

主编 刘春阳 朱殿勇 刘 辉



澳大利亚文化

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主 编 刘春阳 朱殿勇 刘 辉副主编 崔 丹 龙 飞

内容简介

本书介绍了澳大利亚的地理概貌、历史背景、政治制度、经济概况、科学技术、文化传统、体育娱乐、宗教信仰、风俗习惯及社会生活等方面的基本知识,有助于读者了解澳大利亚的思维方式、价值观念、历史文化及生活方式,更好地掌握和运用英语语言,加深对语言和文化的理解,增强对文化差异的敏感性,提高分析和评价能力,达到扩大知识面、巩固和提高英语水平之目的。同时,通过深入了解,使读者纠正一些对澳大利亚的固有错误认识,进而能够辩证、全面、发展地对待现代社会中出现的西方社会现象与文化现象。

本书适用于大学生以及打算留学澳大利亚的人员,通过本书对澳大利亚文化内容的介绍,读者可全面了解澳大利亚的历史、政治、经济、文化、教育、社会生活等各方面,丰富文化修养,加深对外国语言及澳大利亚文化的理解。

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PREFACE

进入21世纪,全球一体化使得世界各国的联系越来越紧密。 人们除了要了解自己国家的事情外,更要关注其他国家和民族的 发展与人民的生活。作为学习外语的学生应该了解所学语言国家 的地理、历史、政治、经济、文化、社会以及生活常识,等等。

近几年来,在外语教学的过程中也越来越重视文化的输入。 无论是攻读英美文学还是阅读英美报刊,背景知识的缺失将会造成极大的理解障碍。但除了英美两个大国之外,还有很多以英语为母语的国家,在全球也具有举足轻重的地位,比如加拿大、澳大利亚、新西兰,等等。对西方文化全面了解,只追求英美两国是不够的。基于这种认识,我在5年前开设了澳大利亚文化课。由于当时没有合适的教材,只编写了一些零零星星的材料。近几年,我们把这些材料收集起来,进行整理、加工、补充,使之更具有系统性,于是就编写了这本《澳大利亚文化》。希望通过这本书开阔学生的视野,扩大知识面。

在本书编写的过程中,我们得到了澳大利亚墨尔本皇家理工外籍专家陈扬国生女士的支持与帮助,她为本书提出了许多宝贵的意见并做了详细的修改工作,在此深表谢意!

本书涉及的内容广泛,编者水平有限,如有谬误或不妥之处, 恳请广大专家、读者指教。

> **刘春阳** 2013 年 3 月



CONTENTS

Chapter	1 Geographical Survey	
1.1	Geology ····	
1.2	Rivers and Lakes5	
1.3	The Climate 6	
1.4	Conclusion	
Chapter 2 History of Australia		
2.1	Discovery of Australia · · · · 13	
2.2	The Colonial Time ····· 15	
2.3	The Gold Rush ···· 16	
2.4	The Formation of the Federation · · · · 17	
2.5	Women's History	
Chapter	3 The Australian Aborigines 22	
3.1	History 25	
3.2	The Cultural Traditions	
3.3	The Impact of the Settlers	
3.4	The Aborigines Today	
Chapter 4	Literature and the Arts	
4.1	Introduction ···· 68	
4.2	The Art	
Chapter 5	Lifestyles & Sports	
5.1	Lifestyles ···· 92	
5.2	The Sports ····· 100	
Chapter 6	Chapter 6 Major Cities and Scenic Spots	
	Major Cities ····· 117	
6.2	Scenic Spots	
Chapter 7		
7.1	What Is Multiculturalism?	
7.2	The Historical Progress of the Multiculturalism	
7.3	Cultural Maintenance & Australian Popular Culture	
7.4	The Criticism Against Multiculturalism	

此为试读,需要完整PDF请访问: www.ertongbook.com

CONTENTS <



7.5 The Future of Multiculturalism in Australia	148
Chapter 8 Religion & Education	150
8.1 Is Australia a Religious Country?	156
8.2 Religious Groups and the Welfare System	157
8.3 Education ·····	164
Chapter 9 Politics and Economy in Australia	
9.1 The Politics in Australia	178
9.2 The National Economy ·····	188
参考文献 ······	198

Chapter 1 Geographical Survey

【本章导读】

澳大利亚是世界上面积最小的陆地,也是最大的岛屿。它是世界上最古老的地块之一,也是各洲大陆中最平坦的。其国土面积为世界第六,排在俄罗斯、加拿大、中国、美国和巴西之后,同时也是唯一一个占据整块大陆的国家。

澳大利亚国土面积760多万平方千米,地处南半球,位于东经113°9′至153°38′,南 纬10°41′至43°39′之间。有近40%的国土面积在回归线以北,其西面和南面是印度洋,东面是南太平洋的珊瑚海及塔斯曼海,北面是帝汶海与阿拉弗拉海。

地貌

澳洲大陆由三大结构组成:西部低高原区、中部低地区、东部高地区。

(1) 西部低高原区

澳大利亚有近 2/3 的地区是一个低高原区,平均海拔高度为 300 ~ 600 米,但也有一些较小的高原及山脉超过这个高度,还有一些盆地及沟地低于这个高度。这个高原区实际上是由一些较小的高原组成的,但从整体上看,组成澳洲大陆的前寒武纪地质,主要是由亚加亚岩石群组成的低地,还有一些区域则被年代较短的岩石群及大片沙漠地覆盖。西部低高原区的大部分地方都相对平坦,但是,在高原区靠近大海的边缘地带有很多崎岖不平的丘陵地带,其中包括西澳的金伯利地区和哈默尔斯利山脉,以及澳大利亚中部的一些相对分隔的山脉(比如麦克多勒尔和马斯格莱孚山脉)与独体山,其中最著名的可能是乌鲁奴山(艾尔斯岩)。

(2)中部低地区

本地区主要包括位于西部低高原区东面的沉积性盆地,从卡奔塔利亚湾起直到大自流盆地,再延伸到墨累-达令平原。这一地区的大部分地方是平地及低洼地。主要的不同之处在南澳,那里有一些年代不太久远的地壳断层,因此这一地区的地貌是由一些上升的地块组成的一系列山脉(如弗林德斯山脉和阿德莱德群山),群山之间有一些下沉的地块形成平原,还有一些则沉入海中(如斯宾塞海湾)。中部低地区的大部分地方都是大自流盆地,包括不少可以蓄水的沉积性岩石群,这里所储蓄的水将流向较为潮湿的东部高地。

(3)东部高地区

东部高地区位于沿东海岸的大部分地区,其地貌特点是在沿海岸线一带多为陡峭林立的马头丘,接着是一些高地,然后缓缓向内陆倾斜延伸。尽管在雪山山区和维多利亚高山区可以找到 1 800 米以上的海拔点(其最高点在科西阿斯科山顶,有 2 228 米),从新南威尔士再向北走有许多高原海拔在 1 000 米以上。然而,在昆士兰海拔 1 000 米以上的高山为数不多,高地一般也很少见。

沿岸的马头丘在新南威尔士及昆士兰南部海岸线上特别多,再往北走,有很多互不



相连的山脉,比如位于凯恩斯四周的那些山脉。澳大利亚落差最大的瀑布就分布在河水流过这类马头丘的地方,比如玛克莱河的沃罗姆比瀑布,赫伯特支流上的瓦拉曼大瀑布,凯恩斯附近的巴伦瀑布及蓝山山脉中的温特渥斯大瀑布。在高地的维多利亚境内,古老的高原已蚀变为互不相连的山脉与高地平原,在靠海的一面与靠近内陆的一面都比较陡峭。在马头丘与海岸之间靠近海岸的地带,有一些平地,但多为丘陵。这一地带的宽度极少超过100千米。

大分水岭将流向中澳地带或墨累 - 达令盆地的河流与流向太平洋或巴斯海峡的河流分隔开来。但在有些地方,比如雪山山脉的北部及布林达伯拉山脉地区,其最高的山脉与位于堪培拉东的大分水岭并不在同一个位置上。

河流与湖泊

澳大利亚的河流可分为两大类:靠近海岸的河流,落差中等;流经中部平原的河流,落差很小。墨累-达令河是澳大利亚最长的河流,流经昆士兰的部分地区,新南威尔士及维州北部的大部分地区以及南澳的一部分地区,最后流入南澳海岸称为亚历山大里拉湖的海湾,其长度约为 2 520 千米。墨累-达令水系最长的支流起源于库尔戈亚水库,长度约为 3 370 千米。

东海岸的大部分河流都很短,但一些流经沿海马头丘的河流除外,比如昆士兰的伯德金河和菲茨罗伊河以及新南威尔士的汉特河,西澳大利亚的西南也有一些靠近海岸、流程不长的河流。

除了那些成为墨累-达令盆地的一部分河流之外,西昆士兰有一些内陆河流,比如帕罗河、布鲁河等。这些河流并不流向大海,而是流入艾尔湖或在汇入其他河流前就干涸了。

澳大利亚有很多种湖泊,最大的是咸水湖,它们现在是或者曾经是内陆河水的集聚地。大多数时候这些湖就是盐床及干涸的淤泥。艾尔湖是其中最大的湖,面积为9500平方千米,在上个世纪中,只有三次注满过水。其他的大型咸水湖还有托伦斯湖及格尔德勒湖。

其他的天然湖包括沿海地区由于水下沉积物积累而阻塞峡谷形成的湖泊。这些湖泊中,有许多是常年蓄水。但也有一些,比如乔治湖,干旱时期就会干涸,同时与内陆的咸水湖相比,面积都比较小。澳大利亚没有面积超过100平方千米、未经人工改造、常年蓄水的天然淡水湖。在各州及自治区内,还有许多人工湖,或经人工扩建的湖。塔斯马尼亚西南由戈登湖与帕得湖合并建成的人工湖是其中面积最大的,水面面积有513平方千米。

气候

一般来讲,澳大利亚的气候温暖而干燥,非常适合户外活动。冬天气候温和,夏天温暖,甚至很炎热。其季节与北半球相反。

这个大陆岛的气候多样,包括北部的热带地区,内地的干旱地区以及南部温带地区。澳大利亚是世界上第二个最干旱的大陆(仅次于南极洲),80%以上的地区年均降雨量低于600毫米,50%以上的地区低于300毫米。夏天全国大部分地区气候炎热,除珀斯与布里斯班南部沿海的狭长地带,以及高海拔地区外,澳大利亚的大部分地区一月



份平均最高温度超过30℃。冬天北方气候温暖,南方较为凉爽,回归线以南内陆地区 夜间出现霜冻的情况也很常见。只有在海拔较高的地区,冬天的温度才接近北欧或北 美的气候。

有些地方的降雨量与气温的季节性变化很大。在北澳地区,气候终年温暖,从大约十一月起到次年四月有一个"雨"季,全年的降雨几乎都在此时间内发生。从五月到十月则有一个"旱"季。再往南,气温的变化对季节的更迭开始显得重要起来,一年之中的降雨也分配得更为均匀,在西南部以及南部的部分边缘地区,冬天则变得十分明显。

澳大利亚最干旱的地区年均降雨量不足 200 毫米。这一地区从鲨鱼湾附近的西岸 开始,跨越西澳内陆和南澳北部,直至昆士兰西南及新南威尔士西北。这个地区最干燥 的地方在南澳的艾尔湖附近,年均降雨量在 150 毫米以下。该地区一般不会遇到潮湿 的大气团,降雨也没有规律,一般每年仅有 20 天左右的降雨。

澳大利亚的年均降雨量最多的地区在凯恩斯与卡德维尔之间的昆士兰东海岸地区。这里的高山非常靠近热带海岸,贝伦顿克尔山的山顶在过去32年中,年均降雨量达到7996毫米,而在海拔稍低的地区,比如托巴茨,其25年间年均降雨量为4382毫米,巴宾达在94年间的降雨量为4231毫米。塔斯马尼亚西部的山区年均降雨量也很高,如玛格里特湖,59年间的年均降雨量为2956毫米,其他地方则大约为3500毫米。新南威尔士的雪山地区降雨量也特别高。在海拔1800多米最潮湿的西坡地区,尽管没有正式的降雨量统计,地表径流量数据表明其部分地区年均降雨量超过了3000毫米。

年均气温从西澳最北端的金伯利海岸地区的 28 ℃ 到澳大利亚东南高山地区的 4 ℃不等。七月份是整个大陆各个地方平均气温最低的月份。南部平均气温最高的月份 是一月和二月。由于雨季云层增加,北部的月平均气温以十二月为最高,在北部或西北部的最顶端,则以十一月为最高。

冬夏季气温在澳大利亚热带地区相差不大,而在南部内陆地区温差最大,在那里,沿海地区的季节温度受到邻近印度洋气候的影响。

Australia is the world's largest island and its smallest continent. It is the only continent inhabited by one nation. Additionally, Australia includes the much smaller island of Tasmania, which lies just to the south of the main continent, and some more distant island territories and dependencies in both the Pacific Ocean (Norfolk Island) and the Indian Ocean (Christmas, Cocos and Keeling Islands). Australia is the world's sixth largest country in land area. Its area of 7, 686, 848 square kilometers makes it just a little smaller than Russia, the United States, Canada, China and Brazil.

1.1 Geology

The Australian continent is made up of three major structures: the Western Plateau, the Central Lowlands and the Eastern Highlands.

1.1.1 Western Plateau

Nearly two-thirds of Australia is a plateau with an average elevation between 300 and 600

meters, with smaller plateau and ranges above the level, and basins and troughs below it. The great plateau is in fact a complex of smaller units, but when regarded as a whole it constitutes the Pre-Cambrian Shield of the Australian continent. The plateau is fundamentally composed of abasement complex of Achaean rocks, with some areas covered with younger rocks or extensive sand deposits. Much of the Western Plateau is relatively flat. There are, however, numerous more rugged areas near the coastal boundaries of the Plateau, including the Kimberley region and Hamersley Ranges in Western Australia, as well as a number of relatively isolated ranges in central Australia, such as the Macdonnell and Musgrave Ranges, and individual mountains, of which Uluru or Ayers Rock is probably the best known.

1.1.2 Central Lowlands

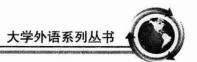
The Central Lowlands consist mainly of great sedimentary basins lying to the east of the Western Plateau. This region stretches from the Gulf of Carpentaria through the Great Artesian Basin to the Murray Darling Plains. Most of this area is flat and low-lying. The main exception occurs in South Australia, where relatively recent faulting has occurred, and the area takes the form of a number of blocks which have been raised to form a series of ranges: two examples of which are the Flinders Ranges and Adelaide Hills. The down-faulted blocks in between formed plains, some of them submerged, such as Spencer Gulf. Much of the Central Lowlands is occupied by the Great Artesian Basin, which consists of sedimentary rocks saturated with water that drains into the wetter Eastern Highlands.

1.1.3 Eastern Highlands

The Eastern Highlands, stretching along most of the length of the east coast, are characterized by a steep escarpment over much of their length on the coastal side. This escarpment is a series of high plateaus with more gentle slopes towards the interior. While the highest elevations over 1,800 meters are found in the Snowy Mountains and Victorian Alps, and the Alp's highest point is the summit of Mount Kosciosko of 2,228 meters, many of the plateaus further to the north in New South Wales exceed 1,000 meters elevation. In Queensland, however, 1,000 meters is only reached in a few locations and the highlands are generally less pronounced.

The coastal escarpment is particularly significant along much of the New South Wales and southern Queensland coast, as well as along the more isolated ranges further north, such as those around Cairns. Australia's highest waterfalls occur where rivers flow over this escarpment. Notably among the waterfalls are Wollombi on the Macleay, Wallaman Falls on a tributary of the Herbert, Baron Falls near Cairns, and Wentworth Falls in the Blue Mountains. In the Victorian part of the highlands, the old plateau has been eroded into separate ranges and high plains, and is relatively step on both the coastal and interior sides. Between the escarpment and the coast lies a coastal strip, which is rarely more than 100 kilometers wide, sometimes flat but quite hilly in many places.

The Great Dividing Range separates rivers flowing to central Australia or the Murray-



Darling Basin from those flowing to the Pacific Ocean or Bass Strait. In some places, such as the northern Snowy Mountains and Brindabella Ranges the highest ranges do not coincide with the Great Dividing Range which in that area is in the east of Canberra.

1.2 Rivers and Lakes

Rivers in Australia may be divided into two major classes; those of the coastal margins with moderate drops, and those of the central plains with only as light drop. Australia's longest drainage system is the Murray-Darling, which drains part of Queensland, most of New South Wales and northern Victoria, and a section of South Australia, and finally flows into the arm of the sea known as Lake Alexandrina, on the South Australian coast. The length of the Murray is about 2,520 kilometers, while the longest branch of the combined Murray-Darling system, with its headwaters in the Culgoa catchment, is about 3,370 kilometers long.

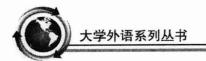
Most of the east coastal rivers are short, except for those rivers which penetrate the coastal escarpment, such as the Burdekin and Fitzroy in Queensland and the Hunter in New South Wales. The southwest of Western Australia also has a number of short coastal rivers.

Australia has few large rivers. Apart from the short, fast-flowing rivers that flow from the eastern and south-east ranges to the eastern coast, and some of the streams in the Murray-Darling Basin in central south-east Australia, most of Australia's rivers flow erratically. Those of the central interior lowlands and the western two-thirds of Australia flow only intermittently. Sometimes for many years in a row, it is just a large salt-covered depression. Then, when floods occur in north and eastern Australia, water flows down the Georgina Diamantina and Thompson Rivers for over 2,000 kilometers to fill Lake Eyre for the next year or two.

In addition to those rivers which form part of the Murray-Darling Basin, Western Queensland has a number of inland-flowing rivers, such as the Paroo, Bulloo, etc. These rivers do not reach the sea, but drain into Lake Eyre or dissipate without reaching any other drainage system.

There are many lake types in Australia. The largest are salt Lakes which are, or were, drainage sumps of internal rivers. For most of the time these lakes are beds of salt and dry mud. Lake Eyre is the largest of these lakes. It has an area of 9,500 square kilometers and has only filed three times in the last century, while other large salt lakes include Lake Torrens and Lake Gairdner.

Other natural lakes include coastal lakes formed by the damming of valleys by marine sediments. Many of these lakes are permanent, but some, such as Lake George, dry out during drought periods and all are small compared to the inland salt lakes. Australia has no natural, unmodified, permanent fresh water lakes larger than 100 square kilometers. Many artificial lakes, or lakes expanded by artificial means, exist through out all states and territories. The combined Lakes Gordon and Pedder in south-western Tasmania are the largest of these, with a surface area of 513 square kilometers.



1.3 The Climate

In general, the climate of Australia is warm and dry, conducive to outdoor activities. Winters are mild and summers warm to hot. Seasons are the reverse of those in the Northern Hemisphere.

The small town of Marble Bar in Western Australia has an average summer temperature of 41 $^{\circ}$ C, and set the world record of 160 consecutive days with a temperature of 100 $^{\circ}$ C on the Fahrenheit scale (37.8 $^{\circ}$ C). On the other hand, Charlotte Pass near Mt Kosciusko once recorded temperature as low as -22.2 $^{\circ}$ C. Tully, near Cairns, is Australia's wettest place and has an average annual rainfall of 4,546 millimetres. However, the interior and western two-thirds of Australia can go without any rainfall at all for years on end.

The island continent features a wide range of climatic zones, from the tropical regions of the north, through the arid expanses of the interior, to the temperate regions of the south. Australia is the world's second-driest continent after Antarctica, with over 80% of the continent receiving an average annual rainfall below 600 millimeters per year, and over 50% below 300 millimeters. In most parts of the country summers are hot, with an average maximum temperature in January exceeding 30 °C. The only exceptions are the southern coastal fringe between Perth and Brisbane, and areas at high-elevations.

Winters are warm in the north and cooler in the south, with overnight frosts common in inland areas south of the Tropic of Capricorn. Only at areas of higher elevations do winter time temperatures approach those found in much of northern Europe or North America.

Seasonal fluctuations in both rainfall and temperature can be large in parts of the country. Rainfall seasonality is very important. The northern half of Australia receives almost all of its rainfall in summer, between December and March. This is caused by movement of the tropical low pressure systems southwards during the northern hemisphere winter. Tropical cyclones come at this time of the year—generally between five and ten per season spread around the northern coastline. The southern half of Australia receives most of its rainfall in winter from moist air and cold frosts from the Southern Ocean. However, averages again can be deceptive, and the key features of variability and unreliability in rainfall patterns should always be noted.

Australia's driest section has an average rainfall of less than 200 millimeters per year. This is a large area extending from the west coast near Shark Bay across the interior of Western Australia and northern South Australia, into south-western Queensland and north-western New South Wales. The driest part of this region is in the vicinity of Lake Eyre in South Australia, where average annual rainfall is below 150 millimeters. This region is not frequently exposed to moist air masses and rainfall is irregular. Rainfall occurs roughly around twenty days per year.

The region with the highest average annual rainfall is the east coast of Queensland between Cairns and Cardwell, where mountains are very close to the tropical coast. The summit of Bellenden Ker has are cord of receiving an average rainfall of 7, 996 milimeters over 32 years, while at lower elevations, Topaz has an average rainfall of 4, 382 millimeters over 25 years, and Babinda 4, 231 millimeters over 94 years. The mountainous region of western Tasmania also has a high annual rainfall, with Lake Margaret receiving an average rainfall of 2, 956 millimeters over 59 years, and other parts of the region near 3, 500 millimeters.

The Snowy Mountains area in New South Wales also experiences particularly high rainfall. While there are no official rain gauges in the wettest areas on the western slopes above 1, 800 meters elevation, runoff data suggests that the average annual rainfall in parts of this region exceeds 3, 000 millimeters.

Average annual air temperatures range from 28 degrees Celsius along the Kimberley coast in the extreme north of Western Australia to 4 degrees Celsius in the alpine areas of south-eastern Australia. July is the month with the lowest average temperature in all parts of the continent. In the south, the months with highest average temperatures are January and February. Due to the increase in cloudiness during the wet season, the month of highest average temperature in the north of the continent is December or, in the extreme north and north-west, November.

Temperature differences between winter and summer vary the least in tropical Australia, while vary the greatest in the southern inland. Seasonal temperatures along the coast are moderated by the ocean.

1.4 Conclusion

The geographic location of Australia and its patterns of landforms, rivers and climate from the natural environment upon which the patterns of agriculture, tourism and urban settlement have developed. Although Australia appears to be a large underpopulated continent, in fact most of the areas where few people live are deserts or virtually uninhabitable in the ways in which Western people like to live. Where the climate and environment allow it, Australia is densely populated. The big cities suffer congestion, pollution and contamination of waterways, just as they do in many Asian countries.

Thus the patterns of landforms and climate in the natural environment in Australia are closely related to the pattern of human activities. The early European agricultural and pastoral activities were in the hospitable south-east corner of the continent. This was where the first minerals and coal were found, the first towns and cities established and the early manufacturing industries developed. Indeed, in the 1870s and 1880s, the industries of Sydney and Melbourne made Australia one of the leading exporters of manufactured goods in the world. However, this industry was based upon the processing of products from the natural environment. As settlers moved further north up the Queensland coast and inland for sheep, beef and mineral production, the huge wealth from these primary industries, which were also based upon the richness of the natural environment, swamped the early manufacturing industries, at least in scale and economic importance.



So while Australia has been a 'lucky country' because of the diversity and richness of its natural environment, it may be this very richness that makes Australia vulnerable in the modern world economy. Governments and companies did not value manufacturing industries because they thought the wealth was in the land. For this reason, manufacturing did not keep up with natural resource industries. Indeed, Australia re-imports its exports of wool, cotton and steel as clothing, cars and machines. Thus today, when manufacturing is so important for economic strength, Australia is a net importer of manufactured goods and has a serious balance of payments problem, even when the Australian economy is performing strongly on other indictors. The value of the exported natural resources is far less than the cost of manufactured imports. This is why the inflow of funds with international tourists is so important to Australia. However, may thoughtful Australians are now wondering whether, in tourism, the country is yet again relying upon its rich natural environment and still failing to address other fundamental needs.



Chapter 2 History of Australia

【本章导读】

澳洲的发现

大约在公元 200 年左右,希腊科学家亚历山大·普托莱米指出,在亚洲的南面,有一块很大的陆地,等待人们去发现。这块陆地在拉丁语中称为"Terra Australis Incognita", 意为"未知的南方大陆"。

据说在欧洲定居者来到澳洲之前的大约四万多年之前,土著人与托雷斯海峡岛民就已居住在该大陆的大部分地区。当时大约有30万至100万土著人在这块大陆上生活。人们认为他们的祖先是跨过澳洲大陆与印度尼西亚及新几内亚的一些岛屿之间的海峡来到澳洲的。

早在欧洲人扩张到东半球之前,亚太地区的探险家和商人就与澳洲土著人有交往。 事实上,早在中国明代,有一个名叫郑和的宦官就发现了澳洲大陆。1422 年郑和与他的 船队抵达了如今北部区的达尔文港,以及昆士兰的一些地区。后来,许多马来亚渔民也 曾定期来到澳洲北部捕鱼。

欧洲人与澳大利亚的接触,最早的记载是从 1606 年初才有。荷兰船长威廉·简斯驾着小船"杜伊夫根号"从爪哇启航,经过巴布亚新几内亚的南面,看到了约克角半岛的西岸。他将海岸的部分地区绘制成图,在与当地土著人的冲突中有一名水手丧生,后来返回爪哇,他对新大陆没留下什么印象。同年晚些时候,路易斯·托雷斯带领两艘西班牙船通过巴布亚新几内亚与澳洲大陆之间风急浪险的海峡。17 年以后,荷兰人简·卡斯特恩兹重走"杜伊夫根"的路线,对澳洲大陆及其居民的报道颇为尖刻。在东印度公司从事调味品贸易的荷兰船长们发现,到达爪哇的捷径是从好望角开始迎风向西航行,大约6 400 千米以后再向北拐。第一个由于计算错误而继续向西航行看到澳大利亚的人是德克·哈托格。1616 年,他在鲨鱼湾登陆,留下了欧洲人与澳洲接触的最早的纪念物:一块水手用的白锡板,上面刻有他的名字。其他荷兰人群起效仿,他们发现了从约克角西部到大澳大利亚湾的很多地方。1627 年,弗朗茨·泰森绘制了几乎远至斯宾塞海湾的地图,但新荷兰没有给他提供有价值的东西。但巴塔维亚总督安东尼·凡·戴曼仍然认为这块南方的大陆可能在新荷兰以南,他命令艾伯尔·塔斯曼沿着南纬53°继续寻找。

恶劣的天气将船只推向南行驶,塔斯曼抵达了塔斯马尼亚西南的海岸,他将其命名为凡·戴曼之地。塔斯曼在此作短暂考察后即向东航行,发现新西兰后返回爪哇。1644年,塔斯曼开始他的第二次航行,绘制了澳大利亚北岸与西岸的地图,并将其命名为新荷兰。这次航行证明新荷兰的约克角和西北角之间的海岸线是相连接的。荷兰人对新荷兰的兴趣顿失。

到达澳大利亚的第一艘英国船是东印度公司的大商船泰尔号,该船 1622 年在西澳 近海的蒙特·贝洛珊瑚岛触礁。但直到 1688 年,新荷兰才引起英国人的兴趣。当时,曾



经作过探险家的丹皮尔被任命为英国皇家海军舰艇诺巴克号的船长,并被派回继续他的考察,使得英国人首次将注意力集中到太平洋地区。人类对天文学的兴趣使得英国人宣布对新荷兰肥沃的东海岸的主权。库克船长带领一群科学家来到塔希提观察金星从太阳表面划过的情况。根据寻找澳洲大陆的指示,他乘坐"努力号"船向南航行并绘制了新西兰的地图。在驶向凡·戴曼之地的航程中,一阵南风迫使他向北航行。1770年4月19日,他在现在澳大利亚东南角的伊弗拉德角看到了澳洲的东海岸。他向北航行,对植物湾进行考察。他边走边绘制地图,直到"努力号"被大堡礁的珊瑚戳穿而不得不靠岸修理为止。在几乎绘制完整个北岸的地图后,他在约克角北面的一个小岛上登陆。他将其命名为占领岛,升起英国国旗并以英王乔治三世的名义宣布对新荷兰东部的主权,后来他将其命名为新南威尔士。

1770 年库克船长的航行结束时,除澳洲南部及东南部以外,其他地方都已被绘制成图。这些地方的空白是由两位英国人马修·弗林德斯和乔治·巴斯,以及一个叫做尼古拉斯·波登的法国人于1778 年至1802 年的探险活动来填补的。巴斯是船上的医生,弗林德斯是一名海军少尉,他们第一次从悉尼湾出发向南航行时乘坐的汤姆·桑姆号只有2.5 米长,此后又多次冒险航行。巴斯驾驶一条捕鲸船航行远至威斯顿湾后返回悉尼。海上的经历使他确信在新荷兰与凡·戴曼之地之间有一个海峡。弗林德斯于1802 年至1803 年环绕澳洲大陆航行,证明了新荷兰、新南威尔士与植物湾并不是分隔的岛屿,而是一块大陆的几个部分。他认为用两个国家的名字来命名同一块大陆是不适宜的,因此建议用另一个名字来表示这块古老的陆地——澳大利亚。

殖民地时期

实际上,是美国的独立战争带来了澳洲的移民定居,1775 年前,英国将许多罪犯运送到美洲的殖民地。美国的这场革命使得英国人急需寻找另一个地方来安置罪犯。1779 年,库克船长的同伴约瑟夫·波尔斯向英王推荐植物湾可以作为运送罪犯的目的地。阿瑟·菲利普船长被任命为新南威尔士总督,其管理范围包括整个澳洲的东部及近海岛屿。1787 年,在菲利普船长的率领下,第一舰队向植物湾出发去建立罪犯安置地,船上有 1530 人,近半数为罪犯。后来菲利普船长发现植物湾不适合用作罪犯安置地后,即向北航行至杰克逊港。他将此地以当时英国内务大臣悉尼勋爵的名字命名。1788 年 1 月 26 日,菲利普在此升起英国国旗并宣布英国对澳洲大陆整个东部的一半拥有主权。

从那时起,罪犯被送往澳洲,同时在澳洲的其他地方也建立了罪犯安置地。四年后,菲利普船长完成其使命离开澳洲时,新南威尔士殖民地的总人口已超过了400人,这还不包括其他罪犯安置地的人口。据估计,最终大约有16万名罪犯被运往澳洲。最后一艘运送罪犯的船只"休格蒙特号"于1868年1月9日抵达西澳弗里曼特尔,船上有279名男性罪犯。这也宣告英国向殖民地运送犯人的日子结束。一般来讲,罪犯被运来修建公路、公共建筑及其他基础设施,也从事农业生产。此外,从19世纪20年代开始,自由移民也开始增加,大多数人都能以某种方式获得土地。早期移民中的大多数人来自英国;有一半以上的人为英格兰或威尔士人,爱尔兰人占不到三分之一,还有大约六分之一的人是苏格兰人。他们来到沿海岸线建立的一些定居点安家。

在起初的25年里,杰克逊港周围的定居者受到蓝山山脉的阻隔,几次试图跨越这



一障碍的行动都以失败告终。直到 1813 年,格雷戈里·布拉克斯兰率领的一组考察人员才找到了一条路,沿着大分水岭的山脊可以走到蓝山深处。1817 年,约翰·霍胥利横跨朗克兰河,1823 年底发现了布里斯班,并在寻找安置罪犯之地时发现了布里斯班河。汉米尔顿·休谟和威廉·赫维尔对澳洲大陆作了进一步的了解。1824 年,他们从悉尼附近出发,从陆路跋涉到达菲利普港湾,就是现在的墨尔本所在地。在这次旅行中,这两个欧洲人第一次跨越了澳大利亚的主要河流——墨累河。阿兰·卡敏哈姆是一位植物学家和探险家,他于 19 世纪 20 年代时向北出发,发现了位于达尔文达令镇的一片沃土,并找到了从那儿到达莫里顿湾的一条路。1828 年到 1830 年间,查尔斯·斯图特船长的探险揭开了从新南威尔士的河流向西流淌的真相,包括墨鲁毕吉河、达令河以及墨累河。约翰·艾尔是所有大陆探险者中最勇敢的人,他第一个穿越了澳大利亚中部。1841年,他成为第一位横穿澳洲大陆从阿德莱德到达奥尔巴尼的人。

还有更多的探险者到不同的地区去探险,取得了不同程度的成功。所有早期探险中最具悲剧性的可能是罗伯特·欧哈拉·伯克和威廉·维尔斯。1860年,他们从墨尔本出发,1861年抵达卡苯塔里亚海湾。他们是最先从南到北跨越澳洲大陆的人。两人都是经验不足的探险者,对丛林生活也不熟悉。他们成功地抵达北部的大海,但却命丧返途。这个小组中只有一个人得到了土著人的照顾,最后回到了墨尔本。

约翰·麦克道尔·斯图亚特也参与了从南到北横穿澳洲的竞赛。经过三次尝试后, 他从 1861 年到 1862 年从阿德莱德抵达达尔文。从东到西的横穿则是在 19 世纪 70 年 代进行的。随着澳洲大陆的大部分地方被考查发现,跨越大陆的探险时代也宣告结束。

所有澳洲罪犯定居点的主要经济是牧羊业,羊毛用牛队或驼队运到市场。约翰·麦克阿瑟是悉尼附近的一个农场主,他首先在自己的定居地进行美利奴羊的养殖,并将其发展成为一个产业。牧场主建立了一些牧场,但在这些牧场被正式承认前,羊群常常跨界觅食。这些牧场主通常被称为擅自占地者,因为他们擅自占领土著人的土地,而且其中许多人都持枪抢地。他们成为澳大利亚有土地的贵族,其财富使他们成为澳洲最强大的经济力量。

淘金潮

金矿的发现改变了澳洲的历史。1851年5月,新南威尔士的巴塞斯特附近发现了金矿,标志着淘金潮的开始。有许多关于发现金子的故事。下面即是一例:

1869年1月6日,有两个贫穷的掘金者叫做约翰·迪森和理查德·奥茨。他们在维多利亚州的莫里亚古尔的一棵树下掘金。在围着一棵大树的根部挖掘到大约2英寸深时,迪森的镐头突然碰到了硬东西。他对奥茨说:"糟糕!我可真宁愿它是个金块,它把镐头都碰断了。"他仔细地看了看那个东西,发现真是一块金块。由于太大,他们搬不动它。

他们两人将其打破成三块可以搬动的部分,取名为"欢迎你陌生的来者"。并把它们送到都诺里的伦敦渣打银行。银行预支给他们900 多英镑,这块金矿石重2284 盎司,打破了11 年前在新南威尔士巴拉腊特发现的那块重2217 盎司金矿石的记录。发现金矿的消息传开后,看热闹的人挤满了银行,一名警察只好守卫在这块巨大的金矿石旁。

淘金潮极大地刺激了东南部所有殖民定居地的经济活动。随着人口的增长,需要为掘金者提供住房、设备、粮食、肉类及奶制品。同时,随着机械技术越来越多地得到运