ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION

Law & Practice



Edited by

Adnan Yaakob Ashgar Ali Ali Mohamed Arun Kasi Mohammad Naqib Ishan Jan Muhamad Hassan Ahmad

CLJ Publication

ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION

Law & Practice

Edited by

Adnan Yaakob Ashgar Ali Ali Mohamed Arun Kasi Mohammad Naqib Ishan Jan Muhamad Hassan Ahmad



CLJ Publication

ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION: Law & Practice / Edited by:

Adnan Yaakob, Ashgar Ali Ali Mohamed, Arun Kasi, Mohammad Naqib Ishan Jan, Muhamad Hassan Ahmad.

ISBN 978-967-457-144-3

- 1. Dispute resolution (Law).
- 2. Dispute resolution (Islamic law).
- I. Adnan Yaakob.
- II. Ashgar Ali Ali Mohamed.
- III. Arun Kasi.
- IV. Mohammad Naqib Ishan Jan.
- V. Muhamad Hassan Ahmad.

347.09

Published by

The Malaysian Current Law Journal Sdn Bhd

Unit E1-2, BLK E, Jln Selaman 1 Dataran De Palma, 68000 Ampang, Selangor Darul Ehsan, Malaysia Co No 197901006857 (51143 M) Tel: 603-42705400 Fax: 603-42705401

2020 © The Malaysian Current Law Journal Sdn Bhd ('CLJ').

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any material form or by any means, including photocopying and recording, or storing in any medium by electronic means and whether or not transiently or incidentally to some other use of this publication, without the written permission of the copyright holder, application for which should be addressed to the publisher. Such written permission must also be obtained before any part of this publication is stored in a retrieval system of any nature.

Although every effort has been made to ensure accuracy of this publication, The Malaysian Current Law Journal accepts no responsibility for errors or omissions, if any.

> Kumitha Abd Majid (Publications Editor) Suhainah Wahiduddin (Indexing) Nurhamimi Mohamad (Cover Design) Afrihidayati Asep Hidayat (Typesetting)

Printed by

VIVAR PRINTING SDN BHD Lot 25, Rawang Integrated Industrial Park, 48000 Rawang, Selangor Darul Ehsan

CONTENTS

Foreword	i
Preface	iii
Contributors' Profile	vii
Table Of Cases	xix
Table Of Legislation	xlvii
2 18 2 X 10 2 110 eg	
CHAPTER 1	
DISPUTE RESOLUTION: ADVERSARIAL SYSTEM AND INQUISITORIAL SYSTEM	
Civil Law System	1
Common Law System	3
Adversarial System v. Inquisitorial System	6
Adversarial Procedure Of Civil Cases With Reference To The Rules Of Court 2012	10
Pleading FOR ACADEMIC	11
Service Of Documents	11
Discovery And Interrogation Case Management	12
Case Management	13
Hearing In Open Court	14
Evidence Pramination Of Witness Poses	15
Examination Of Witness	16
Judgment	17
Written Judgment	17
Costs	20
Decision Is Subsequently Open To Appeal	21
Stay Of Execution	21
Enforcement Of Judgment	24

CHAPTER 2

ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION: DEFINITION AND ITS DEVELOPMENT

Introduction	27
Why ADR?	29
Conceptual Delineation	32
Historical Development	36
Religious Aspects	37
Past Traditions Still In Use	42
Conclusion	48
CHAPTER 3	
ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION IN ISLAM	
Introduction	49
Clarification Of Terms	53
ADR Processes In Islam	60
Sulh (Negotiation, Mediation/Conciliation And Compromise Of Action)	60
Formula FOR ACADEMIC	66
Parties Parties	66
The Substitute	66
The Subject-Matter EPOSITORY	67
Tahkim (Arbitration)	69
Med-Arb DIIDDOCEC	72
Med-Arb Muhtasib PURPOSES	73
Informal Justice By Wali Al-Mazalim Or Chancellor	75
Fatawa Of Mufti Or Expert Determination	76
Overview Of The Practice Of ADR In The Formative Period Of Islam	76
Conclusion	78

CHAPTER 4

CONFIDENTIALITY AND PUBLIC POLICY IN ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION

Introduction	79
Confidentiality: Privilege	80
Why Confidentiality?	84
Law And Court	86
Position In India	87
Position In The United Kingdom	88
Position In Singapore	89
Position In Other Countries	92
Position In International ADR Institutions	96
Conclusion	100
CHAPTER 5	
NEGOTIATION: TYPES AND ETHICAL ISSUES	
Introduction	101
	101
Types Of Negotiation Competitive Negotiation	102
Accommodative Negotiation	103
Collaborative Negotiation	105
Ethics In Negotiation	106
Self-Determination Of The Parties (Party Autonomy)	107
Negotiation Skills UNIT USES	107
Confidentiality Of Information	107
Impartiality Of Negotiator	108
Conflicts Of Interest	108
Process Of Negotiation	108
Fees For Negotiation	109
Conclusion	110

CHAPTER 6 WITHOUT PREJUDICE NEGOTIATIONS

Introduction	111
Policy Behind The Rule	118
Setting Aside The Veil Of 'Without Prejudice Negotiations'	121
Conclusion	122
CHAPTER 7	
MEDIATION: DEFINITION, ORIGINS AND PROCESSESS	
Introduction	123
Definition Of Mediation	124
Traditional Mediation	125
Modern Mediation	130
Historical Background Of Mediation In Malaysia	136
Cornerstone Of Mediation	139
Voluntariness	139
Impartiality	140
Confidentiality OR ACADEMIC	140
Flexibility	141
Process Of Mediation	142
Process Of Mediation Pre-Mediation Process POSITORY	142
Preliminary Stage	143
Joint Session DIIDDOCEC	143
Caucus (Separate Meeting) And Further Joint Meeting	144
Agreement Stage	/ 145
Types Of Mediation	145
Facilitative Mediation	145
Evaluative Mediation	145
Transformative Mediation	146
Western Culture v. Asian Culture	146
Prevalence Of Face-Saving	147
Mediators Should Be Authoritative Figures	148
Mediators Should Assume Leadership Role	148
Communication Should Be At An Appropriate Level Of Formality	149
Base Of Trust In The Asian Context	149
Conclusion	151

CHAPTER 8 MEDIATORS: ACCREDITATION AND TRAINING REQUIREMENTS

Introduction	153
Accreditation Of Mediators	155
Accreditation Of Mediators In Selected Jurisdictions	161
Australia	161
United States	172
Canada	173
Singapore	174
United Kingdom	175
International Mediation Institute	176
Accreditation Of Mediators: Optional Or Obligatory?	180
Conclusion	182
CHAPTER 9	
MEDIATION: STANDARDS OF CONDUCT	
Introduction	183
Self-Determination RACADEMIC	184
Competence	185
	187
Confidentiality REPOSITORY	189
Conflicts Of Interest	190
Quality Of Process DURPOSES	192
Fees For Service	195
Advertising And Solicitation	196
Advancement Of Mediation Practice	197
Conclusion	198
CHAPTER 10	
MEDIATION: COURT ANNEXED	
Introduction	199
Mediation Act 2012	200
Practice Direction No. 5 Of 2010	200
Practice Direction No. 2 Of 2013	203
Practice Direction No. 4 Of 2016	204

Referrals To Mediation	205
Judge-led Mediation	205
Mediation By The AIAC	206
Mediator Chosen By Parties	207
Mediation Agreement	209
Confidentiality	210
Period And Results Of Mediation	210
Settlement Agreement	211
Practice Direction To Be Followed Closely	212
Conclusion	213
TO THE STATE OF TH	214 219
MEDIATION: COMMUNITY DISPUTES	\
Introduction	226
Position In Malaysia	229
Position In Malaysia OR ACADEMIC Position In India	236
Position In Singapore	240
Conclusion REPOSITORY	244
CHAPTER 12 MEDIATION: RELIGIOUS AND CULTURAL DISPUTES	
Religious And Cultural Conflicts	245
	261
	265
Conclusion	270

CHAPTER 13 MEDIATION: NATIVE DISPUTES

Introduction	271
A Brief History Of Sabah And Sarawak	272
Natives Of Sabah And Sarawak	273
Native Courts In Sabah	276
Native Court Of Appeal	277
District Native Court	278
Native Court	278
Representation In Native Courts Of Sabah	281
Native Courts In Sarawak	282
Native Court Of Appeal	284
Resident's Native Court	284
District Native Court	286
Chief's Superior Court	286
Chief's Court	288
Headman's Court	289
Power Of Sarawak Native Courts To Impose Penalties	289
Imprisonment In Default Of Penalty	289
Mediation In Native Courts	290
Interview Of Respondents	292
Sabah	293
Sarawak DIIDDOCEC	294
Conclusion PURPOSES	297
CHAPTER 14	
MEDIATION: MEDICAL DISPUTES	
Introduction	299
The Importance Of Communication After The Occurrence	
Of Adverse Events	300
Mediation As The Most Feasible Method Of Alternative	201
Dispute Resolution	301
Promoting The Use Of Apologies During Mediation	304
Conclusion	309

CHAPTER 15 MEDIATION: REAL ESTATE AND LAND DISPUTES

	211
Introduction	311
Types Of Real Estate Disputes	312
Existing Dispute Resolution Mechanism	316
Homebuyers Tribunal	317
ADR Processes	318
Arbitration	320
Mediation	321
Med-Arb	321
Mini Trial	321
Negotiation	322
Facilitation	322
Rationale For Proposing Alternative Dispute Resolution For	\
Resolving Real Estate Disputes	323
Cost Saving	326
Speedier	327
Representation Of Lawyers In Mediation	327
Making A Binding Decision	327
Able To Preserve Relationship Between Disputing Parties	328
Benefiting From The Valuable Procedural Characteristics Of Mediation	328
important Roles Of A Mediator Unavailable To A Judge In Court Of Law	331
Establishing Communication Between Parties	332
Transmitter Of Information	332
Distinguisher Between Wants From Needs Of Parties	332
Generator Of Options	332
Organiser And Guide	333
Reality Check	333
Absorbing Negativity	333
Experienced And Ability To Drive The Discussion	334
Predictor Of Future Issues	334
Challenges In Promoting Mediation	334
Appointment Of A Suitable Mediator	334
Incorporation Of Clauses To Mediate Disputes In Agreements	336

Liberty To Find Other Means Of Dispute Resolution If	
Mediation Does Not Resolve The Dispute	336
Authority To Make Decisions	336
Settlement Is Not Binding Unless Parties Reach An Agreement	337
Communications During Mediation Are Confidential	337
Preparing A Mediation Brief	337
Finalise Settlement Agreement At Mediation	338
Limitations Of Mediation	338
Conclusion	339
Sept. 10 to	
CHAPTER 16	
MEDIATION: SPORTS DISPUTES	
Introduction	2.41
2\ /// 1 / /8	341
Sports Law And Mediation	341
Trend In Mediating Sports Disputes	344
Value Of Mediation In Sports Disputes	348
Notion Of Mediation Common Misconceptions About Mediation	349
	350
Relevance And Application Of Mediation To Sport Disputes	352
Conclusion REPOSITORY	353
CHAPTER 17	
MEDIATION: PLEA BARGAINING IN CRIMINAL CASES	
Introduction	355
Mediation: Meaning And Scope	356
Power Of Public Prosecutor To Institute, Substitute	
And Discontinue Charge	357
Pre-Trial Conference	358
Case Management	359
Plea Bargaining	359
Sentencing Arising In Plea Bargaining	365
Conclusion	368

CHAPTER 18 MEDIATION INSTITUTIONS

Introduction	369
Financial Mediation Bureau (FMB)	370
Malaysian Mediation Centre (MMC)	372
Asian International Arbitration Centre (AIAC)	376
Legal Aid Bureau (LAB)	378
Conclusion	380
or page	
CHAPTER 19	
SINGAPORE MEDIATION CONVENTION: WHETHER RULE OF LAW INTACT?	
Introduction	381
Bird's Eye View Of The Convention	383
Observations	386
Conclusion	387
Appendix	389
FOR ACADEMIC	
CONCILIATION v. MEDIATION: SIMILARITIES AND DIFFEREN	CES
Introduction REPOSITORY	401
Conciliation: Meaning	402
Conciliation And Mediation: Similarities And Differences	404
Differences: An Analysis From The Definition	404
CHAPTER 21	
CONCILIATION: LABOUR DISPUTES	,
	405
Introduction	407
Labour Disputes	409
Conciliation At Industrial Relations Department (IRD)	414
Enhancing Conciliator's Skills And Knowledge On Negotiation Process	422

CHAPTER 22 CONCILIATION: MATRIMONIAL DISPUTES

Reconciliation In Matrimonial Disputes	425
Reconciliation: A Prerequisite For Filing Of Divorce Petition	427
Conclusion	438
CHAPTER 23	
CONCILIATION: APPLICATION IN SYARIAH COURT	
Introduction	439
Sulh: Definition	440
Sulh: In Qur'an And Sunnah	441
Process Of Conciliation (Sulh)	444
Conciliation: Practice In Syariah Courts	446
Process Of Hakam For Dissolution Of Marriage	451
Ensuring Effectiveness Of Sulh	455
Sulh Work Manual	455
Practice Direction Of JKSM On Practice Of Sulh	457
Continuous Training For Sulh Officers	459
Conclusion	460
REPOCHAPTER 24 RY	
ARBITRATION IN MALAYSIA: AN OVERVIEW	
Introduction PURPOSES	461
Arbitration Agreement	466
Arbitrator Appointment Of Arbitrator	471
Appointment Of Arbitrator	473
Seat Of Arbitration And Choice Of Law	475
Arbitral Procedure	478
Conclusion	482

CHAPTER 25 INTERNATIONAL ARBITRATION

Introduction	483
The 1958 Convention	487
Arbitral Proceedings, Model Law And The Arbitration	
Act 2005: A Bird's Eye View	492
Appointment Of Arbitrator	493
Respondent's Objection To Arbitration Proceedings	494
Preliminary Conference	495
Powers Of The Arbitrator	498
Determination Of Rules Of Procedure	499
Challenge And/Or Termination Of Arbitrator	500
Award	500
Challenges In Arbitral Proceedings And Award	501
Now /	
CHAPTER 26	
ARBITRATION AGREEMENT	
Introduction FOR ACADEMIC	503
Arbitration Agreement: Requirements As To Form	504
Arbitration: Definition	515
Permissive And Unilateral Arbitration Agreements	520
CHAPTER 27 ARBITRATOR: QUALIFICATION AND TRAINING	
Introduction	523
Legal Position	523
Practical Position	524
CIArb London Fellowship	529
Other Grades Of CIArb Memberships	530

CHAPTER 28 ARBITRATORS: APPOINTMENT AND REMOVAL

Arbitrator: An Overview	531
Appointment Of Arbitrator	533
Revoking Authority Of Arbitrator: Application By Disputants	535
Revoking Authority Of Abitrator: Application By Co-Arbitrator	543
Revoking Arbitrator's Authority: Required Challenge Procedure	551
Appointment Of Substitute Arbitrator	553
Conclusion 89 890 7/2	554
CHAPTER 29 ARBITRATORS: IMPARTIALITY AND INDEPENDENCE	
Introduction	555
Impartiality And Independence	557
Duty Of Disclosure	558
Test For Apparent Bias	562
IBA Guidelines On Conflict Of Interest In International Arbitration	572
Conclusion FOR ACADEMIC	580
CHAPTER 30 STAY OF ARBITRAL PROCEEDINGS	
Introduction	581
The Arbitration Act 1952	582
The Arbitration Act 2005 (Prior To The Amendment In 2011)	585
The Arbitration Act 2005 (As Amended In 2011)	588
Stay Under The Arbitration Act 2005: Arbitrability Of Subject Matter	591
Requirements Under The Arbitration Act 2005	603
Requirement As To The Seat Of Arbitration	604

CHAPTER 31 ANTI-SUIT INJUNCTION

Introduction	615
Anti-Suit Injunctions In Non-Contractual Context	618
Anti-Suit Injunctions To Prevent Breach Of Contract	622
The Narrow Approach	624
The Wide Approach	626
Considerations In Granting Anti-Suit Injunction	630
Conclusion	638
CHAPTER 32	
ARBITRAL AWARD AND ENFORCEMENT	
Arbitral Award	639
Setting Aside Award	642
Enforcement Of Award	650
Emoretical Of Award	030
CHAPTER 33	
ARBITRAL AWARDS: GROUNDS FOR REVIEW	
Introduction	655
Jurisdiction Of Supervisory Courts	658
Preconditioned Grounds For Review	663
Provable Grounds For Review	663
Judicially Discoverable Grounds For Review	667
Involvement Of Fraud Or Corruption	669
Breach Of Rules Of Natural Justice	669
Discretionary Power Of Courts And Its Criteria	672
Jurisdiction Of Enforcement Courts	675
Judicial Review In Ex Parte Proceedings	677
Validity Of Agreement	680
Form Of Agreement	680
Parties To The Agreement	682
Judicial Review In <i>Inter Partes</i> Proceedings	683
Arbitrability Of Dispute	687
Determination Of The Applicable Law	687
Validity Of The Arbitration Agreement	688
The Award Has Not Yet Become Binding	689
Conclusion	690

CHAPTER 34 INTERNATIONAL ARBITRAL INSTITUTIONS

Introduction	691
Evolution Of International Arbitration And Tribunals	693
Jay Treaty Arbitration	694
Alabama Claims Arbitration	695
Permanent Court Of Arbitration	697
Usage Of International Arbitration	701
Investment Arbitration	702
International Arbitration Rules	703
Chapter 35	704
ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION IN FINTECH	
Introduction	706
Blockchain Revolution	708
Blockchain In Financial Transactions	709
Blockchain In Law R A CADEMIC	710
Blockchain-Based Smart Contracts	711
Blockchain Platform For Dispute Resolution	712
Cryptocurrency Debate	713
Decentralised Dispute Resolution	719
Online Dispute Resolution	721
Private ODR Platforms	724
Codelegit — Blockchain Arbitration Library	724
Kleros — Crypto Dispute Arbitration	725
Blockchain Arbitration Forum (BAF)	727
Jury. Online	729
Public Solutions	730
Conclusion	731

CHAPTER 36

ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION IN ISLAMIC BANKING AND FINANCE

Off-Site Dispute Resolution And Avoidance Mechanisms	782
Expert Determination	783
Enforcement Of Expert Determination Decision	784
Statutory Adjudication	787
Construction Court	789
Conclusion	790
CHAPTER 38	
STATUTORY ADJUDICATION UNDER CIPAA 2012	
Statutory Adjudication	791
Appointment Of Adjudicator	796
Adjudication Process	798
Setting Aside Adjudication Decision	803
Enforcing Adjudication Decision	806
Mod &	
CHAPTER 39	
BIRD'S EYE VIEW OF CIPAA 2012	
Introduction FOR ACADEMIC	807
CIPAA 2012	809
REPOCHAPTER 40 RY	
EARLY NEUTRAL EVALUATION IN INDUSTRIAL COURT	
Introduction PURPOSES //	815
Industrial Court Of Malaysia	817
Industrial Court's Early Evaluation Process	819
Early Evaluation Of Cases: Illustrations From Industrial Court Awards	825
Conclusion	829
	02)

CHAPTER 41 OMBUDSMAN

Introduction	831
Origin And Evolution Of Ombudsman	832
Ombudsman In Chinese Legal Tradition	833
The Greek/Roman Agoranomos	835
Ombudsman In Islamic Legal Tradition	837
Scandinavian Ombudsman	844
Contemporary Ombudsman And The Ottoman Turks	848
Modern Ombudsman: Definitions And Institutionalisation	849
Ombudsman, Ombudswoman, Ombudsperson, Ombudet And Others	854
Ombudsman: ADR Institution Or Mechanism	856
Trends In Ombudsman Classification	857
Classical/Traditional Ombudsman	860
Legislative Or Parliamentary Ombudsman	860
Executive Ombudsman	862
Organisational Ombudsman	863
Public Sector And Private Sector Ombudsman	865
Public Sector And Private Sector Ombudsman Essential Characteristics Of Ombudsman Institutions	866
Establishment	869
Accessibility REPOSITORY	869
Independence	870
Confidentiality/Reporting	871
Effect Of Decision/Enforcement	872
Jurisdiction And Scope	872
Reporting And Accountability	873
Review Process	873
Role Of Ombudsman In Modern Business Regulation	874
Conclusion	876

CHAPTER 42

EXPERT DETERMINATION: CONVENTIONAL AND ISLAMIC APPROACH

Introduction	877
Expert Determination: Conventional Approach	878
Qualifications Of The Expert	879
A Named Individual, Firm Or Company	880
An Individual, Firm Or Company Holding A Particular Position	881
Qualification By Profession Or Experience	881
Criteria For The Expert's Suitability	882
The Expert Clause	883
Appointing The Expert	885
Absence Of Effective Appointment Mechanism	886
Challenging Decision Of The Experts	888
Bringing A Claim Against Expert	889
Limitation	890
Grounds Of Challenge	890
Lack Of Independence	891
Unfairness In The Decision Procedure	892
Unfairness In The Decision	894
Expert Determination: Islamic Approach	896
Fatwa And Its Significance	898
Principles of Fatwa Issuance	899
Fatwa Issuance URPOSES	900
Scholarly Aptitude And Character	900
Single Juristic View	900
Multiple Juristic View	900
Reliance On Authentic Juristic Work	901
Prioritisation	901
Competing Juristic Views	901
Adopting The View Of Zahir Al-Riwayah	902
Mafhum-Mukhalif As Principle Of Interpretation Of Juristic Text	902
Similarities And Differences Between Al-Qadha' And Al-Fatwa	902
Appointment Of Qadhi And Mufti	903
Application Of Fatwa	904

Multiple Views	904
Approved Verdicts In Fatwa Sentence	905
The Preferred Verdict	905
The Verdict Which Is Equal To Another	906
Conclusion	906
CHAPTER 43	
ONLINE DISPUTE RESOLUTION AND ITS	
APPLICATION IN FINANCIAL DISPUTES	
Introduction	907
Concept Of ODR	908
Permutations Of ODR	912
Online Ombudsman	914
Online Negotiation	914
Online Mediation	915
Online Arbitration	915
Online Hybrid Processes	915
Best Practices Of ODR In Financial Dispute Resolution	916
eBay/Square Trade Experiment	917
Cybersettle.com, SettlementOnline and clickNsettle	919
ODR In Credit Reporting Disputes	920
Conclusion	923
BUIDDOCEC	///
CHAPTER 44	/
UNIVERSITY ARBITRATION	
Introduction	925
Universities As Arbitration Centres	926
Emergence Of Modern Commercial Arbitration	927
Significance Of Arbitration	930
Empowering Universities As Arbitration Centres	932
Implementing University Arbitration	933
Benefit To Stakeholders	934
The 'Feeder' To University Arbitration	935
Regimes Of Islamic Finance And One Belt, One Road (OBOR)	938
Conclusion	939
Index	941
to the second of	

ALTERNATIVE DISPUTE RESOLUTION

Law & Practice

Alternative Dispute Resolution: Law and Practice is divided into 44 chapters which cover alternative dispute resolution (ADR) mechanisms in all their varieties, including negotiation, mediation, conciliation, ombudsman, arbitration, and court adjudication. These ADR mechanisms can be used alongside existing court systems and have gained widespread acceptance because of its speedy resolution of disputes and outcomes that preserve and sometimes even improve relationships.

The primary objective of this book is to enhance reader's understanding of the various regulatory framework governing ADR on diverse issues at both national and international levels. This includes the application of ADR to fintech, Islamic banking and finance, labour, and construction disputes among others. Online dispute resolution, Singapore Mediation Convention, and university arbitration are also featured in this book.

All those concerned, both the legal and non-legal community such as legal practitioners, arbitrators, mediators, academicians, and students, will find this book as a valuable aid for a good understanding of matters pertaining to ADR without having to refer to several other sources.



CHAPTER 34

INTERNATIONAL ARBITRAL INSTITUTIONS*

Introduction

This chapter generally discusses international arbitration and tribunals, the key term here is 'international arbitration'. What does it mean? How does it work in practice? Can it contribute to the creation of a peaceful world through settlement of disputes between states and non-state actors? These are some of the main issues that this chapter seeks to explore. The main international arbitration body which this chapter refers to is the Permanent Court of Arbitration ('PCA').

Over the past decades, the use of international arbitration has grown remarkably, mainly in Asia and Africa. The emergence of new arbitration centres is one of the salient features of this growth which has contributed tremendously to the development of institutional arbitration. Only 10% of the current institutions existed before 1940. In the last 30 years, 70% of the arbitration institutions have been established — 50% and 20% in the last 20 and 10 years respectively. Even though there is a slow growth rate at the moment — in 2008, 2009, 2010, at least two new institutions were created in each year.

^{*} This chapter is contributed by Syed Hamid Syed Jaafar Albar, Mohammad Naqib Ishan Jan and Muhamad Hassan Ahmad.

SL Brekoulakis, JDM Lew, LA Mistelis The Evolution and Future of International Arbitration (2016).

International arbitration is one of the most important legal means of settling international disputes alongside judicial settlement. In addition to these, there are diplomatic means of settling international disputes but they fall outside the scope of this chapter. This chapter focuses on 'international arbitration courts and tribunals' which, like judicial settlement, is a legal means. Unlike judicial settlement, which is characterised by the fact that a dispute is settled by a standing tribunal (like the International Court of Justice ('ICJ')), arbitration is designed by the parties to the disputes. They can choose the arbitrators, the law governing arbitration proceedings (the procedural law) and the law applicable to the dispute (the applicable law). International arbitration can take place between two or more disputing parties. It can take place between two states (interstate arbitration); between states and non-state actors; individuals or private companies (sometimes termed 'mixed arbitration'); or between two non-state actors.

Irrespective of the status of the disputants, arbitration can be conducted on ad hoc basis, in which case the parties to the dispute are responsible for determining and agreeing on the arbitration procedure, not subjected to the procedures of an arbitral institution; or it can be conducted by institutional arbitration. In institutional arbitration, the parties rely on the procedural rules of a chosen arbitration tribunal, and are assisted during the procedure by that tribunal. There are many different arbitration courts and tribunals that can assist in the settlement of international disputes. The most prominent among them include the PCA in the Hague and the International Centre for the Settlement of Investment Disputes ('ICSID') in Washington, which settles investment disputes between the state and a foreign investor.

The subject matter of international disputes that can be settled through international arbitration include commercial law disputes between two private parties, investment disputes between states and foreign investors, or disputes between states in relation to the law of the sea, for instance, boundary determination. This chapter focuses mainly on arbitration involving at least one state; and disputes in the field of public international law rather than private international law.

Evolution Of International Arbitration And Tribunals

International arbitration has evolved over a long period of time. Before international courts and tribunals were established, disputes between states and state like entities were settled through international arbitration. Ancient Greece used arbitration to settle disputes between allied states and city states relating to their independence and sovereignty. In the middle ages, arbitration was also largely used and, in those arbitrations, the dispute was often settled by a single arbitrator, usually the emperor. Most often the single arbitrator was the Pope or a king or an emperor from another state. However, these arbitrations involved different entities than what we now call states. The way in which the dispute was settled did not resemble modern day practice.

Historically, the decision of the king or emperor was regularly based on principles of equity than law, was not reasoned and the arbitrators were not fully independent and impartial. With the Peace Treaty of Westphalia 1648 after the 30 years of war in Europe and the primacy of state sovereignty that came along, arbitration almost disappeared in interstate relations. Later, arbitration resurfaced towards the end of the 18th and 19th centuries. These arbitrations paved the way for the contemporary arbitration we now have.

This evolution is a result of the effectiveness of international arbitration compared to litigation in resolving disputes. Some of the reasons are:

- (1) international arbitration can resolve disputes more swiftly than traditional court litigation since there are only limited appeals from arbitral awards:
- (2) international arbitration can be less expensive than traditional court litigation;
- (3) international arbitration can provide better-quality justice, since many domestic courts are overburdened, which does not always allow judges sufficient time to produce legal decisions of high quality;

- (4) clients can play an active role in selecting arbitrators who are experts in a particular field, rather than generalist-like court judges;
- (5) international arbitration is flexible, and the individual parties to a dispute play a significant role in selecting the procedure that is most appropriate for resolving their international dispute;
- (6) international arbitration can be confidential, which is useful if the parties wish to continue their business relationship or to avoid negative publicity;
- (7) international arbitration is neutral and this is very important for cross-border transactions, since it avoids the possibility of a 'home court' advantage for one party;
- (8) in certain countries, judges do not rule independently and, on the other hand, in international arbitration, an award must be independently made, or it cannot be enforced;
- (9) in certain cases, such as investor-state disputes, international arbitration offers the sole remedy for the violation of a legal right.

Jay Treaty Arbitration

The Jay Treaty (Treaty of Amity, Commerce and Navigation) is an important treaty that was signed between the United States and Britain in 1794. John Jay (1745-1829), the first Chief Justice of the US Supreme Court and former Secretary of Foreign Affairs negotiated on the American side and Lord William Grenvill, Foreign Secretary, on the British side.²

² KS Ziegler 'Jay Treaty (1794)' Oxford Public International Law 2013 at http://opil.ouplaw.com.

Modern arbitration started with the adoption of this treaty. Its main aim was to settle outstanding issues following the American War of Independence. In order to achieve this, it established three types of commissions by way of dispute settlement mechanism. The first commission was established to settle the dispute between the two states mainly in relation to boundaries. The second and third commissions were established to hear two types of mixed disputes. First, claims for compensation due to British nationals for debts owed to them by the US nationals, which would be compensated by the US. Secondly, claims from US nationals against Britain for treatment of their property subsequent to the independence of the US.

The Jay Treaty paved the way not only for a modern form of arbitration to settle disputes between two states, but also for disputes between nationals of one state and another state. It also set precedents since the decisions of the commissions were based on law and contained reasons. At the same time, the commissions were composed exclusively of nationals of both parties.³

Alabama Claims Arbitration ADEMIC

The Alabama Claims arbitration is another notable example in this respect. The dispute related to damages suffered by the US government, due to attacks on union ships by Confederate Navy ships which had been built in British shipyards during the American Civil War. One of the ships was the CSS Alabama. In 1871, the US and Britain signed the Washington Treaty in which they decided to have this and some other claims settled through an international arbitral tribunal in Geneva. The arbitration ruled in favour of the US and it set an important precedent to successfully settle interstate claims through arbitration.

³ E De Brabandere, Giulia Pinzauti 'A Historical Perspective on International Arbitration' Coursera 2018 at https://www.coursera.org.

Moreover, the tribunal for the first time was composed of a majority of arbitrators which were not nationals of one of the state's party to the dispute, a practice which persists to date. The independence of the tribunal thus was enhanced. In that sense, the Alabama Claims arbitration was one of the first arbitrations that very much resembled the current practice. The case was also important in establishing the rule that the parties to the dispute can freely determine the law applicable to the dispute, and that this can include non-binding rules or so-called soft law. This was the beginning of a series of several other inter-state arbitrations, and paved the way for the Hague Convention 1899 that created the PCA.

Concurrently with these developments, there were more than 120 so-called mixed claims commissions in the 19th and the start of the 20th centuries. Like the model of the Jay Treaty, these commissions heard several types of claims, inter-state claims and/or claims from nationals of one state against another state. They were very often created following an armed conflict between two states or internal disturbances in one state during which nationals of other states had suffered injuries. For example, several claims commissions were established between the US and Mexico in the late 19th century, and various commissions were established to settle claims with Germany after the Second World War in the 20th century. It is important to note, however, that the claims of individuals had to be brought by the state of their nationality. In other words, individuals often had no direct access to the commission or tribunal.

Since the creation of the Permanent Court of International Justice in 1921 and its successor, the ICJ in 1945, arbitration became less popular especially for settling inter-state disputes. However, by the end of the Cold War in 1991, arbitration has become increasingly popular again among states, as it is illustrated by the growing number of cases settled under the auspices of the PCA. Moreover, this is evidenced by the large interstate arbitration practice in subject matters such as diplomatic protection, environmental disputes, territorial disputes, or disputes under the Law of the Sea Convention. There were also increases of so-called mixed arbitrations.

Permanent Court Of Arbitration

The PCA is the main international arbitration institution located in the Hague in the famous Peace Palace which was built in 1913 to host the PCA. The PCA was established in 1899 during the First Hague Peace Conference — a conference which was convened by the Russian Tsar Nicholas II, with the predominant aim to strengthen the means to settle international disputes peacefully to avoid recourse to the use of force. The most important outcome of the Conference, inter alia was the signing of the Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes (known as the First Hague Convention). During the first Hague Peace Convention in 1899, the idea of establishing an international dispute settlement body was mooted which subsequently led to the establishment of the PCA based on the Convention for the Pacific Settlement of International Disputes 1899.

The PCA, though inaugurated as a permanent court, is neither a court nor a tribunal in the sense of an international court or tribunal like the ICJ. It is also not permanent, since the PCA has no permanent body of arbitrators who are elected and to whom one can submit a dispute. Instead, the PCA is an arbitration institution with a permanent secretariat, known as the International Bureau and headed by the Secretary-General, which assists the parties by establishing and administering disputes for each case through an ad hoc tribunal. The PCA also has an administrative council which is composed of the diplomatic representatives of the contracting parties. The administrative council is a sort of general assembly and it is responsible for shaping the policy of the PCA and overseeing the work of the International Bureau.

As an arbitration institution, the PCA administers arbitration and provides facilities for parties to arbitrate their specific disputes that fall under the purviews of both private and public international law. The dispute resolution services of the PCA include arbitration, conciliation and fact-finding in disputes involving different categories of parties. Unlike the ICJ, the PCA handles disputes involving various combinations of parties ranging from states, private parties, state entities, and intergovernmental organisations.4

SI Strong 'Class and Collective Relief in the Cross-Border Context: A Possible Role for the Permanent Court of Arbitration' Hague YB Int'l L. 23 2010 p. 113.

Although the PCA has its headquarters in the Hague, dispute resolution proceedings conducted under its auspices may take place at any other location agreed upon by the parties to a case and/or the adjudicators. Parties can decide to submit a dispute to arbitration under the PCA. After submitting the dispute, they will have to constitute the arbitral tribunal which will hear their case and render the award. Arbitrators can be appointed from the list of arbitrators which the PCA maintains, but could also be chosen outside that list. The Pacific Settlement of International Disputes 1907 ('PSID 1907') provides that: 'Each Contracting Power selects four persons at the most, of known competency in questions of international law, of the highest moral reputation, and disposed to accept the duties of Arbitrator.'5 Despite the fact that the Convention required that arbitrators be chosen from this list of 'members',6 it became clear, in the early history of the PCA, that parties preferred to have the autonomy to appoint arbitrators from outside that list. This proves to be easily accomplished by having recourse to art. 47 of the PSID 1907 which authorises the International Bureau, 'to place its offices and staff at the disposal of the Contracting Powers for the use of any special Board of Arbitration.' As there is no definition of the expression 'special Board of Arbitration', this article has been invoked to authorise PCA involvement in arbitration involving non-state parties (including the adoption of various sets of procedural rules therefor) and to enable parties to select whomever they wish as arbitrators, by characterising the proceedings as a 'special Board of Arbitration' pursuant to art. 47 of the PSID 1907.

The PCA has its own set of procedural rules. These rules, however, are optional. It also administers arbitration which function, for example, under their own central arbitration rules. Nowadays, the PCA is mostly used for the arbitration of interstate disputes and disputes between foreign investors and states. It also administers to a lesser extent, disputes between private parties and occasionally, conciliation proceedings between states. For interstate disputes, the PCA has

The Pacific Settlement of International Disputes 1907, art. 44.

Ibid art. 45.

administered disputes in a vast range of fields of international law. The Secretary General of the PCA often acts as appointing authority in international arbitrations or as authority to decide challenges to arbitrators for alleged lack of independence and/or impartiality.

As part of its arbitration services, the PCA conducts international commercial arbitration under the United Nations Commission on International Trade Law (UNCITRAL) Arbitration Rules 1976 (revised in 2010) ('UNCITRAL Rules 1976'). Article 6(1) of the UNCITRAL Rules 1976 provides, in the absence of an agreement among the parties in international commercial arbitration on the appointing authority, either of the parties may propose the name of any person or institution including the Secretary General of the PCA as an appointing authority. This gives a significant recognition of the PCA as an international dispute settlement body. Administrative support is also provided for arbitration conducted under the UNCITRAL Rules 1976 at the PCA. This places the PCA on a unique global position in the history of dispute settlement in the modern world. This is why it is being described as the precursor of the modern-day processes of international dispute settlement. Although the PCA was initially established to handle disputes between states since the 1930s, it was authorised to also handle international disputes involving states and private parties through arbitration and conciliation. The kind of cases the PCA handles ranges from commercial disputes, investment disputes, environmental disputes, disputes relating to outer space, etc.

In the past 20 years, the PCA has revitalised itself with the modernisation of its system of dispute settlement among states and other disputants. Arbitration is one of the key areas it has revitalised and the UNCITRAL Rules 1976 has represented the global standard that provides 'fair and effective procedures for peaceful resolution of disputes between States concerning the interpretation, application and performance of treaties and other agreements although they were originally designed for commercial arbitration.7 One thing that supports the argument that

See Permanent Court of Arbitration, UNCITRAL Arbitration Rules at https:// pca-cpa.org/en/home/ (accessed 2 March 2019).

PCA is more of a facilitative institution for arbitration, conciliation and other processes of dispute resolution, is the fact that there are no judges in the court. This is why some have considered the name 'Permanent Court for Arbitration' as a misnomer.⁸ It only has an International Bureau headed by a Secretary General to assist the parties and facilitate the process of dispute resolution. The International Bureau maintains a list or roster of potential arbitrators and provides all necessary administrative needs to facilitate arbitral proceedings. Without any doubt, it is clear that these are the usual basic requirements for an international arbitration centre to function as a true dispute resolution body.

In order to reinforce its jurisdiction, the PCA has Rules of Procedure for almost all types of disputes that come before it. These rules are meant to facilitate proceedings that would lead to amicable settlements of disputes referred to it. The following points give an outline of the Rules of Procedure for arbitration and conciliation of disputes before the PCA.

- (1) Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Rules for Arbitrating Disputes between Two States.
- (2) Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Rules for Arbitrating Disputes between Two Parties of which Only One Is a State.
- (3) Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Rules for Arbitration Involving International Organizations and States.
- (4) Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Rules for Arbitration between International Organizations and Private Parties.
- (5) Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Conciliation Rules.
- (6) Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Rules for Fact-finding Commissions of Inquiry.

⁸ J Golden 'National Groups and the Nomination of Judges of the International Court of Justice: A Preliminary Report' The International Lawyer Vol. 9(2) April 1975 pp. 333-349.

- (7) Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Rules for Arbitration of Disputes Relating to Natural Resources and the Environment.
- (8) Permanent Court of Arbitration Optional Rules for Conciliation of Disputes Relating to Natural Resources and the Environment.
- (9) Guidelines for Adapting the Permanent Court of Arbitration Rules to Disputes Arising under Multilateral Agreements and Multiparty Contracts.9

The UNCITRAL Rules 1976 also form part of the list if a dispute relates to international commercial arbitration referred to PCA. These rules place the PCA at the apogee of international dispute settlement bodies through arbitration and conciliation.

Usage Of International Arbitration

International arbitration is also called a hybrid form of international dispute resolution, since elements of civil law procedure and common law procedure are blended together, which allows the parties to design the arbitral procedure under which their dispute will be resolved. Any dispute that is considered to be 'arbitrable' can use international arbitration to resolve it. Companies in their commercial contracts with other businesses often include international arbitration agreements, which in an event of dispute, are obliged to arbitrate instead of pursuing traditional court litigation.

Similarly, via what is known as a 'submission agreement' (an arbitration agreement that is signed between them after a dispute has already arisen), the parties are enabled to resolve a dispute by arbitration. Typical arbitration agreements are very concise. For instance, the

See Permanent Court of Arbitration, PCA Arbitration Rules at https://pca-cpa. org/en/home/ (accessed 2 March 2019).

International Chamber of Commerce ('ICC') model arbitration clause, merely reads: 'All disputes arising out of or in connection with the present contract shall be finally settled under the Rules of Arbitration of the International Chamber of Commerce by one or more arbitrators appointed in accordance with the said Rules'. Rules are frequently added by the parties in respect of the law governing the contract, the place of arbitration, the number of arbitrators, and the language of arbitration.

Arbitral awards can be enforced through the Convention on the Recognition and Enforcement of Foreign Arbitral Awards 1958 (also known as 'New York Convention') in all member states. It has 159 State Parties and thus arbitral awards can be enforced in approximately 75% of the countries around the world.10

Investment Arbitration

Investment arbitration, a relatively recent phenomenon, concerns the institution of arbitration proceedings by foreign investors against states on account of bilateral or multilateral investment treaties, or domestic laws providing consent to arbitration by the state. It is the best way to respond to the expropriation of private investments by a state. For quite some time, the investment arbitrations have also existed from older cases. It is commonly used in the general field of international dispute settlement only when the bilateral investment treaties ('BITs') were concluded starting in 1959 and the ICSID Convention was initiated by the World Bank in 1965. Since then, the scenario has changed completely. In thousands of treaties and investment contracts, investment arbitration is chosen as the dispute settlement mechanism

Shearman & Sterling, Columbia Law School '1958 New York Convention Guide' at http://newyorkconvention1958.org/ (accessed 2 March 2019).

leading in practice to hundreds of cases per year between states and foreign enterprises. When it comes to applicable laws and legal framework, for investment arbitration, the fundamental framework is provided by treaties of public international law, mainly bilateral instruments of more than 2,000 BITs, and multilateral instruments as the ICSID Convention, the Energy Charter Treaty, and regional instruments such as NAFTA¹¹ and CAFTA. ¹² European laws provided through the Lisbon Treaty, have initiated a wide range of issues and discussions for investment arbitration concerning its conflicts with existing BITs and the future competence to conclude new BITs by EU Member States. National law also plays a role in the legal framework of investment arbitration.13

International Arbitration Rules

Rules are provided by most international arbitration institutions governing the resolution of disputes to be resolved via arbitration. The best-known rules of arbitration include those of the ICC; the London Court of International Arbitration (LCIA); the International Center for Dispute Resolution of the American Arbitration Association (ICDR); the Singapore International Arbitration Centre (SIAC); and the Hong Kong International Arbitration Centre (HKIAC). Investment arbitrations are often resolved under the rules of the World Bank's ICSID or the UNCITRAL Rules 1976. Most of the arbitrations involving Russian businesses take place under the rules of the Stockholm Chamber of Commerce (SCC).

North American Free Trade Agreement.

Central American Free Trade Agreement.

Karl-Heinz Böckstiegel 'Commercial and Investment Arbitration: How Different Are They Today?' The Lalive Lecture 2012 Arbitration International 28(4) 2012 pp. 577-590.

Conclusion

In the past decades, international arbitration courts and tribunals have contributed tremendously to the dispute resolution mechanism through its effective, speedy and flexible methods. Businesses prefer to resolve their disputes as fast as possible which cannot be achieved through traditional litigation. Sometimes it might take years for a dispute to be resolved through this channel. This can be an option but definitely not the first. What is fascinating about international arbitration is that it involves both disputing parties and strives to reach a win-win decision unlike traditional courts which emphasise on who is wrong and who is right. International arbitration can be confidential, which is useful if the parties wish to continue their business relationship or avoid negative publicity. This element of confidentiality is very important for the businesses because they want as far as possible to retain the good name in the market.

> **FOR ACADEMIC REPOSITORY PURPOSES** ONLY