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Digitizing The Land of Genghis Khan: Reforming Mongolia's Internet Law to Achieve Growth in E-Commerce

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ABSTRACT

In the digital age, the E-signature has replaced the handwritten signature. Since 1995, there have been three generations of E-signature law: the first mandated use of the digital signature, the second recognized the legal validity of all types of E-signatures, and the third recognizes all types of E-signatures, but gives preferred status to the digital signature. Mongolia's Electronic Signature Law (ESL) is third-generation; it recognizes all types of E-signatures but favors the use of the digital signature. Accreditation requirements are specified for Certification Service Providers (CSP), the issuers of certificates and verifiers to third parties that a digital signature is that of a specific subscriber. The CSP is responsible for maintaining the security of information that it receives from its subscribers. The CSP must inform the subscriber of any limitations on the use of the certificate. If a CSP issues a certificate, it must meet stringent security requirements which can only be achieved with a digital signature. CSPs must maintain a publicly accessible repository of certificates and the public keys which relying third parties can use to decrypt a subscriber's message. A CSP may incur legal liability for publishing a certificate with inaccurate information or for not issuing a private key to the subscriber corresponding to the public key in the repository. The ESL recognizes the legal validity of certificates issued by CSPs in foreign countries. The author recommends reformation of Mongolia's E-commerce law by adding: (1) consumer protections for E-commerce participants; (2) several new computer crimes; (3) information technology courts; (4) mandatory E-government; and (5) explicit long-arm jurisdiction.

KEYWORDS: Mongolia, E-Commerce, E-Signature, Law

OBJECTIVES OF THE ARTICLE

The objectives of this article are to (1) introduce the reader to Mongolia and its economy; (2) describe the three generations of electronic signature law; (3) analyze Mongolia's Electronic Signature Law ("ESL"), and (4) make recommendations for reformation of Mongolia's E-commerce law.

MONGOLIA: THE ECONOMY AND INTERNET INFRASTRUCTURE

Since its peaceful democratic revolution in 1990, Mongolia has been making the difficult transition from a centrallyplanned economy to a more modern open-market economy. The ex-communist Mongolian People's Party (MPP) has competed for political power with the Democratic Party (DP) and several other smaller parties. In Mongolia's most recent parliamentary elections in 2016, the MPP won overwhelming control of Parliament, largely pushing out the DP. However, a DP member, Khaltmaa Battulga, was elected President of Mongolia in 2017.¹

Mongolia borders on China and Russia and is slightly smaller than the U.S. state of Alaska and about twice the size of Texas. Mongolia's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was almost \$40 billion in 2019 and GDP per capita in 2019 was \$12,317. The GDP recently grew at an annual rate of 5.1%. The sectors contributing to Mongolia's GDP are agriculture, 12.1%; industry, 38.2%; and services, 49.7%. The value of Mongolian exports is approximately \$7 billion per year; those goods are primarily coal, copper, gold, iron, and crude petroleum.²

More than two-thirds of Mongolians live in urban areas. The largest city is the capital, Ulaanbaatar, with a population of 1.6 million.³ Broadband services have become available in urban areas and the government supports the improvement of broadband availability and access.⁴ Almost two-thirds (61%) of Mongolians use the internet. Internet cafes are popular in urban areas and have begun to spread to other parts of the country. As the internet infrastructure develops, E-commerce is becoming more and more popular.⁵ To stimulate the growth of E-commerce, reform of Mongolia's E-commerce law is needed.

THREE GENERATIONS OF ELECTRONIC SIGNATURE LAW

First Generation: Digital Signature Required

In 1995, the U.S. State of Utah became the first jurisdiction in the world to enact an electronic signature law.⁶ In the Utah statute, digital signatures were required and other types of electronic signatures were not recognized.⁷ The authors of the Utah statute believed, with some justification, that digital signatures provide the greatest degree of security for electronic transactions.

U.S. Central Intelligence Agency, "Mongolia," THE WORLD FACTBOOK, 30 June 2021; https://www.cia.gov/the-world-factbook/countries/mongolia/

² Id.
3 U.S. Department of Commerce, MONGOLIA COUNTRY COMMERCIAL GUIDE: E-COMMERCE; https://www.trade.gov/mongolia-country-commercial-guide.
4 Glopal for Merchants, SELLING ONLINE IN MONGOLIA; https://werchants.glopal.com/en-us/sell-online/mongolia.
5 U.S. Department of State, Bureau of East Asian and Pacific Affairs, Bill.ATERAL RELATONS FACT SHEET: MONGOLIA, 24 June 2021; https://www.state.gov/u-s-relations-with-mongolia/#--text=U.S.% 2DMONGOLIA% 20RELATIONS.relationship% 20to% 20s% 20Strategic% 20Partnership.
6 UTAH CODE ANN. 46-3-101 et seq., 1995. This first-generation statute was repealed in 2000 and replaced with the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act, a second-generation model law. UTAH CODE ANN. 46-4-101 et seq. (2000).



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Utah was not alone; other jurisdictions granting exclusive recognition to the digital signature include Argentina, Bangladesh, India 10, Malaysia, 11 Nepal, 12 New Zealand 13, and Russia. 14

Unfortunately, these jurisdictions' decision to allow the utilization of only one form of technology is burdensome and overly restrictive. Forcing users to employ digital signatures gives them more security, but this benefit may be outweighed by the digital signature's possible disadvantages: more expensive because of the fee paid to the certification authority; lesser convenience due to being forced to use a certification authority; forcing users to use one type of technology to the exclusion of others when another type of technology might be better suited to a particular type of transaction; use of a more complicated technology which may be less adaptable to technologies used in other nations, or even by other persons within the same nation; inappropriate risk allocation between users if fraud occurs; and the potential disincentive to invest in the development of alternative technologies.¹⁵

Second Generation: All Types of E-Signatures Accepted

Jurisdictions in the Second Generation overcompensated. They did the complete reversal of the First Generation and did not include any technological restrictions whatsoever in their statutes. They did not insist upon the utilization of digital signatures, or any other form of technology, to the exclusion of other types of electronic signatures. These jurisdictions have been called "permissive" because they take a completely open-minded, liberal perspective on electronic signatures and do not contend that any one of them is necessarily better than the others. The United States of America¹⁶ is a member of the second wave; the overriding majority of its jurisdictions (forty-five states, the District of Columbia, and the Territories of Puerto Rico and the Virgin Islands) have enacted the Uniform Electronic Transactions Act (either in its entirety or with minor amendments), a permissive secondgeneration model law.¹⁷ Australia has also enacted a second-generation statute.¹⁸

The disadvantage of the permissive perspective is that it does not take into account that some types of electronic signatures are better than others. A PIN and a person's name typed at the end of an E-mail message are both forms of electronic signatures, but neither can even approach the degree of security that is provided by the digital signature.

Third Generation: Acceptance of All E-Signatures, With Preference for Digital

Singapore led the Third Wave. In 1998, that country adopted a compromise, middle-of-the-road position for the various types of electronic signatures. In terms of the relative degree of technological neutrality, Singapore adopted a "hybrid" model—a preference for the digital signature in terms of a greater legal presumption of reliability and security, but not to the exclusion of other forms of electronic signatures.¹⁹ The digital signature is given more respect under the Singapore statute, but it is not granted a monopoly as in Utah. Singapore allows other types of electronic signatures to be employed. This technological open-mindedness is commensurate with a global perspective and allows parties to more easily consummate electronic transactions with parties from other nations.20

In recent years, more and more nations have joined the Third Generation. They recognize the security advantages afforded by the digital signature and indicate a preference for the digital signature over other forms of electronic signatures. This preference is exhibited in several ways: (1) utilization of a digital signature using a PKI system is explicitly required for authentication of an electronic record; (2) utilization of a digital signature with PKI seems to be necessary for an electronic record to comply with any statutory requirement that a record is in paper form; and (3) for a signature in the electronic form to comply with a statutory requirement that a pen-and-paper signature is affixed, it must be a digital signature created with PKI. Nevertheless, the Third Generation jurisdictions do not appear to be as technologically restrictive as those in the First Generation. They do not compel the E-commerce participant to use only the digital signature, instead of other forms of electronic signatures, as the State of Utah did in its original statute of 1995.

The moderate position adopted by Singapore has now become the progressive trend in international electronic signature law. The hybrid approach is the one taken by the European Union's E-Signatures

Directive,²¹ Armenia,²² Azerbaijan²³ Barbados,²⁴ Bermuda,²⁵ Bulgaria,²⁶ Burma,²⁷ China²⁸ Colombia,²⁹ Croatia,³⁰ Dubai,³¹ Egypt,³² Finland, 33 HongKong, 34 Germany, 35 Hungary, 36 Iran, 37 Jamaica, 38 Japan, 39 Jordan, 40 Lithuania, 41 Pakistan, 42 Peru, 43 Poland, 44 Sloven

⁸ Argentine Republic, DIGITAL SIGNATURE DECREE 2628/2002, 19 December 2002. The original act was amended by DIGITAL SIGNATURE DECREE 724/2006 on 8 June 2006.
9 Bangladesh, INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY (ELECTRONIC TRANSACTION) ACT 2000 (Draft).
10 Republic of India, THE INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY ACT, 9 June 2000.

Republic of Malaysia, DIGITAL SIGNATURE ACT, 1997.

Federal Democratic Republic of Nepal, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ORDINANCE NO. 32 OF THE YEAR 2061 B.S. (2005 A.D.), ss 60-71. New Zealand, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ACT 2000.

¹² Federal Democratic Republic of Nepal, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ORDINANCE NO. 32 OF THE YEAR 2061 B.S. (2005 A.D.), ss 60-71.

New Zealand, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ACT 2000.

Russian Federation, ELECTRONIC DIGITAL SIGNATURE LAW, Federal Law No. 1-FZ, 10 January 2002.

Amelia H. Boss, "The Evolution of Commercial Law Norms: Lessons To Be Learned From Electronic Commerce," 34:3 BROOKLYN JOURNAL OF INTERNATIONAL LAW 673, 689-90 (2009).

For analysis of American law, see Stephen E. Blythe, "E-Commerce and E-Signature Law of the United Nations, European Union, United Kingdom and United Nations law, see Stephen E. Blythe, "Digital Signature Law of the United Nations, European Union, United Kingdom and United States: Promotion of Growth in E-Commerce With Enhanced Security," 11: 2 RICHMOND JOURNAL OF LAW AND TECHNOLOGY 6 (2005).

United States of America, National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws, UNIFORM ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ACT, 7a U.L. A. 20 (Supp. 2000).

Sommonwealth of Australia, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ACT 1999.

Singapore's lawmakers were influenced by the U.N. Model Law on E-Commerce. See United Nations Commission on International Trade Law ("UNCITRAL"), MODEL LAW ON ELECTRONIC COMMERCE WITH GUIDE TO ENACTMENT ("MLEC") G.A. Res. 51/162, U.N. GAOR, 518 Sess., Supp. No. 49, at 336, U.N. Doc. A51/49 (1996).

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Zeal EUROPEAN UNION DIRECTIVE 1999/93/EC OF THE EUROPEAN PARLIAMENT AND OF THE COUNCIL OF 13 DECEMBER 1999 ON A COMMUNITY FRAMEWORK FOR ELECTRONIC SIGNATURES, (1999/93/EC)—19 January 2000, 0J L OJ No L 13 P.12.

Republic of Armenia, LAW ON ELECTRONIC DOCUMENT AND ELECTRONIC SIGNATURE, 2003.

Barbados, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ACT, CAP. 308B, 8 March 2001.

The Union of Myannar, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ACT 1999.

People's Republic of China, Order No. 18 of The President, LAW OF THE AZERBAIAN ELECTRONIC SIGNATURE, 2001.

The Union of Myannar, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS LAW, The State Peace and Deve

Republic of Croatia, ELECTRONIC SIGNATURE ACT, 17 January 2002.
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ia, 45 South Korea, 46 Taiwan, 47 Tunisia, 48 Turkey, 49 the United Arab Emirates, 50 Vanuatu 51 and in the proposed Uganda.⁵² Many other nations have adopted the hybrid approach; Mongolia is one of them.

MONGOLIA'S E-SIGNATURE LAW

Mongolia enacted its Electronic Signature Law (hereinafter "ESL") on December 15, 2011, and it was amended on December 31, 2015.⁵³ Definitions of important terms are provided: electronic signature, digital signature, cryptography, electronic document, private key, public key, digital signature holder, digital signature certificate, and others.⁵⁴ The Communications Regulatory Commission (Commission) is empowered to implement the ESL and may promulgate regulations to that effect.⁵⁵ The ESL allows E-signatures and E-documents attested with a certificate issued by a Certification Service Provider (CSP) to be used for all legal purposes, except for the communication of state secrets and whenever a notarized document or signature is required.⁵⁶ The ESL recognizes certificates issued in foreign countries.⁵⁷

Validity of E-Signatures

E-signatures and E-documents may be used in place of handwritten signatures and paper documents and have the same degree of legal validity.⁵⁸ All types of E-signatures are recognized, but a preference is given to the digital signature; in other words, Mongolia's ESL is third-generation.⁵⁹ For example, in the case of a contract, a "certified" E-signature (with relatively greater security features) must be used to sign the E-document.⁶⁰ A contract "under seal" must use a certified E-signature.⁶¹ The digital signature must allow its user to be able to determine: (a) if the content of an attached E-document has been changed; (b) the identity of the certificate holder; (c) whether it is genuine, and not fraudulent; (d) whether the private key has been illegally used; and (e) whether the confidentiality and singularity of the private and public keys have been maintained.⁶²

Certification Service Providers

The Commission registers practicing Certification Service Providers ("CSP"). 63 To be registered, a prospective CSP must have sufficient expertise; reliability; sufficient financial resources; high-quality technical products; and other qualifications according to the ESL.⁶⁴ CSP's must continuously be able to prove that they are qualified to operate under the ESL.⁶⁵ A CSP is allowed to issue a certificate only after the subscriber has provided sufficient identification and other personal information.⁶⁶ The CSP is bound to maintain the confidentiality of this information, but the CSP must divulge it to law enforcement authorities if they request it.⁶⁷ To prevent forgery, the CSP must ensure the security of the signature codes at all times and use only reputable personnel.⁶⁸ The subscriber will be given ownership of the private key and must be kept informed of the degree of security of the private key. 69 The subscriber must maintain the confidentiality of the private key. 70

The certificate must contain the subscriber's name or pseudonym; signature-test code, and the related algorithms; certificate number; dates of validity; the name of CSP and its location; any limitations on usage or monetary amount; and any special attributes of the subscriber.⁷¹ The CSP must post information relating to the certificates on the CSP's website.⁷² The CSP is mandated to invalidate the certificate if the requirements of the ESL are not complied with, and the subscriber also has the right to invalidate it.⁷³ The subscriber has the right to access his file kept by the CSP, ⁷⁴ and the CSP is not allowed to use the subscriber's

Arab Republic of Egypt, LAW NO. 15/2004 ON E-SIGNATURE AND ESTABLISHMENT OF THE INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY INDUSTRY DEVELOPMENT AUTHORITY (ITIDA), 2004. Republic of Finland, Ministry of Justice, ACT ON ELECTRONIC SIGNATURES, 2003.

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^{**} United Arab Emirates, FEDERAL LAW NO. (1) OF 2006 ON ELECTRONIC COMMERCE ANDTRANSACTIONS, 30 January 2006.

** Republic of Vanuatu, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ACT (Act. 24 of 2000).

** Republic of Vanuatu, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ACT (Act. 24 of 2000).

** Republic of Mongolia, Communications Regulatory Commission of Mongolia, LAW OF 15 DECEMBER 2011 ON ELECTRONIC SIGNATURE ("ESL"), 2011; https://crc.gov.mn/en/k/2lq/lq.

** ESL art. 34.

** ESL art. 34.

** ESL art. 35.

** ESL art. 5.

** ESL art. 5.

** ESL art. 5.

** ESL art. 8.

** ESL art. 8.

** ESL art. 8.

** ESL art. 19.

** ESL art. 10.

ESL art. 10 ESL art. 29

ESL art. 16. ESL art. 11.

ESL art. 9



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data for any purpose not related to the CSP's business. 75 If the CSP fails to abide by the ESL, the CSP is liable to third parties incurring damages as a result thereof.⁷⁶

A CSP planning to go out of business must inform the Commission. Those CSPs must inform their subscribers and must revoke all certificates that have been issued. Furthermore, they must find another CSP to assume their responsibilities.⁷⁷

Rudimentary E-government is included in the ESL. Public officials are mandated to record their official work in electronic form, and they are only allowed to use digital signatures; they may not use other E-signatures.⁷⁸

Enforcement of the ESL

The ESL does not contain computer crimes, but it does provide fines. If an imposter CSP operates without a license, the illegal income from his activities shall be confiscated. If an individual, a fine shall be imposed equal to 10 to 15 times the minimum wage; if an entity, a fine shall be imposed equal to 20 to 25 times the minimum wage.⁷⁹

A public official disclosing information from a private key shall be fined. If an individual, the fine will be 3 to 5 times the minimum wage; if an entity, the fine shall be 20 to 25 times the minimum wage. 80 A public official who uses an E-signature that is not a digital signature, or a public official who does not record official work in electronic form, shall be fined. If an individual, the fine shall be 3 to 5 times the minimum wage; if an entity, the fine shall be 5 to 10 times the minimum wage. A public official who fails to fulfill the demands of a state inspector shall be imposed a fine of 3 to 5 times the minimum wage; if an entity, the fine shall be 5 to 10 times the minimum wage.⁸¹

A CSP who does not fulfill his legal obligations under the ESL shall have his license revoked and all income from his business shall be forfeited. If an individual, he shall be fined 10 to 15 times the minimum wage; if an entity, it shall be fined 15 to 25 times the minimum wage. A CSP who does not suspend the holder of a certificate for violating its terms shall be fined 10 to 15 times the minimum wage. A CSP who does not suspend a certificate at the expiration of its term shall be fined 3 to 5 times the minimum wage. A CSP who does not inform the holder that his certificate has been suspended will be fined 5 to 10 times the

A person making unauthorized changes to an E-document by breaching the ESL shall be fined 5 to 10 times the minimum wage. If a public official, the fine shall be 10 to 15 times the minimum wage; if an entity, the fine shall be 20 to 25 times the minimum wage.83

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR REFORMATION OF MONGOLIA'S E-COMMERCE LAW

Add: Consumer Protections in E-Commerce Contracts

Mongolia currently requires internet advertisers to identify themselves, provide their contact information, and provide a memorandum to customers when they make an internet payment.⁸⁴ However, Mongolian internet purchasers need more protection. As a model, Mongolia can look to Tunisia for an example of a nation with good consumer protections for E-commerce buyers. All of Tunisia's E-commerce consumer protections are commendable: (1) buyers have a "last chance" to review the order before it is entered into; (2) they have a 10-day window of opportunity to withdraw from the agreement after it has been made; (3) they have the right to a refund if the goods are late or if they do not conform to the specifications, and (4) the risk remaining on the seller during the 10-day trial period after the goods have been received.⁸⁵

Add: Several New Computer Crimes

The following computer crimes should be recognized: (a) Unauthorized Access to Computer Material; (b) Unauthorized Tampering with Computer Information; (c) Unauthorized Use of a Computer Service; (d) Unauthorized Interference in the Operation of a Computer; and (e) Unauthorized Dissemination of Computer Access Codes or Passwords. The Singapore Computer Misuse Act can be used as a model.86

Add: Information Technology Courts

Because of the specialized knowledge often required in the adjudication of E-commerce disputes, Information Technology Courts should be established as a court-of- first-instance for them. The I.T. Courts would be tribunals consisting of three experts. The chairperson would be an attorney versed in E-commerce law, and the other two persons would be an I.T. expert and a business management expert. The attorney would be required to hold a law degree and be a member of the bar with relevant legal experience; the I.T. person would be required to hold a graduate degree in an I.T.-related field and have experience in that field,

⁸⁴ Republic of Mongolia, Communications Regulatory Commission of Mongolia, LAW OF 30 MAY 2002

¹⁵ ESL art. 32. ¹⁶ ESL art. 29. ¹⁷ ESL art. 29.

⁹ ESL art. 36

ON ADVERTISEMENT, Art. 12, 2002; https://crc.gov.mn/en/k/x8

⁸⁶ Republic of Tunisia, ELECTRONIC EXCHANGES AND ELECTRONIC COMMERCE LAW, 2000.
⁸⁶ Republic of Singapore, COMPUTER MISUSE ACT (Cap. 50A), 30 August 1993.



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and the business management expert would be required to hold a graduate degree in business administration and have managerial experience. The E-commerce law of Nepal can be used as a model.⁸⁷

Add: Mandatory E-Government

To reduce cost and to make governmental functions more convenient for citizens, E-government needs to be emphasized and mandated. By established deadlines, governmental departments should begin to offer online services to citizens. Government communiques to citizens should be in electronic form if at all possible. The best example for Mongolia to follow in the implementation of mandatory E-Government is Puerto Rico; its Electronic Government Act is exemplary.⁸⁸

Add: Explicit Long-Arm Jurisdiction

Because so many of the E-transactions will occur between Mongolians and parties outside the borders of the nation, it would be prudent for Mongolia to formally state its claim of "long-arm" jurisdiction against any party who is a resident or citizen of a foreign country, so long as that party has established "minimum contacts" with Mongolia. 89 Minimum contacts will exist, for example, if a cyber-seller outside of Mongolia makes a sale to a party living within Mongolia. In that situation, the cyber laws of Mongolia should apply to the foreign person or entity outside of Mongolia because that person or firm has affected Mongolia through the transmission of a message that was received in Mongolia. The foreign party should not be allowed to evade the jurisdiction of the Mongolia courts merely because they are not physically present in the country. After all, E-commerce is an inherently international phenomenon.

CONCLUSIONS

Mongolia's E-Signature Law is third-generation; it recognizes the legal validity of all types of E-signatures but gives a preference to the digital signature. The statute focuses on the regulation and required business practices of Certification Service Providers, but does not devote enough attention to other important issues. Mongolia's E-commerce law should be reformed by adding: (1) consumer protections for E-commerce participants; (2) several new computer crimes; (3) information technology courts; (4) mandatory E-government; (5) and explicit long-arm jurisdiction.

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⁷ Kingdom of Nepal, ELECTRONIC TRANSACTIONS ORDINANCE NO. 32 OF THE YEAR 2061 B.S. (2005 A.D.), s 60-71 Commonwealth of Puerto Rico, ELECTRONIC GOVERNMENT ACT ("EGA"), Act No. 151 of 22 June 2004; <a href="http://www.os/burney-bur

^{**} The Republic of Tonga is an example of a nation that has claimed long-arm jurisdiction over E-Nomice Parties, and its statute may be used as a model. See, Stephen E. Blythe, "South Pacific Computer Law: Promoting E-Commerce in Vanuatu and Fighting Cyber-Crime in Tonga," 10:1 JOURNAL OF SOUTH PACIFIC LAW (2006), a publication of the School of Law, University of the South Pacific, Emalus Campus, Port Vila, Republic of Vanuatu.



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