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tribe inferior even to these, called Niadis. There are several subdivisions of the first three castes. The Poliars are bought and sold like cattle, either with or separate from the land, one of them being generally reckoned of equal value to two buffaloes. They are often treated with severity, and are of a miserable appearance, squalid, and diminutive.

The whole province was subdued in 1760 and 1761 by Hyder, and in 1788 it was overrun by Tippoo, and the rajahs were mostly driven for refuge to Cochin and Travancore, but in 1790 were reinstated by the English government, under whose superintendence the affairs of the province have much improved, the revenues have been augmented, and the trade increased. The province is under the immediate superintendence of the governor of Madras.

MALABAR LANGUAGE. [HINDUSTAN, p. 229.]

MA'LABATHRUM, a name which occurs frequently among the writings of the antients, and which was applied to a leaf imported from India, whence it was likewise called *φύλλον ἰνδικόν*, and also simply Folium. It was employed by them both as a medicine and as a perfume. From it there was prepared both an oil and a wine by maceration of the leaves in these menstrua. Many fabulous statements accompany the earliest accounts, as that of Dioscorides, by whom it is stated that by some they are thought to be the leaves of the Indian Nand; that they are moreover found floating on Indian marshes, and that they grow without roots (lib. i., c. 11), and that (lib. ii., c. 10) it is by feeding on them that the animal affording the onychia, or unguis odoratus of the antients, becomes aromatic. In the works of the Arabs *saduj* is given as the synonyme of Malabathrum; and *saduj*, both in Persian works and in India, is applied to tej-pat, or the leaf of the *tej*, which is a species of Cinnamomum, *C. albiflorum*, growing in the dense forests of the valleys of the Himalaya, which extend from Rungpore to the Deyra Doon in 30° N. lat. Dr. Hamilton found the same name applied to a very nearly allied species, the *C. Tamala*. Both species most probably yield the leaves which were so highly esteemed in antient times, and are still as extensively employed in eastern countries, and may be found in every Indian bazaar under the names of *tuj* or *tej-pat*, or by the Arabic name of *saduj-hindee*. They are analogous in all respects to bay-leaves produced by the Laurus nobilis, and are in fact the bay-leaves of India. The name Malabathrum no doubt is derived from *Tamala-putra*, or Tamala-leaf, as was first indicated by Garcias: 'Appellant autem Indi Folium Tamalapatra quam vocem Græci et Latini imitantes corrupte Malabathrum nuncuparunt.' These are brought from the interior of almost inaccessible forests, and necessarily stripped from the branches for the facility of carriage; hence most probably originated the fables with which their early accounts are accompanied.

MALACCA, a town in Southern Asia, situated on the western coast of the Malay Peninsula, in 2° 14′ N. lat. and 102° 12′ E. long., on the straits called by its name. It is on the northern banks of a small river. The roads along the shores are good and safe. South of the town there is a small island, between which and the continent is a harbour, where, during the south-west monsoon, vessels not drawing more than 16 feet water are secure. The bar at the mouth of the river has only water enough during high tide for boats. Many of the houses are tolerably well built, but the greatest part, which are inhabited by Asiatics, are composed of bamboo and mat huts. On the southern side of the river are the ruins of a fort, now converted into a public promenade.

Malacca was built in 1252, by Sri Iscander Shah, the king of the Malays, after his expulsion from Singapura, a town situated on or near the site of the emporium now called Singapore. It was first visited by the Portuguese in 1507, and taken by Alfonso Albuquerque in 1511. It was then a large commercial town, and the harbour contained 300 vessels. It continued in a flourishing condition till 1640, when it was taken from the Portuguese by the Dutch, upon which event its commerce began to decline, being partly transferred to Batavia. But its position on the great thoroughfare between the Gulf of Bengal on one side and the Indian Archipelago and China still gave it some importance; though the establishment of a British colony in the island of Pulo Penang, in 1786, diminished its commerce. It was taken possession of by the British in 1795, restored at the peace of Amiens, but soon afterwards taken again. In 1814 the Dutch recovered possession of it; but the British having founded the town of Singapore in 1819, which in a few years became a great commercial place, Malacca sunk to insignificance. The town and fort of Malacca, with its dependencies, were ceded to the English by the treaty between the Britannic and Netherland governments of March, 1824.

Besides the town, this colony consists of a tract of country about 40 miles long and 30 miles wide; its surface may be about 1000 square miles. The country along the sea-coast, to the distance of 12 or 15 miles, is low and nearly level; in many parts swampy, and mostly covered with wood. The soil is not distinguished by fertility; and though rice is raised, this article, as well as other grain, is annually imported from Bengal. Fruits succeed exceedingly well, as pine-apples, shaddocks, oranges, &c. Cocoa-nut palms are numerous. The cultivation of coffee has been introduced lately. Pepper is grown to a considerable amount, and 4000 piculs (1 picul = $133\frac{1}{3}$ pounds) are annually exported. The amount of tin annually got from the mines is estimated at 4000 piculs. There is also gold.

The bulk of the population consists of Malays. There are some Hindus and Chinese, and also some descendants of the Portuguese and Dutch. In 1822 the population in the town of Malacca amounted to 12,000 souls, and in the whole colony to 22,000. After the British got possession of it, the number decreased by emigration to Singapore, but the population has recently begun to increase, and is said to be 30,000.

(Crawfurd's *Journal of an Embassy to the Courts of Siam and Cochin China*; Finlayson's *Journal of a Mission to Siam and Hué; Notices of the Indian Archipelago*, &c., collected by J. H. Moor, Singapore, 1837. [NANING.]

MALACCA, THE STRAITS OF, separate the Malay Peninsula from the island of Sumatra. They begin on the north between Diamond Point on Sumatra and the island of Pulo Penang near the shores of the continent, about 5° 20′ N. lat., and terminate on the south between the most southern cape of the Asiatic continent, the Tanjong Burus (1° 15′ N. lat.), and the islands of Carimon or Krimun (1° N. lat.). Its direction is from north-west to south-east, between 97° 30′ and 103° 40′ E. long. At its northern extremity it is nearly 180 miles wide, but southward it grows narrower, and opposite the town of Malacca, from which it takes its name, the strait is hardly 36 miles wide, and both shores are visible from the middle of the channel, though they are rather low. The strait preserves this width to its southern extremity. Being enclosed on the south-west and north-east by countries in which the mountain-ranges rise to a great elevation, this strait is not subject to the violence of the south-west and north-east monsoons, and the sea, especially at its southern extremity, is always as smooth as a pond. But when the Gulf of Bengal is agitated by the strong gales of the north-west monsoon, there is a heavy sea in the northern and more open portion of the strait, which at that time inundates many parts of the low shores which are immediately contiguous. The countries bordering on the strait have not the periodical seasons of rain and dry weather, but rain occurs the whole year round, and mitigates the heat of the atmosphere. Perhaps in no part of the globe is the temperature of the air less subject to changes than on these shores.

(Finlayson's *Journal of a Mission to Siam and Hué*; and Crawfurd's *Journal of an Embassy to the Courts of Siam and Cochin China*.)

MA'LACHI (מַלְאָכִי, 'my messenger'), the last of the twelve minor Hebrew prophets. So completely are we ignorant of the personal history of this prophet, that it has been doubted whether 'Malachi' is the name of a person, or only a title descriptive of the prophetic office. In the absence of any positive proof of the latter supposition, the former must be adopted as the more natural. Many of those who believe that 'Malachi' is an official title identify the prophet with Ezra. This was the opinion of Jerome.

Malachi evidently prophesied after the Babylonish captivity. He was later than Haggai and Zechariah, for he does not, like them, exhort the people to zeal in rebuilding the Temple, but he refers to it as already built (i. 7, 10; iii. 1, 10). In chap. i., ver. 8, he speaks of a political ruler of the people; now, no one appears to have held such an office later than Nehemiah, after whose time political power was in the hands of the priests. Moreover the state of things described and reproved in this prophecy agrees with the account which Nehemiah gives of the manners of the people

abundant and cheap. The citizens are gay, courteous, and hospitable; and the females are renowned throughout Spain for their grace and beauty, sprightliness and humour. The lower orders of Malagueños are indolent, thievish, revengeful, and prone to commit assassination. Malaga gave birth in the twelfth century to Ibn Beithar, the naturalist, the Pliny of the Arabians.

(Ponz, *Viage de España;* Cruz, *Viage de España;* Laborde, *Itinéraire Descriptif de l'Espagne;* Carter's *Journey from Gibraltar to Malaga;* Townsend's *Spain;* Conde's *Aledris* and *Historia de los Arabes en España.* This account of Malaga is principally from personal observation.)

MALAGRIDA. [JESUITS.]

MA'LALA, JOHN (called also Malela, or Malalas, or Malelas), was the author of a chronicle in the Greek language, in 18 books, which extends from the creation of the world to the reign of Justinian. The time in which he lived is uncertain. He must have been alive after the reign of Justinian, since he mentions the number of years which that emperor reigned. Hody, in his Prolegomena to the Oxford edition of this writer, endeavours to show that he lived in the ninth century; but this opinion has been controverted by Jortin, Gibbon, Reiske, and L. Dindorf, who maintain that he lived shortly after the reign of Justinian.

Malala is a Syriac word, signifying 'orator,' or 'rhetorician.' He is also called John of Antioch; but he must not be confounded with the John of Antioch who also wrote a chronicle, extracts from which have been preserved in a work of Constantine Porphyrogennetus, 'On Virtues and Vices.'

The chronicle of Malala was printed for the first time at Oxford, 1691, under the superintendence of Chilmead, who died however before the work was published. Hody prefixed a dissertation to that edition on the life and writings of Malala; and Bentley an appendix, in the form of a letter to Mill, in which he corrected numerous passages. Bentley's letter to Mill was reprinted at the end of Bentley's 'Emendationes in Menandri et Philemonis Reliquias,' Camb., 1713. The chronicle was also published at Venice in 1733; but the best edition is by L. Dindorf (Bonn, 1831), which contains the notes of Chilmead and Hody, as well as Bentley's letter to Mill.

(Hody's *Prolegomena;* Dindorf's *Preface.*)

MÄLARN, LAKE OF. [SWEDEN.]

MALATIA (or more correctly Malatiyah), a town of Asia Minor, about 38° 25′ N. lat. and 38° 20′ E. long., is built in a fine plain, about 15 miles from the banks of the Euphrates. About six miles south-west of it is the town of Aspúzi, to which the inhabitants of Malatiyah retire for the seven summer months, returning for the five winter months to Malatiyah. These towns, which may be considered as one, contained in 1836, 3923 families, 2800 of which were Turkish and 1123 Armenian. The town was formerly more populous, but plague, cholera, and the depredations of the Kurds have greatly reduced it. Aspúzi is situated on the side of a mountain in a forest of fruit-trees. Malatiyah is in a plain, which at present is nearly reduced to an uncultivated state. The antient walls are in ruins, and in most parts have fallen down; the houses have a mean appearance, and the shops in the bazar are mere mud-stalls. There are two well built mosques and two caravanserais, all in the Persian style of architecture. Malatiyah derives its present importance only from its being situated on the great caravan-road which leads from Sivas to Diar-bekr and Mozul, and from being one of the places to which the Kurds resort for the purpose of trade. (Brant, in the *London Geographical Journal*, vol. vi.)

MALAY PENINSULA constitutes the most southern extremity of the continent of Asia, extending between the Gulf of Bengal and the Straits of Malacca on the west, and the Gulf of Siam and the Chinese Sea on the east. It is united to the continent at its northern extremity. Its most southern points form the northern shores of the Straits of Singapore. Kwi Point, in the Gulf of Siam, and the mouth of the Tanasserim river, which enters the Gulf of Bengal, may be considered as constituting its northern boundary; they are situated near 12° N. lat. Cape Burus, the most southern promontory of Asia, in 1° 15′ N. lat., and Cape Romania, in 1° 17′, constitute the two extremities of the Straits of Singapore. The peninsula lies between 98° and 104° E. long. It is 750 miles long, with a width varying between 60 and 180 miles. Its surface may cover an area of about 80,000 square miles, or about 4000 square miles less than that of Great Britain.

The peninsula is traversed by a mountain-range, which is a continuation of the Samroiyet (*i.e.* three hundred peaks) mountains, which between 12° and 14° N. lat. separate the valley of the Tanasserim river from the streams which fall into the Gulf of Siam. This chain, which in this part rises in numerous peaks to the elevation of 3000 feet, sinks lower south of Kwi Point, where it traverses the isthmus of Krah, the narrowest part of the peninsula, between 8° and 12° N. lat. It appears that the mountain-range on this long isthmus, though of moderate elevation, occupies together with its offsets the whole country from one sea to the other, except at its southern extremity, where an extensive tract of alluvial land, enclosing the bay of Chai-ya, occurs on the shores of the Gulf of Siam.

The isthmus of Krah lies due north and south. At its southern extremity, between 8° and 9° N. lat., the Malay Peninsula turns to the south-east, and preserves this direction to its most southern point. Between 6° 30′ and 8° N. lat. the mountains seem to be higher than on the isthmus, but this fact is not established, as no European has ever traversed this country. The tract between 5° and 6° 30′ N. lat. appears to be the highest part of the mountain-range, the peak of Titch Bangsa, opposite the town of Queda, rising, according to Crawfurd, to 6000 feet. The mountains in this part occupy the greatest part of the country, leaving only a low level tract, about seven or eight miles in width, along the Gulf of Bengal, which is swampy and mostly covered with jungle, but when cultivated yields rich crops of rice. On the eastern coast the level tracts are probably more extensive, but the offsets of the mountains in some parts approach near the sea-shore, as Cape Patani and Rocky Point.

South of 5° N. lat. is the widest part of the peninsula, which is about 180 miles in breadth. The interior or mountain-region of this part is little known, but it is certain that it is less elevated than the country farther north, and the summits of the hills are more rounded. The level tract along the Straits of Malacca widens considerably, being about 18 miles in breadth north of 4° lat., and more than 20 miles in breadth south of that parallel; but along the sea-shore a few isolated hills rise to a moderate height, as Rachado Point and others. The range forming the watershed between the rivers which fall into the Straits of Malacca and the Chinese Sea does not occupy the centre of the peninsula, but is nearer the western than the eastern shores. The level country along the Chinese Sea is also, so far as is known, much more extensive south of the town of Pahang, and contains a lake, that of Braugh, 50 miles in circumference. On the eastern boundary of the district of Malacca is an elevated summit, the Gunong Leadang of the natives, and Mount Ophir of the Portuguese, whose summit is estimated to be 4000 feet high. It is 24 miles from the Straits. Proceeding farther south, the mountains subside into hills; but even along the Old Straits, which divide the island of Singapore from the continent, the country presents a rocky and elevated shore, and its surface is strongly undulating, though it can hardly be called hilly. Towards this extremity the level country along the Straits of Malacca and the Chinese Sea is of inconsiderable width.

The comparatively small width of this peninsula and the disposition of the mountain-range prevent the formation of considerable rivers. The largest which are known are the Muar river, which forms the southern boundary of the district of Malacca and falls into the strait of that name, and the Pahang river, which runs nearly north on the eastern side of the peninsula. Both rivers are navigable before they issue from the mountains, and are separated by a portage of not more than 300 yards. The Pahang river flows 200 miles under the name of Suruting, and falls into the lake of Braugh, from which it issues under the name of the Braugh river, but soon takes that of Pahang river. At its mouth, near Pahang, are four large islands, planted with cocoa-nut and palm trees. It is probable that there are other rivers, navigable at least for a considerable extent, but they are not known. The number of small rivers is very great, and there probably is no country better watered than this peninsula.

The climate differs on the eastern and western sides of the peninsula. The eastern resembles the coast of Coromandel and of Cochin China Proper, as the mountain-range interrupts the clouds brought by the south-west monsoon, during which period the dry season prevails. But the country is exposed to the full effects of the north-east monsoon

and the wet season commences in the beginning of November and continues till March. The northern part of the western coast is exposed to the south-west monsoon, and in climate resembles Aracan, having its rainy season in our summer, and its dry season in our winter. The southern portion of the western coast differs in climate from all other countries in Southern Asia. It constitutes the eastern side of a large valley, running from north-west to south-east, in the centre of which the Straits of Malacca extend like a large river. On the north-east this valley is sheltered by the mountain-range which traverses the peninsula in its whole length, and on the south-west by that mountain-chain which extends along the south-western shores of the island of Sumatra. Thus this country, as well as the low eastern coast of Sumatra, is perfectly sheltered against both monsoons, the north-eastern and the south-western. In this country accordingly the regular succession of dry and wet seasons is unknown. Showers of rain fall in every month of the year, but more abundantly in our summer. They moderate the heat of the atmosphere, and maintain a vigorous vegetation. No gales are known to occur, and no winds except the sea and land breezes. The heat is not so insupportable as in other countries near the equator; and though during the day the sandy shores are heated to a great degree, the air is cooled sufficiently during the night. Though no meteorological observations on this country have been published, it is known that the range of the thermometer is comparatively very small; it seems to amount hardly to 10 or 12 degrees in the whole year.

The soil seems not to be distinguished by fertility, being in most places composed of a tough red clay, or of a black earth similar to peat; but in many places it yields rich crops of rice. Besides rice the inhabitants live on plantains and some other vegetables; also on fruits, in which this country, especially towards the south, surpasses all other countries. The cultivated fruits are chiefly pine-apples, mangosteens, durion, shaddocks, and oranges. As articles of commerce, pepper, cotton, and a little coffee are cultivated. The country is generally covered with high trees, even on part of the mountains, but the teak-tree does not occur. The variety of trees and plants is very great, but they have not been examined by botanists, except in a few places. Rattans are exported in great numbers.

Cattle are few in number, but buffaloes abound. No sheep are kept; hogs and fowls are plentiful. In the uncultivated tracts and woods tigers, leopards, and rhinoceroses are frequently met with, and sometimes elephants. Among the birds, that kind of swallow which makes the edible nests is the most remarkable. It occurs however chiefly on the islands which skirt the peninsula on the west, and perhaps also in some places on the western coast, where the rocks approach the sea-shore. Fish is extremely plentiful, and constitutes one of the most common articles of food.

The most important articles of commerce are from the mineral kingdom. Gold is found in all the rivers, and also got from mines. A sufficient quantity of this metal is collected to justify the name of Chersonesus Aurea, or the Golden Chersonese, which the antients gave to this country. Tin is still more abundant, and seems to occur in the whole range from the isthmus of Krah to the southern extremity, but not in the Samroiyet range, north of the isthmus. The quantity annually collected probably exceeds 40,000 peculs (1 pecul = 133⅓ pounds), and the greatest part goes to Pulo Penang, Malacca, and Singapore: part is exported from the harbours on the Gulf of Siam to China. Other metals are not noticed.

The bulk of the population consists of Siamese and of Malays. The former occupy the isthmus of Krah and the districts north of 6° 40′ N. lat., and the latter the remainder of the peninsula. The Malays of this country have not attained that degree of civilisation which is found among the inhabitants of Sumatra and Java. They show little industry in cultivating the ground, and still less in the mechanical arts. Their principal occupation is fishing. [MALAYS.] The language of these nations is different. In the interior there are two other nations: the Jakong, or Benua, inhabit some wooded plains towards the southern extremity of the peninsula; they are of a copper-colour, their hair is straight, and their features resemble those of the Malays. They have no fixed habitations, and live by the produce of the chace. Crawfurd thinks that they are Malays in the lowest state of civilisation, an opinion which is supported by their language, which contains but few words that cannot be traced in the Malay language. In the interior, between 6° and 8°, live the Samangs, who seem to belong to the race commonly called the Australian negroes, which is found from the Adaman Islands on the west, to Papua, or New Guinea, on the east, as well as on the continent of Australia. They resemble the African negroes in their features, and have woolly hair. In stature however they are much shorter, their average height, according to Light, in Marsden's 'History of Sumatra,' not exceeding 4 feet 8 inches. They have no fixed habitations, they live in the forests and mountains on the produce of the chase, and eat every kind of animal food, even reptiles. They are extremely timid, and have little intercourse with their neighbours. The whole of the Malay peninsula is thinly inhabited, and many extensive districts in the interior are unpeopled. The whole population perhaps does not exceed one million.

The northern part of the peninsula, as far south as the bay of Chai-ya, is immediately subject to the king of Siam. On that bay are two harbours, called Chai-ya and Bandon, and on the opposite western coast the harbour of Phunga, or Pongo, from which a commercial road traverses the peninsula to Chai-ya and Bandon. The produce of the island of Junk Seylon, or Salanga, and also European goods, are transported from Phunga across the isthmus to Bandon and Chai-ya, and thence shipped to Bangkok. From the island of Kos Sammi, or Pulo Carnam, the Chinese fetch cotton and edible nests; ten or fifteen junks arrive annually for that purpose.

That portion of the peninsula which lies between the bay of Chai-ya and Cajoe Patani is partly governed by Malay sovereigns, dependent on the king of Siam, and partly belongs immediately to Siam. The town of Ligar is said to have 5000 inhabitants, Malays, Chinese, and Siamese. A few Chinese junks arrive annually here for cotton, tin, pepper, and rattans. The same articles, and in addition to them sapan-wood, are exported from the towns of Talung and Sungara, which lie opposite the mountainous island of Tantalem. A road begins at Talung which crosses the peninsula to the small town of Trang, and is passable for elephants. Patani is the most southern of the small kingdoms subject to Siam. It is more fertile and productive than the other Malay states. Its capital was once much visited by vessels from Hindustan in their voyages to Siam, Cochinchina, and China, but at present it is rarely resorted to. It has some intercourse with Singapore; it exports much rice and salt, and a little tin.

The kingdoms of Calantan and Tringano on the eastern, and that of Queda on the western side of the peninsula are only nominally dependent on Siam, and their commercial produce, consisting of gold, tin, and pepper, is brought to Singapore. Tringano, situated at the mouth of the little river Tringano, seems to be a considerable place. From Queda a commercial road, passable for elephants, leads across the peninsula to Sungora; this road is much frequented. Another communication connects the mouth of the river Muda in Queda with the town of Patani. For a considerable distance the goods are conveyed in boats on the river, but still this road is not much frequented. The British colony of Pulo Penang, or Prince of Wales Island, is partly situated within the kingdom of Queda. [PENANG.] The town of Queda is a small place. Its commerce was formerly considerable, but has been nearly destroyed by the establishment on Prince of Wales Island. A few miles farther up is Alustar, a more populous place, and the favorite residence of the princes.

The southern extremity of the peninsula is divided between the kingdoms of Pahang and Johore on the eastern side, that of Rumbowe in the interior, and those of Salangore and Perak on the western coast, together with the British colony of Malacca. [MALACCA.] These kingdoms are independent, and under the protection of the British. None of the commercial places in these states are of importance; they send their produce, consisting of gold, tin, and pepper, to Malacca and Singapore. Perak contains the most productive tin mines in the peninsula, and in Salangore also some rich tin mines have been opened, not far from Cape Rachado. The islands lying in the Chinese Sea, as far as the Nantnas, are subject to Johore. Between the towns of Malacca and Pahang there is a communication, which is much favoured by the water-carriage on the river Suruting, a branch of the Pahang river, and also on the Pahang.

(Marsden's *History of Sumatra;* Crawfurd's *Embassy to Siam and Cochin China;* Finlayson's *Journal of a Mission*

to Siam and Hué; and *Notices of the Indian Archipelago*, &c., collected by J. H. Moor, Singapore, 1837.)

MALAYS, THE, are a nation of Southern Asia, who occupy the shores of the Malay Peninsula, and, if language may be taken as a proof of the fact, seem to have spread over all the islands from Madagascar on the west to Easter Island on the east. Almost all the languages spoken in the islands of the Indian Archipelago and in the Pacific contain a great number of words and expressions which evidently are derived from the Malay language, and the physical character of the people confirms the inference drawn from this circumstance. The great body of this nation however inhabit the larger islands of the Indian Archipelago.

In person the Malays are short, squat, and robust. The medium height of the men may be five feet two inches, and that of the women four feet eleven inches, or about four inches less than the average stature of Europeans. Their lower limbs are rather large and heavy, but not ill-formed. Their arms are rather fleshy than muscular. The face is of a round form, the mouth is wide, and the teeth remarkably fine. The chin is rather of a square form; the angles of the lower jaw are very prominent. The cheek-bones are high, and the cheek consequently rather hollow. The nose is short and small, never prominent, but never flat. The eyes are small, and always black. The complexion is generally brown, but varies a little in the different tribes: climate seems to have nothing to do with the colour. The fairest races are generally to the west, but some of them are on the equator. The hair is long, lank, harsh, and always black. Compared with Europeans and the nations of western Asia, the Malays must be considered an ill-looking people. In person and complexion they most resemble the inhabitants of Siam and Ava, but they differ considerably even from them, and are a very distinct people, with a striking likeness among themselves, and a marked dissimilarity from all other people.

Crawfurd, who has carefully examined the different languages of the Indian Archipelago, finds in them a great similarity in respect of pronunciation, grammatical structure, and idiom. Twenty consonants and five vowels are the greatest number which these languages generally admit, and only two diphthong sounds occur. The structure of these languages is very simple: the relations of nouns are marked by prepositions, the tenses of verbs by auxiliaries, the passive forms by the prefixing of particles, and the transitive forms by affixing particles. Many idiomatic phrases, though expressed by words differing in sound among different tribes, agree in the signification of the single words. These languages are rich in expressions for familiar objects, but poor in the expression of abstract ideas, particularly such as relate to the operations of the mind. For many moral ideas they have no expressions at all. Not less than five kinds of written character are known among the nations who inhabit the Indian Archipelago, the Arabic characters not included, which are in general use among the nations that speak the Malay language.

The Malays have made considerable progress in civilization; but more in the island of Java than on the other islands of the Indian Archipelago. They are well acquainted with agriculture and some of the mechanical arts. They have also made some progress in medicine and music. They are undoubtedly more civilized than any of the nations of southern Asia which inhabit the countries between China and Hindustan. The Malays have great mental activity, and eagerly apply themselves to commerce and navigation, but their navigation does not extend beyond the seas surrounding the Indian Archipelago. Being expert navigators in these seas, and being favoured by the great number of small inhabited islands, their daring spirit urges them to piracy. Various parts of the Indian Sea are thus made very dangerous for small vessels, but the Malay pirates rarely attack European ships. Most of the Malay tribes that inhabit the Indian Archipelago are Mohammedans, but they differ considerably from the Arabs in manners; their wives, for instance, are not secluded from society. They are very revengeful, and among the different ways of taking revenge is the extraordinary one of 'running a muck,' as it is called.

According to the traditional history of many of the Malay tribes, the country of Menangkabao, in the interior of Sumatra, is their original seat, and it is asserted that they first issued from it so late as 1160, and passed to the Malay Peninsula, where they built a town, called Singapura. Hence they are said to have spread over the lower parts of all the islands of the Archipelago. But when we consider how far the Malay tribes are scattered towards the east in the islands of the Pacific, this tradition seems very improbable. It may however refer to the introduction of the Mohammedan creed, as, according to Marsden, a Mohammedan is called in Sumatra a Malay, even when he belongs to one of the tribes which are not of Malay origin. In the larger islands the Malay population generally occupies only the lower tracts along the coast, and the original inhabitants have retired before them into the interior. On the smaller islands the original inhabitants have been extirpated by them.

(Marsden's *History of Sumatra;* and Crawfurd's *History of the Indian Archipelago.*)

MALCOLM I., king of Scots, was the son of King Donald IV., who died in the year 904. He succeeded to the throne when King Constantine III. abdicated, for the retirement of a monastery, in the year 944; and he appears to have reigned about ten years. The principal event of his reign was the cession of Cumbria by the English king to the king of Scots. In this it is said the English king resigned to Scotland what he found he could not easily retain, the border districts being, from the mixed character of the population, in a state of very frequent disturbance; and by the cession of these districts the English king hoped to secure the fealty and friendship of the king of Scots. Malcolm was slain by the men of Moray, in the north of Scotland, where he had marched to repress an insurrection in that quarter; but the precise time, place, or circumstance in which this event occurred, is not certain. He had two grandsons of the same name with himself; the one by his son King Duffus, the other by his other son King Kenneth III. The former was slain by his ambitious uncle Kenneth, and never mounted the throne.

MALCOLM II., king of Scots, was the son of King Kenneth III., and inheriting the ambitious spirit of his father, he set up a claim to the throne, in opposition to his cousin King Kenneth IV., and on the fall of the latter in a pitched battle between the partisans of the two princes, Malcolm succeeded in the year 1003. He reigned about thirty years, the greater part of which period was spent in warlike encounters with the Danes, who sought a settlement in the kingdom. It was in gratitude for a victory obtained over these pirates, that Malcolm founded and endowed a religious house at Mortlach, which afterwards became a bishopric, and at a still later period went to form, with other churches, the bishopric of Aberdeen; and on the same occasion he made many and various grants and oblations to the church and clergy. His piety was accordingly acknowledged and approved by the papal see. Malcolm is also said to have been a legislator, and there is a collection of laws which go by his name, but the authenticity of the *Leges Malcolmi* is disputed. Malcolm died in the year 1033; and there is still shown in the church-yard of Glammis, 'King Malcolm's grave-stone,' which is a rude mass, without any inscription, 16 feet high and 5 feet broad. He appears to have had no son, but only two daughters, both of whom were married. One of these was mother of King Duncan, who was killed near Elgin in 1039, by a stroke of 'treasonous malice.'

MALCOLM III., king of Scots, was the son of 'the gracious Duncan,' whose story has been immortalized in the pages of Shakspeare. On his father's death Malcolm fled into England; but after the fall of Macbeth, and that of his successor, he recovered his father's sceptre, and was declared king in the year 1057; and, as Chalmers reckons, in the thirty-third year of his own age. He is commonly known in history as *Malcolm Canmore*, or *Malcolm Greathead*, probably from the wisdom and prudence of his character. A contemporary bard gives him two epithets, the one implying that he had a handsome person, the other that he had a cheerful mind; and it appears that for a series of years his reign was undisturbed either by foreign or domestic enemies. The accession of William Rufus however proved the signal for hostilities between the two countries; and in an encounter with the English forces Malcolm was surprised by Earl Mowbray, and slain on the 30th of November, 1093, in about the seventieth year of his age.

MALCOLM IV., king of Scots, was the grandson of King David I., and on the death of that king, on the 24th of May, 1153, he succeeded to the throne, being then in the twelfth year of his age. The same year he was called on to repress the insurrection of Somerled, Lord of the Isles, a