The Chinese Scholarship on Mongolia and Its Development Trend

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Abstract: Since the normalization of the relationship between China and Mongolia in the early 1990s, the Chinese academia has conducted a multi-angle research on Mongolia’s political and economic transformation, foreign policy, and social culture. Especially on the contents of the Belt and Road, since the President of China proposed the China-Mongolia-Russia Economic Corridor in 2014, Chinese universities and research institutions have successively established the Mongolia Research Centers and related research institutions, dedicated to research on the corridor construction, Sino-Mongolian strategic development, humanities exchange, and other related researches. This paper will introduce China’s Mongolia Research Centers and other related research institutions and analyze the Chinese scholarship on Mongolia and its development trend.

Keywords: China, Mongolia, Scholarship

Introduction

China and Mongolia are friendly neighbors sharing the longest border (4700 km) among their respective neighbors. The two countries established diplomatic relations on October 16, 1949. In 1991, Punsalmaagin Ochirbat, the first president after the collapse of communism, went to China as his first official visit abroad; meanwhile, Yang Shangkun became the first Chinese president to visit Mongolia in the same year. Moreover, the visit of Chinese Premier Li Peng to Ulaanbaatar in April 1994 was probably one of the most important of these diplomatic exchanges. Li signed a Treaty of Friendship and Cooperation meant to define Sino-Mongolian relations that have laid the political and legal foundation for the healthy and stable development of the bilateral relationship (Rossabi, Morris. 2005, p 232).

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**China’s Mongolia Research Centers and other Related Research Institutions**

Mongolia is an important country along the Belt and Road and a pivot region (Mackinder H.J., 1904) for the construction of the China-Mongolia-Russia Economic Corridor. Especially on the contents of the Belt and Road, after the President of China proposed the China-Mongolia-Russia Economic Corridor in 2014, Chinese universities and research institutions have successively established Mongolia Research Centers (1) and other related research institutions, dedicated to research on the corridor construction, Sino-Mongolian strategic development, humanities exchange, and other related topics.

1. **Center for Studies of Mongolia, Inner Mongolia University**

   The Center for Studies of Mongolia, Inner Mongolia University, was established on March 2016. It plays a leading role in China’s Mongolia Research Centers, establishing the Mongolia Research Association of China, and has been publishing *The Mongolia Studies* annually since 2016. The current director of the center is Professor Bayarmend, who also serves as the president of the Mongolia Research Association of China. The center was established based on the former Institute of Neighboring Countries Research Institute, School of Mongolian Studies of the Inner Mongolia University, and introduced some scholars from other departments. There are 10 full-time researchers, including 3 professors, 2 associate professors, and 5 lecturers now, mainly researching on Mongolian politics, economy, diplomacy, language, literature, history, culture, religion, news media, and more (2).

2. **The Russia-Mongolia Research Institute, Inner Mongolia Academy of Social Sciences**

   The Russia-Mongolia Research Institute was established on July of 2008 and was renamed as the Inner Mongolia’s Belt and Road Research Institute on March of 2018. There are the Mongolia Research Office, Russian Research Office, and Regional Cooperation Research Office within the Institute. The current director is Researcher (Professor) Fan Lijun and there are 11 full-time researchers. Their main field of research covers the economic and trade relations and the cultural exchanges among Russia, Mongolia, and China, as well as the bilateral relations between Russia and Mongolia, and the internal affairs, diplomacy, and hot social topics of these
countries. Moreover, the institute has been organizing the writing of the annual *The Blue Book of Mongolia* since 2018 (3).

3. **Mongolia Research Center, Peking University**

The Mongolia Research Center, Peking University, was established in 2017 as a part of the National and Regional Research Center of the Ministry of Education in China. It forms “one center but two brands” with the Mongolian Studies Center of Peking University that was established in 2004. The current director of the center is Professor Wang Hao. There are 6 full-time researchers and 1 visiting expert, researching on the cultural exchanges between China and Mongolia, especially on the translation and dissemination of Chinese and Mongolian literary works (4).

4. **Research Center for Mongolia, Huazhong University of Science and Technology**

The Research Center for Mongolia, Huazhong University of Science and Technology, was established on October 6, 2016. It is affiliated with the School of Economics and has signed cooperation agreements with the Mongolian National University and Mongolian University of Science and Technology. The current director of the center is Professor Xu Xiaoping from the School of Economics. There are 21 full-time researchers and 3 external experts (Naranbayar, Zayakhuu Tserendulam from Mongolia Strategic Research Institute, and Khurelbaatar Bulgantuya from Minister of Finance of Mongolia), mainly researching on the fields of China-Mongolia economic and trade cooperation, energy development, industrial development, and the urbanization process of Mongolia (5).

5. **Research Center for Mongolia, Dalian Minzu University**

The Research Center for Mongolia, Dalian Minzu University, was established on June 14, 2019. It is one of the National and Regional Research Center of the National Ethnic Affairs Commission of China on the Belt and Road Initiative. Professor Heilong serves as the director of the center. There are several full-time researchers, mainly focusing on the construction of the China-Mongolia-Russia Economic Corridor, the cultural exchanges between China and Mongolia, and Mongolia’s foreign policy toward China (6).

6. **Mongolia’s Educational Research Center, Minzu University of China**

Mongolia’s Educational Research Center, Minzu University of China, was established in 2018. It is a National and Regional Research Center of the National Ethnic Affairs Commission of China.
is the director of the center, leading his team mainly research on Mongolia’s educational system, training methods, and Sino-Mongolian educational cooperation (7).

7. Sino-Mongolian Research Center, Tianjin Foreign Studies University

The Sino-Mongolian Research Center, Tianjin Foreign Studies University, was established on September 29, 2020. Professor Qi Xin was appointed as the senior instructor of the center. There are 16 students enrolled in the newly opened Mongolian language class. The center mainly researches on Mongolia’s role in the Belt and Road and the China-Mongolia-Russia Economic Corridor (8).

In addition, there are full-time researchers on Mongolia in many other institutions, such as the Institute of International Studies, the Northeast Asian Research Center of the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, the Institute of Ethnology and Anthropology of the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, the Northeast Asian Institute of the Heilongjiang Provincial Academy of Social Sciences, the Northeast Asian Studies College of Jilin University, and the Northeast Asia of the Jilin Academy of Social Sciences, the Northeast Asian Research Center of Dalian University of Foreign Languages, and the Russian-Mongolian Research Institute of the Inner Mongolia University of Technology and more.

The Chinese Scholarship on Mongolia

Since the normalization of the relationship between China and Mongolia in the 1990s, the Chinese academia has conducted multi-angle researches on Mongolia’s political and economic transformation, foreign policy, social culture, and economic and trade cooperation (9).

1. On Mongolia’s Political Transformation

Mongolia undertook the Democratic Revolution in a relatively peaceful way in the early 1990s, and introduced a new constitution in 1992, changing the name of the state to Mongolia (the People’s Republic was dropped), and renounced its former Soviet-style socialist political system and adopted a Western-style multi-party parliamentary system.

Mongolia’s political transformation has attracted extensive attention from Chinese scholars. Siyuan (2010), an independent scholar from Beijing, visited Mongolia in 1997 and interviewed five important participants of the Democratic Revolution in the early 1990s, and emphasized that the key to Mongolia’s successful political transformation was the Mongolian People’s
Revolutionary Party’s advocacy of pluralism and human rights and opposition to power monopoly and class control. Meanwhile, Sun Shuli (1996), an editor of *China Security Studies*, addressed that the Mongolian Democratic Alliance won 50 seats out of 76 in the National Great Hural election in 1996, which meant that Mongolian politics have entered a new stage since it is a symbol of the victory over the People’s (Revolutionary) Party that has been in power for 75 years. Meanwhile, this leads to a new situation of vicious competition between two big political parties.

In addition, regarding the study of Mongolia’s political system and party relations, Nars (2005), professor of Inner Mongolia University, investigates that the nature of Mongolia’s new co-ruling government in 2004 indicates that Mongolia has formed a new type of dualistic political culture in which two major political interest groups compete for hegemony. Furthermore, Li Chao (2021), associate researcher of The Russia-Mongolia Research Institute, Inner Mongolia Academy of Social Sciences, pointed out that Mongolia’s multi-party parliamentary system is a mixed system with the characteristics of a semi-presidential system. After 30 years of political transformation, Mongolia’s political reform has entered a period of consolidation, but its dilemma is that no matter which political party is in power, it is difficult to fundamentally solve the social and political problems.

The Chinese scholarship on Mongolia’s political transformation, while affirming the successful political transformation, doubts whether this new dualistic political culture can fundamentally solve Mongolia’s political and social problems. Moreover, Chinese academia pays special attention to each Mongolian parliamentary and presidential election. There are relatively huge news commentaries, mainly discussing the political and diplomatic trends of the new government and the new president and their influence on the future of China-Mongolia relationship.

### 2. On Mongolia’s Economic Transformation, Agricultural and Industrial Development

The privatization of state-owned assets and the shift to a market economy system are the core contents of Mongolia’s economic transformation. Urtsetseg (2003), professor of Inner Mongolia University, thinks that Mongolia’s economic transformation follows the East European radical economic reform model, the so-called “shock therapy”, with great blindness. Although Mongolia’s economy has heavily suffered, it brought preliminary positive results. Meanwhile, Shirem (1997), the honorary president of the Mongolia Research Association of China, mentioned that Mongolia’s economic transformation went hand in hand with the drastic political changes. The turbulent superstructure and weak economic foundation of Mongolia
caused the transformation to face a harsh situation.

Since the 1990s, Mongolia’s economic development has experienced ups and downs, and the overall development has not been stable. In this regard, Zhang Xiujie (2020), researcher at the Northeast Asian Institute of the Heilongjiang Provincial Academy of Social Sciences, emphasizes that the crux of the problem lies in an extreme imbalance of the economic structure, the single pillar of economic development, the excessive dependence on resources and foreign investments, and the frequent changes in the environment of economic development. Moreover, Cui Xiuping (2021), associate professor of Inner Mongolia University of Finance and Economics, thinks that in addition to the overall low level of social and economic development, Mongolia also faces another serious problem, which is the extreme imbalance of domestic regional economic development.

Regarding the development of Mongolia’s animal husbandry, Mails and Urtogtokh (2015), lecturer and professor of Inner Mongolia Normal University, explored the issue and argued that the main ways for traditional animal husbandry to get out of the predicaments are adherence to nomadic production methods, improvements of the market-oriented service system in pastoral areas, and development of new market entities. Moreover, Bao Fenglan (2015), professor of Inner Mongolia Normal University, examined how Mongolia’s national macroeconomic policies and traditional lifestyles in pastoral areas have caused poverty among herders. In order to solve the poverty issues, Dagulaa (2015), associate professor of Inner Mongolia Normal University, proposes to increase herder income from the perspective of the government and herders. In addition, Chinese scholars also wrote about the development of the Mongolian cashmere industry, and analyzed the advantages and disadvantages by comparing it with China’s cashmere industry, and put forward corresponding development suggestions and measures (10).

More importantly, it is a common view in China that the mining industry is the pillar of Mongolia’s economic development. However, the absolute dominance of the mining industry has caused the extreme imbalance in Mongolia’s industrial structure. Mungensan (Meng Gencang. 2019, p183-191), associate professor of Inner Mongolia University, thinks that Mongolia’s attraction of foreign investment to develop the mining industry has led to the rise of resource nationalism. Its essence is to ensure the control of domestic energy and mining while avoiding geopolitical risks that are highly dependent on a certain country. Khugiilt (2017), professor of Inner Mongolia University, mentions that the Mongolian economy’s excessive dependence on mining production and export trade of mineral products, coupled with Mongolia’s unique geographical location, becomes a challenging factor affecting the country’s long-term economic development. Furthermore, Bao Mingqi (2017), lecturer at College of Hetao,
Bayanuur city of Inner Mongolia, points out that the stagnation of Mongolia’s mining industrial technological system has caused the instability and insecurity of Mongolia’s economic development.

To sum up, Chinese scholars believe that radical economic transformation has brought a series of problems to Mongolia's economic development. The overall characteristic of Mongolia’s economy is traditionally based on animal husbandry, and the development of mineral resources is considered to be the driving force of its industrial production. And, the imbalance of the economic structure of Mongolia harms its stable economic development.

### 3. On Mongolia’s Foreign Policy and National Security Strategy

After the Democratic Revolution in the early 1990s, Mongolia changed its foreign policy of fully following the Soviet Union, to one of pursuing a non-aligned and multi-pivot balanced diplomacy, formulating the “equal distance” diplomacy with China and Russia, and at the same time developing active relations with “third neighbor” countries such as the United States, European countries as well as Japan, South Korea, and India.

Regarding Mongolia’s new diplomacy, Li Dajun (2005), professor of National Defense University, China, argues that after the disintegration of the Soviet Union, Mongolia lost its political support and suffered a huge economic blow, which prompted Mongolia to make major adjustments to its foreign policy. Ba Dianjun (2016), professor at the Northeast Asian Studies College of Jilin University believes that Mongolia’s foreign policy pursued its independent diplomatic strategies only after the end of the Cold War, for the reason that Mongolia proposed the above-mentioned adjustment of new diplomacy. However, Wang Chengjuan (2011), doctor of China Foreign Affairs University, addressed that the development of globalization, the democratization of international relations, and the transformation of the new international political and economic order have played an important role in promoting the adjustment of Mongolia’s foreign policy. Moreover, Naran (2004), professor of Inner Mongolia University, argues that Mongolia’s active development of balanced relations with major powers means to ensure the country’s independence, security, and future development, expanding its own diplomatic space and improving its international status, through the balancing relationships among major powers to restrain each other in order to get more benefits from them. However, Mongolia should pay attention to becoming a bargaining chip for major powers that might result in its strategic interest not being guided by its own will.

On the relationships with its two big neighbors—Russia and China, Zhang Lijun (1997), associate professor of Peking University, shows that since Mongolia is caught between China and Russia, how to ensure its sovereignty and national safety is always the primary objective of its foreign policy. Lu Junyuan (2000), professor of Jiangnan Institute of Sociology, investigated that, as a “sandwiched” inland country, Mongolia’s unique geopolitics determines its foreign policy. Therefore, Mongolia tries its best to maintain “equal distance” relations between China and Russia and at the same time maintain all-
round diplomacy with the United States and European countries as an important balancing force. However, Sun Na (2000), associate researcher at the Northeast Asian Institute of the Heilongjiang Provincial Academy of Social Sciences, emphasizes that Mongolia’s two neighbors do not want a third country, especially the United States, to intervene in Mongolian affairs.

As China’s comprehensive national strength has been increased significantly, Mongolia needs to redefine its relationship with China, the way in which actively cooperating with China, meanwhile preventing China’s rise from endangering its sovereignty and national security (Yang Xiaoyan 2009). In addition, Fang Hua (2010), associate professor at the Institute of International Studies, discusses that China-Mongolia economic and trade relations have been developing rapidly, and China has become Mongolia’s largest trading partner. Due to the historical problems between China and Mongolia, a considerable number of people in Mongolia are still wary of China, worrying that Mongolia is excessively dependent on China economically.

With the joint building of the China-Mongolia-Russia Economic Corridor, as one of the six Corridors in the Belt and Road initiative, issues such as China-Mongolia economic and trade cooperation and Mongolia’s role in the Belt and Road become academic hotspots, and Chinese scholars have published a huge number of papers on these topics. Especially, since the opening of the China-Mongolia-Russia Think Tank International Forum in 2015, the tripartite scholars have put forward numerous measures and suggestions on promoting the construction of the economic corridor (Meng Gencang 2019).

After the disintegration of the Soviet Union, due to Russia’s own internal and external troubles in the early 1990s, Russia no longer have the incentive to shape Mongolia’s foreign policy. However, after Vladimir Putin came to power, he realized that Mongolia was still a country with special strategic value in Russia’s overall foreign strategy and tried to redefine Russia-Mongolia relations. Therefore, Zhang Xiujie (2005) considers that Russia, whether politically, economically, or geostrategically, tries its best to put Mongolia within its sphere of influence. Narnaa (2015), doctor of Jilin University, discussed that although Mongolia and Russia are no longer traditional political and military allies, the political, economic, military, and cultural ties formed in history have defined the unique relations between these two countries. However, Fan Lijun (2011), researcher of The Russia-Mongolia Research Institute, Inner Mongolia Academy of Social Sciences, argues that, as of 2010, Mongolia and Russia finally resumed almost all the cooperative relations established during the Soviet era, laying a good foundation for the future development of the bilateral relationship.

In general, the relationships with its two big neighbors, although Mongolia has tried to not rely on any country in terms of politically, economically, and diplomatically after its peaceful transition, so far it has been difficult for Mongolia to change its economic dependence on China and Russia, especially its dependence on the later for energy supply and the former for trade (Wulantuya 2019).

On the relationship with the “third neighbors”, Chinese scholars believe that Mongolia borrowed the concept of the “third neighbor” from former US Secretary of State James Addison Baker, who proposed that the United States was willing
to be the “third neighbor” besides China and Russia when he visited Mongolia in 1991.
In particular, after the former U.S. President George W Bush visited Mongolia in 2005, formally establishing the “neighboring country” relationship with Mongolia, the concept of the “third neighbor” diplomacy attracted more attention from Chinese scholars.

Mongolia’s “third neighbor” diplomacy breaks its natural geopolitical barriers and provides a broad space for its diplomatic relationships (Narina 2015). Wu Zaizheng (2007), researcher of People’s Liberation Army Foreign Language College, discusses that, in Mongolia’s view, a powerful “third neighbor” would not only bring economic benefits to it, but also restrain the influences of its two great neighbors. However, Ma Liguo (2019), associate professor of Inner Mongolia University of Technology, emphasizes that Mongolia's “third neighbor” diplomacy is not only an attempt to balance between its two major neighbors but also an act that is restricted by the major powers.

In practice, the United States has become the first choice for Mongolia’s “third neighbor”. Wang Jianjun (professor of Inner Mongolia University)’s monograph The Study of Mongolian-American Relations is probably the most comprehensive book on the Mongolian-US relationship in Chinese scholarship today. He (2014) considers that the “third neighbor” diplomacy is an accelerator for the deepening of the Mongolia-US relationship, which is a product of Mongolia’s geopolitics and American democratic values. However, Naran (2004) notes that the development of the Mongolia-US relationship is the result of mutual practical needs, in which Mongolia regards the United States as a long-term strategic partner, and the United States believes that a democratic, free and independent Mongolia is in the interests of the United States.

Regarding the development trend of the Mongolia-US relationship, some Chinese scholars (Li Dajun 2005) are wary of it, considering that this is “a rock on the back of the rooster” (the map of China is like a rooster). In addition, Zhang Xiujie (2005) emphasizes that the United States is trying to take advantage of Mongolia’s favorable geopolitical position between China and Russia to control strategic locations in Northeast Asia. However, Zhang Lijun (1997) argues that Mongolia is fully aware of these geopolitical issues and tries to avoid provoking China and Russia by being too close to the United States.

Other than having the United States as a political and strategic neighbor, Mongolia regards Japan as an “economic neighbor”. Japan has provided large-scale economic aid to Mongolia, which is considered to be the most prominent feature of the Mongolia-Japan relationship. Ulaantuyaa (2019), researcher of Tianjin Academy of Social Sciences, thinks that Japan’s aid to Mongolia has played an important role in promoting market-oriented economic transition, political democratization, and socio-economic development, but at the same time, it has also caused some negative effects, making Mongolia difficult to lessen reliance on foreign aid. Meanwhile, Japan’s economic aid has received political feedback from Mongolia. Mongolia has also given positive support to Japan on major international issues, such as supporting Japan to become a permanent member of the United Nations Security Council (this is the only East Asian country that publicly supports Japan’s entry into the permanent membership of the UN Security Council), and Japan’s position on the issues of North Korea’s kidnapping of hostages, etc (Narina
Therefore, Liu Shumei (2009), associate professor of Inner Mongolia Normal University, believes that Japan’s ultimate intention is to make Mongolia to increasingly favor Japan. And Naran (2004) concludes that the purpose of Japan’s emphasis on its relation with Mongolia is to expand its political influence internationally and enhance its role in Asian affairs.

Furthermore, Chinese scholars are also concerned with the relationship between Mongolia and the Korean Peninsula. Naran investigates that South Korea has used Mongolia’s traditional friendly relations with North Korea to support its “Sunshine Policy” and leads Mongolia to play a mediating role between South Korea and North Korea. At the same time, Mongolia wants to participate in the peace-making process on the Korean Peninsula and seeks to play an active role, thereby enhancing its international status and influence (Nalin 2009). Li Yongchun (2015), associate researcher of the Chinese Academy of Social Sciences, discusses that there are many favorable conditions for the further development of economic cooperation between South Korea and Mongolia as a part of South Korea’s “Eurasian Plan”. Moreover, Li Min (2019), assistant researcher of the Institute of International Studies, emphasizes that Mongolia implements balanced diplomacy on the Korean Peninsula, maintaining a traditional friendly tie with North Korea and active economic cooperation with South Korea. Mongolia also advocates a peaceful resolution of the North Korean nuclear issue and actively explores its role in the region. Meanwhile, both North Korea and South Korea are striving to win Mongolia’s support, which provides Mongolia with a certain degree of diplomatic space and opportunity.

In general, Chinese scholars believe that Mongolia’s “third neighbor” is not a specific country, but refers to all other countries except China and Russia, and its purpose is to use a third party to balance its’ two big neighbors. And they think that the military penetration of the United States into Mongolia and Japan's active pursuit of developing relations with Mongolia have all had a certain impact on China's peripheral security. Therefore, Mongolia’s “third neighbor” diplomacy is the focus of continuous attention in Chinese academia.

On the relationships with multilateral international organizations, the Chinese academia mainly focuses on the relationships between Mongolia and the Shanghai Cooperation Organization (SCO), and between Mongolia and the European Union (EU). Bolor (2009), Master of Central China Normal University, suggests that the SCO, which is dominated by China and Russia, mainly depends on the relationships between the two big neighbors. Mongolia is interested in the economic and trade cooperation among the member countries of the organization but always has avoided its political cooperation. He points out that the reason why Mongolia has not formally joined the SCO is that the latter does not conform to its foreign strategy. In addition, concerning the relationship between Mongolia and the EU, Li Chao (2021) examines that the main motivation comes from the influence of the bilateral diplomatic values, the interaction in of the economic development, and the trust of aid projects.

Generally speaking, Wang Chengjuan (2011), doctor of China Foreign Affairs University, concludes that Mongolia’s “third neighbor” diplomacy seeks the United States as a “political and strategic neighbor”, Japan as an “economic
neighbor”, India as a “spiritual neighbor”, South Korea as an “important neighbor” for labor exports, and the EU as an being “educational neighboring countries”.

To sum up, Chinese scholars divide Mongolia’s new diplomacy into three levels: relations with Russia and China, relations with the “third neighbors”, and relations with multilateral international organizations. Among these, maintaining “equal distance” with its two big neighbors is the basis of Mongolia’s diplomatic structure; developing active relations with the “third neighbors” is the “multi-pivot” of its foreign policy; participating in international organizations at all levels is to seek the “re-guarantee” of its security and economic benefits (Song Xiaofeng 2011).

4. On Mongolia’s Social-cultural Studies

Compared with studies in the fields of Mongolia’s politics, diplomacy, and economics, Chinese scholars have less research on social-cultural fields, and there are huge research gaps. As a result, Mongolia has become a very strange close neighbor to the Chinese people. However, there are scholarships on the restoration of the classical Mongolian scripts, national/ethnic issues, and religions, and other topics. Regarding the restoration of the classical scripts, many Chinese scholars discuss that the Uighur Mongolian script is only used as a symbol of Mongolian culture and for specific purposes, such as in the official seals of the parliament and government ministries and one the plaques of various departments (11).

Moreover, the research on Mongolia’s national/ethnic issues mainly focuses on the current situation of Mongolia’s Kazakh, Tuva, Tsaadan, and Khamnigan people (Wuriwute 2019) and the migration of Kazakhs to Kazakhstan in the early 1990s (Tumenqiqige 1999). However, due to the influence of the concept of nationality (minzu in Chinese) in China, these scholars have not noted that the non-Mongolic people in Mongolia should be defined as a nationality or ethnic group. In addition, there are some articles and dissertations on the relationship between Mongolia’s state and religion (Tumenqiqige 2002), Mongolian Shamanism (Bao Haibo 2021), Mongolian urban and rural residents (Haiying 2019), and archaeology.

Conclusion

The Chinese scholarship on Mongolia has strong Chinese characteristics that mainly focus on the political, economic, and diplomatic subjects from the Chinese perspective. Most of these studies focus on analyzing the status quo of Mongolia’s socio-economic development, the political and economic reforms and its existing problems, and the adjustment of Mongolia’s diplomatic strategy, its reasons, contents, and influences. Unfortunately, there is very little theoretical research in these fields.

The Chinese scholarship on Mongolia has obvious regional characteristics, and the
research centers are mainly concentrated in the Inner Mongolia Autonomous Region and the Northeast Regional provinces. Compared with studies of other Northeast Asian countries, Mongolia studies in China are still at a relatively weak stage and have a huge room for further research. At present, there is no specific journal for Mongolia studies in China. Related research articles are mainly published in journals such as Northeast Asia Forum, Northeast Asia Journal, and Contemporary Asia Pacific, etc (12).

China’s Mongolia Research Centers have a think-tank type development trend, providing decision-making information and policy recommendations for various fields of cooperation between China and Mongolia.

Notes

1 The Mongolia Research Center, 蒙古国研究
中心 in Chinese, is an area study center,
different from the Center for Mongolian
Studies or School of Mongolian Studies (蒙古
学研究中心).
2 For further information about The Center for
Studies of Mongolia, Inner Mongolia
University, please check:
https://mggzx.imu.edu.cn/index.htm
4 https://sfl.pku.edu.cn/
5 http://eco.hust.edu.cn/info/1031/2311.htm
6 https://new.dlnu.edu.cn/info/1041/18368.htm
7 https://www.muc.edu.cn/kxyj/kyjg.htm
8 http://www.tjfsu.edu.cn/
9 As of March 2024, CNKI（China National
Knowledge Infrastructure）shows more than
3,545 academic papers and 2,363 dissertations
on Mongolia.
10 For further information please check: 陈雪

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