform; existing mechanisms are fragmented (based on different institutions/actors) and lack a unified national framework.
Lack of Online Arbitration Institutions	Indonesia, through the Indonesian National Arbitration Board (BANI), does not provide a web-based online arbitration system.	India has several ODR platforms like CADRE, SAMA, MIAC, and E-Daakhil, but these are still fragmented and not fully integrated. (Yulianingsih & Putra, 2024)
Lack of Recognition of Online Arbitration Awards	The recognition of online arbitration awards depends on the parties' agreement and is not specifically regulated for fully electronic arbitration.	Online arbitration awards are implemented domestically through ODR platforms like CADRE, SAMA, CODR, and E-Daakhil, but cross-border recognition and enforcement are not explicitly regulated.

Source: Researcher's Analysis, 2026

Based on this comparison, Indonesia is weaker than India in terms of recognition and enforcement of online arbitration awards. Although India has not explicitly regulated the cross-border enforcement of online arbitration awards, its legal system shows higher domestic readiness through the existence of ODR platforms such as CADRE, SAMA, CODR, and E-Daakhil, along with established recognition of electronic evidence. This condition provides institutional and technical foundations for the implementation of online arbitration at the national level.

In contrast, Indonesia's weaknesses are structural, as the implementation of online arbitration awards is not only weak in cross-border contexts but also lacks legal certainty at the domestic level. The reliance on contractual clauses without specific regulatory support results in low guarantees for the validity and enforcement of online arbitration awards. Thus, while both countries face limitations in cross-jurisdictional aspects, India is relatively ahead as it has built a more mature domestic ODR ecosystem, while Indonesia is still in the early stages of forming a legal framework for online arbitration.

Normative Solutions for E-Commerce Dispute Resolution Through Online Arbitration in Indonesia and India Based on Lessons from the European Union

The rapid growth of E-commerce in Indonesia and India has had a positive impact on the digital economy, but it has also increased the potential for disputes between consumers, merchants, platform providers, and affiliates as actors within the electronic commerce ecosystem (Kurnia & Yasarman, 2024). In this context, conventional litigation for dispute resolution tends to be less adaptive, as it requires long durations, high costs, and rigid procedures, while E-Commerce disputes demand a mechanism that is fast, flexible, and efficient (Novriansyah & Usdeldi, 2024). Therefore, online arbitration, as part of Online Dispute Resolution (ODR), has emerged as a strategic alternative because it allows dispute resolution to be conducted digitally, from submission to decision, which aligns better with the fast and cross-border nature of electronic transactions. However, as discussed earlier, Indonesia and India still face several fundamental weaknesses in the implementation of online arbitration, particularly due to the lack of specific regulatory frameworks, inadequate institutional support, and the absence of an integrated official ODR platform, compared to the European Union, which has built a more advanced and systematic ODR regulatory system (Sopang & Maysarah, 2024).

The European Union has set high standards for E-Commerce dispute resolution by developing Regulation (EU) No 524/2013 on ODR for Consumer Disputes and Directive 2013/11/EU on Alternative Dispute Resolution (ADR) for Consumer Disputes (Indriyanie, 2024). These regulations ensure that consumers have easy access to out-of-court dispute resolution mechanisms through efficient official digital platforms (Kinanti et al., 2023). One of the EU's key innovations is the European ODR Platform, which offers an online dispute resolution mechanism under the supervision of competent and fair authorities. This model can be adopted by Indonesia and India to build more advanced online arbitration regulations that are responsive to the needs of the digital market (Nur et al., 2024).

Based on the comparative analysis of online arbitration law regarding E-Commerce dispute resolution in the European Union, there are several lessons that can be learned for Indonesia and India, as summarized in Table 3:

Table 3. Lessons for Indonesia and India from the European Union's Online Arbitration Practices

Aspect	Lessons for Indonesia	Lessons for India
Lack of Specific Regulation for ODR	Need to formulate specific regulations related to online E-Commerce dispute resolution. (Rusdiyanto et al., 2024)	Need to strengthen the effectiveness of the Consumer Protection E-Commerce Rules, 2020. (Sahatatus et al., 2024)
No Obligation for E-Commerce Providers to Provide ODR	Mandate all E-Commerce platforms to provide access to a national integrated ODR mechanism, as regulated by the European Union in Regulation (EU) No 524/2013. (Kurniawan, 2024)	Strengthen the obligation for large E-Commerce platforms to provide ODR linked to regulators and independent arbitration institutions. (Septiana et al., 2024)
No National ODR Platform	Need to build a national integrated ODR platform that is accessible to the public, similar to the European ODR Platform. (Yasarman, 2024)	Develop a national ODR platform that reaches all regions and addresses the digital access gap in rural areas. (Yasarman, 2024)

Lack of Online Arbitration Institutions	Encourage arbitration institutions like BANI to develop a web-based online arbitration system.	Integrate arbitration institutions and ODR in India into a more standardized and centralized national system.
No Recognition of Online Arbitration Awards	Formulate legal standards for the recognition of electronic arbitration awards that are legally valid and executable across jurisdictions, based on the EU model (Regulation (EU) No 524/2013).	Develop regulations that govern the recognition and enforcement of online arbitration awards at the international level.

Source: Researcher's Analysis, 2026

Based on the legal comparison regarding online arbitration as part of E-Commerce dispute resolution in the European Union, there are several key lessons for Indonesia and India. Indonesia needs to establish specific regulations governing online arbitration as part of E-Commerce dispute resolution (Rusdiyanto et al., 2024). Law No. 30 of 1999 on Arbitration and the ITE Law do not explicitly regulate online arbitration mechanisms in digital transactions (Prasetyaji et al., 2024b). To address this legal gap, the Indonesian government can create specific regulations for online E-Commerce dispute resolution, adopting the key principles from the EU model, such as requiring E-Commerce platform providers to offer access to a national integrated ODR mechanism and establishing a monitoring and evaluation system on a periodic basis (Kurniawan, 2024).

On the other hand, India already has The Arbitration and Conciliation Act, 1996 and The Consumer Protection (E-Commerce) Rules, 2020, which are more advanced than Indonesia's regulations in terms of E-Commerce dispute resolution (Sahatutua et al., 2024). However, India's online arbitration system still lacks an official and integrated national ODR platform like the one in the EU (Hutahaeen et al., 2024). India can improve this aspect by requiring large E-Commerce platforms, such as Amazon India and Flipkart, to provide direct access to an ODR mechanism connected to regulators and independent arbitration institutions (Septriana et al., 2024). This step is essential because research Nikam & Singh, 2022 indicates that ODR in India is still structurally and technically hindered, and therefore, practical guidelines and institutional design strengthening are necessary to make ODR more effective. Furthermore, an important lesson from the European Union is the obligation for businesses and E-Commerce platforms to provide out-of-court dispute resolution access for consumers as part of digital consumer protection. In this context, both Indonesia and India need to build norms requiring platform providers to offer accessible ODR mechanisms, including information systems, dispute submission procedures, and measurable dispute resolution standards through service level agreements (SLA). Such obligations would not only strengthen consumer protection but also enhance legal certainty and reduce reliance on conventional litigation. This model aligns with previous research emphasizing the importance of inclusive, standardized, and cross-border online dispute resolution mechanisms to maintain accountability for platforms in electronic commerce (Wicaksono et al., 2022).

Aside from regulations and platform obligations, an important issue for Indonesia and India is the lack of an official, legally recognized national ODR platform. In the European Union, the existence of the European ODR Platform proves that an ODR system needs a single online dispute resolution mechanism that is expansive so that the process becomes efficient and accountable. Therefore, Indonesia needs to establish a national ODR platform that provides end-to-end services, from case registration, electronic summons, virtual hearings, document and electronic evidence verification, to issuing electronic arbitration awards. India also needs to develop a similar platform, emphasizing access in rural areas to bridge the digital access gap that has historically hindered the effectiveness of ODR (Yasarman, 2024). This solution is also a response to improve legal structural weaknesses, as analyzed through Friedman's Legal System Theory, which argues that institutions,

procedures, and technological tools must serve as “machines” that ensure legal norms function in practice.

Regarding institutional aspects, the European Union offers an important model, namely certified and supervised ADR/ODR entities. This means that dispute resolution institutions are not only present administratively but also meet standards of independence, transparency, and service quality. Therefore, Indonesia should encourage arbitration institutions such as BANI to develop a web-based online arbitration system that is accessible to the public. India should also encourage existing arbitration and ODR institutions to integrate into a national system with standardized procedures to avoid fragmentation of services. Research (Buhuri, 2024) also emphasizes that the effectiveness of electronic arbitration requires procedural standardization and enhanced cross-jurisdictional recognition, so strengthening institutional frameworks is a prerequisite for online arbitration to be trusted and widely used.

The last essential aspect is the recognition and enforcement of online arbitration awards. Indonesia and India still face uncertainty because online arbitration awards are often viewed as the product of parties' agreements and are not supported by strong technical legal frameworks, particularly regarding the form of electronic awards, authentication, and the evidentiary strength of digital documents (Heriyanto et al., 2023). Drawing lessons from the European Union, Indonesia and India need to formulate standards for the legality of electronic arbitration awards (e-awards), strengthen certified digital signature and authentication systems, and implement mechanisms for validating the integrity of electronic documents through audit trails and metadata. In this way, E-Commerce disputes can be resolved quickly without sacrificing legal certainty and the legitimacy of the decision. Collaboration and knowledge exchange with the European Union are crucial, including the development of ODR interoperability across countries, which will enable cross-jurisdictional disputes to be handled more effectively (Ndara & Pidada, 2024).

All these normative solutions can be understood through Lawrence M. Friedman's Legal System Theory framework. In terms of legal substance, Indonesia and India need to build specific regulations that are responsive to digital disputes. In terms of legal structure, a national ODR platform and standardized online arbitration institutions must be developed and supervised. In terms of legal culture, digital literacy and public trust in online dispute resolution mechanisms must be improved, not only among consumers but also businesses and legal practitioners, so that ODR is not only available but also used effectively (Abdullah, M., Razak, S., & Faridah, 2023). Thus, the European Union's approach can be transformed into a model for reforming E-Commerce dispute resolution that is modern and fair, allowing Indonesia and India to reduce reliance on conventional litigation, enhance consumer protection, and strengthen the digital trade ecosystem in a competitive and innovative manner (Chawla & Kumar, 2022; Fatimah et al., 2022).

CONCLUSION

The study highlights significant gaps in Indonesia and India's legal frameworks for online dispute resolution (ODR) compared to the European Union. Both countries lack comprehensive ODR regulations for E-Commerce disputes and have no official national platforms to facilitate online arbitration. However, India's regulatory framework, including The Consumer Protection (E-Commerce) Rules, 2020, has made strides in integrating digital dispute resolution. In contrast, Indonesia's legal system remains heavily reliant on traditional arbitration laws, which do not address the needs of cross-border E-Commerce disputes. This study emphasizes the necessity for both countries to adopt specific regulations for ODR, create national platforms, and enhance digital evidence recognition. The findings underscore the importance of adopting the European Union's regulatory model to ensure fast, flexible, and cost-efficient dispute resolution mechanisms for digital transactions. By establishing

national ODR platforms and mandating E-Commerce providers to offer ODR services, Indonesia and India can significantly improve consumer protection and legal certainty in digital trade. Additionally, lessons from the EU on the standardization of arbitration procedures and cross-jurisdictional recognition of awards will enable both countries to address the growing complexity of digital commerce effectively. This research contributes to the development of a more responsive and efficient legal infrastructure for resolving E-Commerce disputes in emerging economies. The results of this study hold both theoretical and practical significance; theoretically, it advances the understanding of online arbitration regulations in the context of E-Commerce by comparing legal frameworks in Indonesia, India, and the European Union, while highlighting the need for regulatory adaptation to digital developments. Practically, the findings provide concrete recommendations for policymakers and legal practitioners in formulating policies that enhance the effectiveness of online arbitration, consumer protection, and cross-border collaboration in developing ODR infrastructure and regulations. However, this study has limitations, as it relies solely on secondary data that may not fully reflect the current situation on the ground, and it is limited to three countries, thereby excluding perspectives from other nations with different approaches to E-Commerce dispute resolution.

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