

中央研究院

歷史語言研究所集刊

第三十六本

紀念董作賓·董同龢兩先生論文集

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中華民國五十五年六月

臺 灣 臺 北

NOTES ON THE T'EN (YANGHUANG) LANGUAGE

Part I: Introduction and Phonology

FANG-KUEI LI

University of Washington

The speakers of the T'en language⁽¹⁾, known to the Chinese as Yanghuang 羊黃 or 楊黃, are now found in a small number of villages in the district of Huishui 惠水 (formerly Tingfan 定番), just south of the provincial capital Kweiyang 貴陽. They live among the Northern Tai speakers, and usually know the local Tai dialect. In the Kweichow T'ung-chih 貴州通志 (1741), the Yanghuang people are said to be very numerous and to be found all over the province with many subgroups, but in the Kweiyang Fu Chih 貴陽府志 (1850), they are said to be found only in Tingfan, namely Huishui. The statement in Kweichow T'ung-chih apparently follows T'ien Wen's Chien Shu 田雯, 黔書 (1690), in which the Yanghuang people are said to be found as far northeast as in Lungch'uan 龍泉 (now called Fengkang 鳳岡), as far southeast as in Lip'ing 黎平, and also in Tuyün 都勻 and Lungli 龍里, almost in the center of the province. The interpretation of these different statements about the distribution of this group is a difficult one. To interpret them literally, we have to assume that the Yanghuang people were very numerous and inhabited a large portion of eastern Kweichow at the end of the seventeenth century to the middle of the eighteenth century. One hundred years later, the people were confined to only one district in about the center of the province, presumably replaced in the other districts by, or assimilated, to speakers of other languages such as Tai, Miao, or Chinese. The Chinese population there must have been still a minority at that time, and the rapid replacement by Chinese seems unlikely, although not impossible.

It is probable that the authors in 1690 and 1741 might have used the name Yanghuang in a wider sense to include a number of other related

(1) On the relationship of this language to Sui, Mak, and the Tai languages, see my Notes on the Mak Language 莫話記略, 1943, Monogr. 20 of this Institute, p. 1ff.

groups, such as Mak, Tung, Sui, and others, which are still found in the southeastern part of the province. Whatever the interpretation may be, it is evident that the Yanghuang people must have had a wider distribution than they have now, although they may not have been as numerous as the Ch'ien Shu or the Kweiyang Fu Chih makes them. They are now chiefly replaced by the Northern Tai speakers, I believe, or assimilated to them.

T'en is the name used in their own language to denote themselves. Its meaning is not known. Nor is the meaning clear about the Chinese name Yanghuang. It may have something to do with the fact that a number of the tribal chiefs (t'u-ssu 土司 or chang-kuan-ssu 長官司) in districts where they are said to have existed have the surname Yang 楊.

The material was collected in 1941 in a village three or four miles north of the city of Huishui where I stayed. For about two weeks I worked with an informant, Mr. Liu Yü-ch'ing 劉玉清, by walking daily to his village and back and occasionally with his son when he was busy. An attack of malaria cut short my stay there, and other research work prevented me later from visiting the place again. Thus the material is fragmentary, and consist of a few texts, a glossary, and some phrases for grammatical analysis. Because of the lack of information on this language which is apparently on the way to extinction, it seems useful to make available what there is in my collection. There will be three parts to these notes.

1. Introduction and Phonology.
2. Glossary.
3. Texts and Translations.

This paper will be Part 1 of these notes, and it is hoped that Part 2 and Part 3 will soon follow.

PHONOLOGY

The T'en language has the following consonants as initials of a syllable:

	Stops	Aspirated stops	Pre-glottalized	Nasals	Fricatives	
Labials:	p	ph	ʔb	m	f	w
Alveolars:	t	th	ʔd	n		l
Sibilants:	ts	tsh	ʔz		s	z
Velars:	k	kh		ŋ	x	ʃ
Others:	ʔ		ʔj			j

The labials, alveolars, and sibilants may be followed by /j/, thus the following clusters occur. /pj, phj, ʔbj, mj, fj, wj, tj, thj, ʔdj, nj, lj, tsj, sj, zj, and ʔzj/. Examples⁽¹⁾:—

/paa 35/ leg, /pjaak 22/ to separate, /phaa 44/ to split, /phjau 35/ to singe (hair), /ʔbee 13/ year, /ʔbjaak 31/ slippery, /mai 31/ tree, wood, /mjaak 22/ girl, /faan 22/ sweet, /fjaa 35/ pigtail, /wuu 35/ throat, neck, /wjaan 35/ garden. Note that /wj/ is phonetically [vj].

/tien 13/ foot, /tjuŋ 22/ to pound, /them 22/ sour, /thjaa 22/ to write, /ʔdaa 13/ eye, /ʔdjaa 44/ to rest, /naŋ 13/ nose, /njaan 13/ moon, month, /let 35/ iron, /ljuu 13/ clear.

/tsuu 53/ pair, /tsjaan 44/ cock's comb, /tshem 13/ needle, /siŋ 13/ ginger, /sjee 31/ left (side), /zaa 44/ field, /zjaa 13/ boat, /ʔzan 35/ heavy, /ʔzjaau 35/ numb.

The velars may be followed by /w/. Thus there are the following clusters: /kw, khw, ŋw, and xw/. The velars are not followed by /j/, but there is a series of palatal stops, nasal, and fricative [t, th, n, ɕ], which may be considered as clusters of velar plus /j/, and may be phonemicized as /kj, khj, ŋj, and xj/. Examples:—

/kaai 44/ chicken, /kjaa 13/ salt, /kwaa 13/ melon, /kheu 44/ to bark, /khjiu 44/ dry, /khwaa 35/ to collapse like a land slide, /ŋaan 22/ yellow, /ŋjaa 13/ sesame, /ŋwaa 31/ tile, /xaa 31/ to kill, /xjaak 22/ guest, /xwen 35/ rain, /ɕaaŋ 35/ steel.

Examples for /ʔ, ʔj, and j/ are: /ʔaa 13/ mushroom, /ʔjin 13/ person, /jaak 22/ hungry.

There is also a high, rounded, front semivowel /y/, which is found, but rarely, after /t, th, and z/. Sometimes the two informants disagreed, in its use, the younger informant used /y/ and the older one /u/, for example: /tem 53 tyaa 44/ chestnut, /thuei 35/ or /thyei 35/ snake, /zyaan 53/ to pass on, hand over.

The consonants premitted as the final member of a syllable are /m, n, ŋ, p, t, and k/.

There are five vowel phonemes in this language. All vowels may be short or long. The long vowels are written double.

(1) After the forms, numerals and raised dots denotes tones, see below.

	Front	Back
High	i	u
Mid	e	o
Low	a	

/i/ is a short, high, front, lax vowel [ɪ]. Ex. /piŋ 35/ level, /pit 35/ to close.

/ii/ is a long, high front, tense vowel [i:]. Ex. /lii 35/ plough.

/e/ is a short, mid, central vowel [ə], in unstressed open syllables, in the diphthongs /ei, eu/, or when it is followed by a consonant. Ex. /te' njaan 13/ one month, /tei 35/ to take, /keu 22/ head, /khen 13/ road, /thaam 13 ɲet 31/ march, /zem 35/ wind, /zep 31/ dark. In the diphthong /ie/, it is fronted to [e]. Ex. /piet 22/ to pluck a string, /mien 22/ mat.

/ee/ is a long, front, open vowel [ɛ:]. Ex. /mee 35/ to have, /tee 22/ under.

/a/ is a short, back vowel between [ɑ] and [ʌ]. Ex. /mai 44/ new, /man 35/ fat, oil, /maŋ 13/ deep pool, /tau 53/ bean, pea, /tap 35/ liver.

/aa/ is a long, front, low vowel [a:]. After /j/, it is raised to [æ:]. Ex. /paai 13/ to go, /taau 44/ to return, /sjaaŋ 22/ lunch, /mjaak 22/ girl.

/u/ is a short, high, back, lax vowel [ʊ]. Ex. /thuŋ 44/ to release, /nun 35/ to sleep, /nuŋ 31/ younger sister, /let 31 zut 35/ star, /tsuk 31/ to wash.

/uu/ is a long, high, back, tense vowel [u:]. Ex. /kja' muu 53/ tomb, /tsuu 53/ pair.

/o/ is a short, mid, back rounded vowel between [o] and [ɔ]. Ex. /tok 35/ to drop. /tsoŋ 35/ layer, /kja' kon 53/ bracelet, /²bot 31 pei 35/ to shed skin.

/oo/ is a long, mid, back, rounded vowel [ɔ:]. Ex. /poo 31/ cattle, /zoo 53/ breath.

There is also a tongue tip vowel or syllabic /z/, which occurs in a few words after /s/ and /ts/, for example, /sz 44 wuu 44/ a kind of reed, /jii 22 tsz 44/ soap.

The diphthongs /ie, ue/ must be followed by a consonant, the diphthongs and triphthongs /ai, aai, au, aau, ei, oi, ui, iu eu, ieu, uei/ may not be followed by a consonant. In my material there are the following combinations of vowels and consonant endings.

aa	a	ee	e	ii	i	oo	o	uu	u
aa <i>i</i>	a <i>i</i>	—	e <i>i</i>	—	—	—	o <i>i</i>	ue <i>i</i>	u <i>i</i>
aak	ak	eek(?)	—	iek	ik	—	ok	uek	uk
aam	am	—	em	iem	im	—	om	uem	—
aan	an	—	en	ien	in	—	on	uen	un
aaŋ	aŋ	—	—	ieŋ	iŋ	—	oŋ	ueŋ	uŋ
aap	ap	—	ep	iep	ip	—	op	—	—
aat	at	eet(?)	et	iet	it	—	ot	uet	ut
aau	au	—	eu	ieu	iu	—	—	—	—

There is only one form each for -eek and -eet, i. e. /tem 53 ʔjeek 22/ grapes, and /ʔjeet 22 ʔzem 35/ to scratch (itch). From the general pattern of distribution, these two forms may be suspected to be misrecordings, perhaps of /ʔjiet/ and /ʔjiek/. The non-existence of /-ek, -eŋ/ is probably not accidental, they have probably merged with /-ak, -aŋ/. It may also be observed that the short vowels do not occur in open syllables except when they are unstressed. The distinction between the long and the short vowel is best maintained only in the low vowel /aa, a/, elsewhere the long vowel occurs normally in open syllables, and the short vowel in closed syllables or in unstressed open syllables. It may be best to treat the long vowels as clusters.

There are six tones in normally stressed syllables, and only two registers for the unstressed syllables. The six tones are.

- | | |
|------------------------------|----|
| 1. Rising from low to mid. | 13 |
| 2. Rising from mid to high. | 35 |
| 3. Mid-low level. | 22 |
| 4. Falling from mid to low. | 31 |
| 5. Mid-high level. | 44 |
| 6. Falling from high to mid. | 53 |

Some proclitic and enclitic syllables are unstressed, and sometimes with vocalic modification of the stressed forms, if the stressed forms can be elicited. The unstressed syllables may have a high register or a low register. The high register is marked by a raised dot, the low register will not be marked. Thus, /kjaa 35/ is a prefix or a numeral classifier used with many objects, utensils, and some body parts, and is often unstressed to /kja·/. Examples:

/kja· saai 13/ a sift, /kja· zaan 35/ a house, /kja· loŋ 22/ a winnowing

basket, /kja' tuei 31/ a bowl, /kja' taj 44/ a stool, /kja' tai 53/ a bag, /te' kjaa 35 them 13/ one heart. As dictionary entries, the stressed form /kjaa 35/ is generally used with a note that this syllable is often unstressed. The prefix /ne/ (low register) is often used with names of animals, but the stressed form is not known. Examples. /ne maa 13/ a dog, /ne. wei 35/ a water buffalo, /ne noo 22/ a rat, /ne mem 31/ a tiger, /ne meu 44/ a pig. /ne mem 53/ a fish, /te' too 35 ne meu 44/ one pig.

THE DISTRIBUTION OF TONES AND SYLLABIC TYPES

The syllable in T'en may be classified as a living syllable or as a dead syllable. These two terms are borrowed from Siamese grammarians. A living syllable is any syllable ending in a continuant, vowel, semivowel, or nasal, and a dead syllable is one ending in a stop consonant. The living syllable may have any of the six tones mentioned above, while the dead syllable is limited to only three tones: tone 2 for syllables with a short vowel, tone 3 for syllables with a long vowel or vowel cluster, and tone 4 for syllables with either a long vowel or vowel cluster, or a short vowel.

For example.

Living syllables	Dead syllables
/paai 13/ to go	
/xaai 35/ shoes	/put 35/ lung
/lai 22/ to get	/nuek 22/ flower
/mai 31/ tree	/laak 31/ child
/kaai 44/ chicken	/met 31/ ant
/tai 53/ bag	

STRESS

As far as my material is concerned, only the stressed and the unstressed syllables are marked. Among the stressed syllables, perhaps two stresses, the normal and the contrastive, need to be recognized, these are not consistently marked in my material.

Pauses are marked by commas, otherwise only intersyllabic junctures are marked by space.

REMARKS ON THE RELATIONSHIP OF T'EN TO MAK AND SUI

These are general remarks about the phonological characteristics of the T'en language in comparison with the Mak and the Sui language. No attempt

is made to go into a detailed comparison of these languages, or into their further relationship with the Tai languages. It is hoped that these remarks will be sufficient to place the T'en language in the group of languages to which it belongs.

1. T'en, like Mak, has no uvular series of consonants, which exist in Sui as a special series distinct from the velars. These two series generally merge in T'en, but occasionally still distinct in Mak. For example:

Sui	Mak	T'en	
qai 35	kaai 35	kaai 44	"chicken."
qau 35	kaau 35	kaau 44	"old."
khun 11	khun 13	khen 13	"road"
qha 11	ṭhaa 13	khaa 13	"ear"
kǎi 35	ṭai 35	kai 44	"egg"
khǎu 35	ṭhau 35	kheu 44	"to bark"

2. T'en, like Mak, has no voiceless and preglottalized nasals, which exist in Sui together with the ordinary nasals as three distinct series. For example:

Sui	Mak	T'en	
ʔna 11	naa 24	naa 35	"thick"
no 11	—	noo 13	"cold"
nan 52	naan 51	naan 31	"meat"

3. There are in T'en preglottalized stops /ʔb/ and /ʔd/ which correspond to /b/ and /d/ of Mak and Sui, but not to their /ʔb/ and /ʔd/. For example:

Sui	Mak	T'en	
ban 11	baan 13	ʔbaan 13	"male person"
be 11	bee 13	ʔbee 13	"year"
da 11	daa 13	ʔdaa 13	"eye"

4. Sui and Mak /ʔb/ corresponds to T'en /m/, and Sui and Mak /ʔd/ corresponds normally to T'en /l/. For example

Sui	Mak	T'en	
ʔban 44	ʔbaan 44	maan 22	"village"
ʔbaŋ 11	ʔbaaŋ 24	maaŋ 13	"thin"
ʔdai 11	ʔdaai 24	laai 13	"good"
ʔdoŋ 11	ʔdoŋ 24	loŋ 13	"forest"

5. Occasionally T'en /z/ also corresponds to Sui and Mak /ʔd/, /d/, /l/, and to Sui /r, ʔr/ uvular fricatives for which Mak has /ž, j/. For example.

Sui	Mak	T'en	
ʔdak 35	ʔdook 44	zaak 22	"bone"
ʔdam 11	ʔdam 24	zam 13	"to plant rice"
din 44	din 44	zen 22	"short"
dam 35	dam 35	zam 44	"low"
lum 11	lum 13	zem 35	"wind"
le 11	lee 13	zee 35	"writing"
ran 11	žaan 13	zaan 35	"house"
ri 11	žui 13	zui 35	"trace, footprints"
ʔra 35	jaa 35	zaa 44	"rice field"
ʔrum 11	jum 44	zuem 13	"lean"

6. T'en /th/ regularly corresponds to Sui /h/ and Mak /s/ or /ž/.

Sui	Mak	T'en	
ham 11	saam 13	thaam 13	"three"
han 11	saan 13	thaan 13	"to weave"
hai 52	žaa 44	thaa 31	"intestines"
haŋ 52	žaaŋ 51	thaaŋ 31	"to feed raise"

7. T'en sometimes agrees with Mak in having /l/ where Sui shows /kh/.

Sui	Mak	T'en	
khan 11	laan 13	laan 13	"nephew"
khau 44	laau 44	laau 22	"wine"

8. T'en /p/ sometimes corresponds to Sui /q/ and Mak /k/. It is to be noted that some other Sui dialects also show /p/ in agreement with T'en.

Sui	Mak	T'en	
qa 11	kaa 24	paa 35	"leg"
qau 11	kaau 24	pau 35	"horn"

There is a tendency in T'en to neutralize vowel distinctions found in Mak and Sui, and there are many other matters which can only be taken up in a detailed comparative study. The preceding remarks show that T'en, while closely related to Mak and Sui, must be considered as a separate language by itself.

評崔維澤 (D.C. Twitchett) 教授對 于唐代財政史的研究

全 漢 昇

D. C. Twitchett, *Financial Administration under the T'ang Dynasty*. (Cambridge, England: The University Press, 1963. xiii+374. \$ 18.50.)

過去西方漢學家有關中國中古歷史研究的著作，以四裔的研究為最有成績，關於中國內部社會經濟的研究可說少之又少。英國倫敦大學崔維澤 (D. C. Twitchett) 教授撰寫的唐代財政，對於我國在唐代 (618~907) 的財政措施及其有關問題都一一加以探討，顯現出自第二次世界大戰以來，西方漢學家對於中國中古社會經濟史的研究向前邁進了一步。不特如此，當二次大戰後在西方研究中國問題的學者，由漢學探討轉變為“中國研究” (Chinese Studies)，從而多半只自近百餘年中國歷史的衍變來瞭解中國的時候，崔維澤教授把近代以前的中國財政制度及和牠有連帶關係的經濟情況加以研究，讓讀者把視線擴大，當可使西方人士對於中國經濟、文化作較深入的瞭解。

崔維澤教授曾經把舊唐書食貨志譯成英文。他寫唐代財政這本書的目的，本來是要把牠作為舊唐書食貨志英譯的導論及註釋之用。可是，如果把食貨志的英譯和唐代財政都放在一起來印行，困難太多，費用太大，故只好先把唐代財政這本著作單獨付印。崔維澤教授在本書序文中很謙遜的說，他寫這本書的一個目的，是要把最近兩代中、日學者有關唐代歷史研究的一些成果介紹給西方讀者。事實上，除日本學者的各種著作以外，崔維澤教授對於本所研究唐史的同人，如陳寅恪先生、岑仲勉先生、嚴耕望先生的著述，以及拙作，都一一加以徵引參考。因此，崔維澤教授這本學術鉅著的出版，我們當然是感到欣慰的。

本書共分六章。第一章論述唐代的土地制度。中國自兩漢大一統帝國崩潰以後，經過長期的戰亂，到了唐初建國的時候，國家仍然擁有廣大面積的無主的土地，故可實行計口授田的均田制度，由政府把公有土地定期重新分配給農民來耕種。關於唐代田地的分配，崔維澤教授發見當日耕種的農民中，婦女所佔的比例非常之大。他根據日本學者仁井田陞的研究，說在西北邊境，如敦煌一帶，領有永業田的農民中，男姓佔百分之六七，女姓佔百分之三三。在農業人口中，婦女所佔的這種比例，可說非常之大。對於這種有趣的特點，崔維澤教授曾試加解釋，說這可能因為婦女可以免稅及不用服役，故好些農民都由家中婦女出名分配到土地來耕種，以便減輕租稅與徭役的負擔。在同一章中，崔維澤教授又把北周一夫一婦授田一百四十畝，唐代一丁男授田百畝，和一九三二年國民政府估計每一農家平均只有耕地二十一畝，來加以比較，發見唐代每人平均田地仍然相當的大。因此他說唐朝政府之所以實行均田制度，主要由于要鼓勵人民開墾新地或邊際土地來耕種，而不像法國漢學家馬伯樂 (Henri Maspero) 那樣認為均田制度的主要目的是要限制每人土地所有數量，以平均地權。

第二章討論唐代的直接稅制。在以農業為主的唐代社會中，土地是最主要的所得來源。當均田制度實行，每一丁男授田百畝，每人每年的所得大體上都差不了多少的時候，他們對政府的租、庸、調的負擔，數量也大體一樣，而以絹、綿、粟、米等實物來繳納。可是，事實上，隨着社會經濟的發展，在全國各階層人口中，每人所得的大小，或土地所有的數量，並不完全一樣，所以唐代政府又按照戶的等第的高下來徵收戶稅，按照每人實在擁有的土地面積的大小來徵收地稅。戶稅須以錢繳納，和以實物繳納的租、庸、調不同，是一種貨幣租稅，在天寶年間(742~756)每年的收入額，約為租、庸、調(就價值來說)的二三十分之一。地稅原來是因為政府要在各地設立義倉以備凶年賑貸而徵收的，稅率為每畝二升，在天寶年間每年的收入額為12,400,000石，約與租(12,600,000石)相等。當江南的租改以布帛繳納，以便減輕運費負擔來運送給中央政府的時候，江南因徵收地稅而得到的穀物便成為漕運米糧的主要來源。其後到了安、史之亂(755~762)前後，由于社會的激劇變動，各地逃戶、客戶越來越多，原來賴以徵收租、庸、調的丁籍變為有名無實，租、庸、調法便漸漸破壞。因此到了建中元年(780)，宰相楊炎便把租稅制度加以改革，開始實行兩稅法。對於兩稅

法，崔維澤教授認為過去學者未免過于重視貨幣租稅這一個特點，事實上在兩稅法實行以前唐代政府徵收的戶稅也是以錢繳納的。不過，我仍然認為，兩稅法在中國貨幣經濟發展的歷史上仍有牠的特殊意義；因為事實很明顯，當唐代政府只靠戶稅來徵收錢幣的時候，在每年政府歲入中錢所佔的比例非常之小，其後到了兩稅法實行以後，國庫收入中的錢却大量增加。

第三章敘述唐代的專賣制度與茶稅的課徵。唐代政府自安、史之亂爆發以後，軍事費用開支增大，由于財政上的迫切需要，先後實行鹽、酒、茶(初時徵收茶稅)的專賣。關於鹽的專賣，由第五琦、劉晏先後充任鹽鐵使，規定在產鹽地區的“亭戶”(鹽生產者)，可以免除徭役，但他們製出的鹽，只能按照一定的價格，出賣與政府在產鹽區設立的“監院”。監院收購到鹽後，再加上“權價”(為自亭戶買到的鹽價的十倍)，然後賣與鹽商，再由鹽商把鹽運往特定的銷鹽區域，轉賣給消費者。為着要保證鹽的專賣有效，政府特別在交通便利的地方設立“巡院”，查緝私鹽。唐在安、史之亂以後，藩鎮跋扈，他們自己掌握着軍隊，在管轄的區域內徵收到的租稅，往往擅自霸佔使用，不繳交中央政府。因為鹽的生產集中于某些地區，而煮鹽的生產設備，規模又相當的大，故中央政府比較容易管制，把自亭戶收購到的鹽，加上權價賣與商人，再由商人轉運往政府統治力量比較薄弱的地方，以高價出賣。而鹽又是人民日常生活必需品，就是價格昂貴也非消費不可，故鹽商可以把政府徵收的權價轉嫁給消費者。由于鹽的專賣事業的成功，唐自安、史亂後，每年的鹽利收入增多到六百萬貫(或緡)，約為當日政府錢幣歲入中的二分之一。除鹽利外，唐在中葉以後，酒、茶也由國家專賣，不過專賣收入遠在鹽利之下。權酒錢的收入，每年約為1,560,000貫。茶在專賣以後的收入不詳，但在專賣以前每年的茶稅收入，不過四十萬貫而已。

第四章研究唐代的貨幣與信用。在唐代流通的貨幣，以銅錢為主。不過銅錢本身的價值較低，當商業發展，在市場上須支付較高貨價的時候，人們往往使用絹或金、銀(尤其是銀)來做交換的媒介。可是，有如開元二十二年(734)的詔令所說，“布帛不可以尺寸為交易，菽粟不可以秒勺貿有無，”故唐代到了中葉以後，當商業發達，交易頻繁的時候，絹帛這一類實物貨幣的重要性是遠不及金屬貨幣那麼大的。不獨如此，當商人向遠地購買貨物的時候，相當于現在滙票的“飛錢”已經開始使用。同

時，在特別發展的商業中心，代替現款的支票已經開始使用。在那裏有“櫃坊”的設立，牠因為有保險櫃這一類的設備，爲人存放款項及價值貴重的物品，其後存款者如果要提取存款，不必親自前往，只要開出一張相當于現在支票的“帖”（初時只用存款人常用的某種物品作記號）便成。說到唐代的貨幣政策，在唐高宗（650~683）東征高麗及與突厥作戰時，及後來在安、史之亂時，政府由于財政收支不平衡，都曾經發行面值遠較實值爲高的大錢，以致造成貨幣貶值，私鑄盛行，物價狂漲的局面。自從建中元年（780）兩稅法實行以後，因爲夏、秋兩稅須以錢繳納，銅錢的需要激增。可是，在另外一方面，鑄造錢幣所用的銅，供應却常感不足（例如在806年，全國產銅266,000斤，847~860年間每年產銅655,000斤，可是到了北宋，以1078年爲例，產銅却多至14,605,969斤），從而鑄錢數額也大受限制。結果錢幣價值越來越增高，物價越來越下跌，以致造成通貨緊縮的局面。當錢幣價值越來越上漲的時候，有錢的人都爭着囤積錢幣來投機取利，從而物價更爲下落，通貨緊縮的危機更爲嚴重。爲着要緩和這種危機，中唐以後政府曾經屢次命令人民使用絹帛作交換媒介，不要光是用銅錢作貨幣來交易。可是，隨着當日社會經濟的發展，大家既然都感覺到“布帛不可以尺寸爲交易”，政府這種開倒車的行爲，當然是沒有多大效果的。爲着要解救貨幣緊縮的危機，到了唐武宗會昌五年（845），政府便實行毀法（佛法），下令把全國佛寺中的銅像、鐘、磬都加以沒收，改鑄成銅錢，以增加錢幣的流通量。

第五章論述唐代的運輸系統。中國自漢代以後，經過長時期的變動，全國的經濟重心，由西北轉移到長江流域，尤其是江、淮一帶。在另外一方面，因爲在北方及西北要防禦外患，或向外擴展，大唐帝國的軍事、政治重心仍然留在北方。位于西北的關中，農業生產常因旱災而歉收，可是在那裏及其附近却駐屯了重兵，集中了大量的人口（因爲位于關中的長安，是全國政治中樞所在的地方）。爲着要滿足這許多軍隊及其他人口的需要，政府每年須把自江、淮各地因課徵賦稅而收集到的米糧以及其他物資，大量北運。對於江、淮物資大量北運貢獻最大的交通線，是溝通南北的運河。在本章中，崔維澤教授把拙著唐宋帝國與運河（重慶，民國三三年；上海，民國三五年）所探討的問題，如唐高宗把洛陽建爲東都之經濟的原因，唐玄宗（712~756）時代裴耀卿、韋堅等對於漕運改良的貢獻，安、史亂後運河交通的阻塞與劉晏的改革，代宗